The effects of news media on leisure tourists' perception of risk and willingness to travel, with specific reference to events of terrorism and political instability

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Abstract

The perceptions people hold of destinations are of critical importance in the world of tourism as they influence individuals' travel choices. In this sense, tourists' negative awareness concerning safety and security present at a destination can prove disastrous for its ability to attract visitors (George, 2003; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005). Among a multitude of factors which may amplify tourists perceived risk associated with consuming tourism products, man-made disasters of political instability and terrorism are particularly intimidating (Cavlek, 2002; Heng, 2006). Central to these issues is the role of the media in providing consumers with risk information, either directly through the exposure to news coverage of hazardous events, or indirectly through 'word of mouth' information (Kitzinger, 1999; Wahlberg and Sjorberg, 2000; Hughes et al., 2006; Breakwell, 2007; Renn, 2008). Despite a common agreement concerning the influence of the media on tourists' perceptions of risk (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a; Hall, 2002; Beirmann, 2003; Tasci et al., 2007), the relationship is under-researched.

This thesis enhances the understanding of the effects of news media reports concerning terrorism and political instability on leisure tourists' perceived risk and willingness to travel. To reach this aim a sequential mixed method approach consisting of three stages of data collection is adopted. The questionnaire survey determines the influence of tourists' holiday preferences and demographic factors on perceived destination risk and willingness to travel. In order to evaluate the link between the media and tourists' perceived risk, the framing theory of media effects is adopted. This involves a survey-embedded experiment which manipulates potential elements of a news report concerning the risk of terrorism and political instability events in order to understand their influence on tourists' perceived risk and willingness to travel. To gain a depth of understanding and expand on the patterns which emerged in phase one and two of data collection follow-up semi-structured interviews have been conducted.

This study makes a contribution to the body of perceived destination risk research by applying framing theory and an experimental research method to the investigation of the relationship between news media, tourists' perceived risk and willingness to travel. The findings indicate that the media effects of risk communication are difficult to control and depend upon the content of messages, the characteristics of the audiences and the characteristics of the jeopardised object. Moreover, the in-depth account of the interaction between audiences and media messages allows insights into the psychological processes that underpin media effects. The results concerning the role that the characteristics of tourists and destinations play in moderating the strength of the effects that coverage of hazards has on perceived risk and willingness to travel have practical implications for destination managers and marketers.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1. Rationale for research

The safety and security of tourists is one of the most fundamental conditions that need to be met for discretionary or leisure travel to take place. The importance of this factor is reinforced whenever this need is comprised by natural and man-made disasters that occur in tourist destinations and impact on travel flows through introducing uncertainty and fear of consequences (Beirmann, 2003; Lepp and Gibson, 2003; Dolnicar, 2007; Frey et al., 2007; Araña and León, 2008; Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty, 2009; Hall, 2010). If the perceived costs, such as the chance of being exposed to a physical hazard, outweigh the perceived benefits associated with visiting a destination, it is not uncommon for tourists to be deterred from the activity (Mansfeld and Pizam, 2006; Fuchs and Reichel, 2011). In this respect, man-made hazards of terrorism and political instability are often commented to be particularly intimidating to tourists due to the uncontrollable, involuntary and random nature of the potential harm involved in visiting destinations struck by such incidents (Sonmez, 1998; Cavlek, 2002; Heng, 2006; Fletcher and Morakabati, 2008).

Because perceptions of risk are inherently subjective (Slovic and Peters, 2006; Breakwell, 2007) this means that tourists often shun destinations they consider dangerous regardless of whether or not this is a true representation of the level of safety present at a destination. With this point in mind, the news media are often commented to be instrumental in providing tourists with destination risk information which inflates tourists' perceived risk and consequently affects their confidence to travel (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a; Beirmann, 2003; Mansfeld, 2006; Tarlow, 2006; Larsen et al., 2011a; Schroeder et al., 2013). This is typically attributed to the manner in which the news media report on the risk, which tends to be described as very dramatic, attention-seeking and inaccurate (Wahlberg and Sjorberg, 2000; Lupton, 2006; Lofstedt, 2010). However, despite the importance of this issue to the global tourism industry, the relationship between the news media accounts of hazardous events and audiences' perceived risk and behavioural responses is seldom studied.

The existing studies in tourism (e.g. King and Beeton, 2006; Stepchenkova and Eales, 2010; Schroeder et al., 2013) do not account for the psychological processes underlying the interaction between news texts and audience responses and rarely draw

on the theoretical developments and empirical findings of the media effects research, in particular the media framing theory (Perse, 2001; Schuck and de Vreese, 2006; Chong and Druckman, 2007b; Woods, 2011).

Beyond the potential effects of news media on perceived risk and willingness to travel, tourism researchers suggest that such judgments also depend on a host of other factors. These include tourists' demographic and psychographic characteristics, travel experience or holiday benefit preferences (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a; Lepp and Gibson, 2003; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005; Lepp and Gibson, 2008; Fletcher and Morakabati, 2008; Larsen et al., 2011b; Sharifpour et al., 2013). Some of these factors have produced mixed results in the past while others are yet to be applied in seeking to understand their role in determining differences in tourists' perception of risk associated with terrorism and political instability. Moreover, in recognition of the current paradigm of media effects that stresses both the power of the media to shape audiences' opinions and the power of audiences to resist these effects (Devereux, 2007), these characteristics may be important in determining the influence of risk communication on tourists' responses.

This study attempts to address some of the gaps in this knowledge by critically evaluating the effects of news media on leisure tourists' perception of risk and willingness to travel, with specific reference to events of terrorism and political instability. To examine the relationship between these factors a sequential mixed methods approach was employed. The approach was chosen as it enables the researcher to examine the relationships between perceived risk and tourists' characteristics, the causal link between media stimulus and tourists' responses, as well as a depth account of the cognitive mechanisms underlying risk information processing.

It is hoped that this research will help to enhance the understanding of the complex set of interrelations between the media, perceived risk, terrorism, political instability and tourist consumer behaviour. Could differences in the magnitude of perceived risk, associated with events studied, be attributed to tourists' characteristics? If so, do these characteristics play any role in the way tourists attend and respond to news reports of such events? Finally, if the media are found to have an effect on tourists' perceived risk and willingness to travel, are there any factors concerning either tourists' characteristics or a destination's characteristics that destination marketers can focus on to minimise the negative impact this has on visitation patterns? Insights

produced by answers to such questions could then be used in the practice of destination marketing of countries affected by security crises.

1.2. Aim and objectives

The aim of this research project is to critically evaluate the effects of news media reports concerning terrorism and political instability on leisure tourists' risk perception and willingness to travel. To achieve this aim it pursues the following objectives:

1. To determine the factors that influence the destination risk perception and willingness to travel.

2. To determine the influence of news media frames regarding events of terrorism and political instability on destination risk perception and tourists' willingness to travel.

3. To understand the role of benefits associated with travelling to different destinations with respect to the relationship between tourists' risk perceptions and their willingness to travel.

4. To build a theoretical framework concerning the effects of news media frames of terrorism and political instability risk on leisure tourists' risk perception and willingness to travel.

1.3. Thesis structure

This thesis contains six chapters. This section provides a brief overview of each of these chapters.

Chapter 1 provides the rationale for this research, giving an insight into the importance of the research topic under investigation, and sets out the aim and objectives of this study.

Chapter 2 presents a critical evaluation of the body of knowledge related to the relationship between risk, the media, terrorism, political instability, and tourism consumer behaviour. The chapter introduces the reasons for the vulnerability of the tourism system to external shocks, theories concerning tourist decision-making in the

context of risk, the concept of risk and risk perception in tourism, as well as a range of leisure tourist characteristics that may act as potential determinants of perceived risk and willingness to travel. The specific hazard factors of terrorism and political instability, and the role of the media in influencing leisure tourists' perceived risk associated with these events, are also considered in this chapter. In particular, the theories pertaining to the effects of the media and the psychological mechanisms behind them are discussed. The framing theory of media effects is identified as particularly relevant to this research study.

Chapter 3 explains the methodology. The research approach is outlined and the justifications for using mixed methods strategy are demonstrated. The study was conducted in three stages and employed a sequential explanatory design (Creswell et al. 2003). The first stage involved a questionnaire-survey employed to test a range of relationships between tourist characteristics and judgments of risk associated with visiting Egypt, India and Turkey. The instrument was determined by the findings of the literature review chapter. In order to examine the relationship between the media coverage of hazard events and tourists responses' of perceived risk and willingness to travel, the second stage employed a survey-embedded experiment. The sample for this step of research was determined by the results of the questionnaire-survey concerning the characteristics relating to the differences in tourists' responses to risk. The third step involved interviews with experiment participants to validate and enhance the findings from the quantitative strand of research. Findings from all three stages enabled the four objectives of the research to be achieved.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the quantitative strand of the empirical research. This includes the first two stages of research i.e. the questionnaire-survey and the survey-embedded experiment. The chapter begins with descriptive data obtained from the questionnaire-survey on the demographic and psychographic characteristics, as well as risk and willingness to travel judgments of respondents. The relationships between the key variables are then tested and discussed in light of extant research to understand the factors that determine leisure tourists' perceived risk and willingness to travel. The chapter then proceeds to findings and discussion of the survey-experiment. This concerns responses of leisure tourists to information about different aspects of events of terrorism and political instability embedded within fictitious articles.

Chapter 5 presents the findings of the qualitative strand of the empirical research. The data from the interviews is analysed with the use of Scheufele and Scheufele's

(2010) model of a cognitive frame, to obtain a richer view of the interaction between leisure tourists and the reports concerning hazards. Moreover, this approach allows insights into the psychological mechanisms underlying media framing effects on audiences' responses while taking into consideration audience characteristics and beliefs.

Chapter 6 is the conclusion of the thesis which integrates the findings of the qualitative and quantitative research conducted. It proceeds with a review of the findings with respect to the study objectives and a presentation of a theoretical framework of the media effects on leisure tourists' perceived risk and willingness to travel. This is followed by an outline and discussion of contributions to theory and practice. The limitations of the study are then considered and finally suggestions for further research are made.

Chapter 2: Literature review

Introduction

This chapter introduces and critically appraises the literature relevant to the relationship between tourism, risk, terrorism, political instability and the media. To present this discussion in a clear and concise fashion this chapter is divided into a number of sections.

Firstly, part 2.1 and 2.2 set the scene by explaining the reasons for the vulnerability of the tourism system to external influences, as well as the central role of risk played in the process of tourism products consumption. Although perceived risk can undoubtedly deter tourists from travel, the perceived benefits associated with visiting destinations are an important aspect of this relationship. It is suggested that when considered in the process of making a decision involving risk, the benefits can counter-balance its negative influence.

Subsequently, part 2.3 focuses on the literature pertaining to the dominant approaches to studying risk in the broader social sciences and destination risk specifically. The literature points to the multidimensional and subjective nature of perceived risk which is influenced by a blend of social, cultural, psychological and situational factors.

Part 2.4 discusses a range of determinants of perceived risk with particular reference to events of political instability and terrorism. It starts by reviewing existing approaches to our understanding of terrorism and political instability in the social sciences and their relationship with tourists' reactions. This is done in a fashion which considers the similarities and differences between the phenomena, and their implications for tourist decisions. The chapter then proceeds to explain the main ways in which people learn about these events, that is, through personal experience and news media. Research on risk in the media and socio-cultural studies suggest that the representation of risk through framing hazardous incidents in news reports is fundamental as to how (and whether) the media influence perceptions of risk. Subsequently, the role of holiday preferences is discussed. It is proposed that preferences for different types of holiday (i.e. cultural, adventure, and beach) and the benefits they offer may explain differences in the susceptibility of tourists' to risk. Moreover, a large body of tourist typologies suggests that dimensions of personality are

influential in explaining tourists' holiday preferences and reactions to risk. Finally, the chapter reviews literature on the relationship between perceived travel risk and tourists' demographic factors.

2.1.   Perceived risk and the vulnerability of the tourism system

Tourism is a global phenomenon with evident social, environmental and economic significance and impact. Due to the highly complex nature of tourism it is useful to employ a framework which enables one to think of it in an organised way. This is largely what the systems theory which originated in the 1930's is concerned with (Leiper, 2003). To explain, systems 'thinking' is a way of looking at complex phenomena in a cohesive manner with consideration of all its components (Lamont, 2009). By system, according to Von Bertalanffy, we understand 'a set of elements standing in interrelation among themselves and with the environments' (1972, p. 417). Usually systems are arranged in a hierarchy so that each system has its sub-systems and together are part of larger structures (Leiper, 2003). Therefore, as noted by Pearce (2005), the phenomenon of tourism is commonly known by tourism scholars to be built on interrelated elements that are often represented in systems-type diagrams (Gunn, 1994; Leiper, 1979; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Mill and Morrison, 1992; Murphy, 1985; Pearce et al. 1996, all cited by Pearce, 2005, p. 8). The mostly cited model is the one proposed by Leiper (1990) who places tourism within a framework which consists of the following core elements (see figure 2.1):

1. At least one tourist

2. At least one traveller-generating region

3. At least one tourist destination region

4. A least one transit route region

5. A tourism industry/sector

Figure 2.1 The whole basic tourism systems and its environments
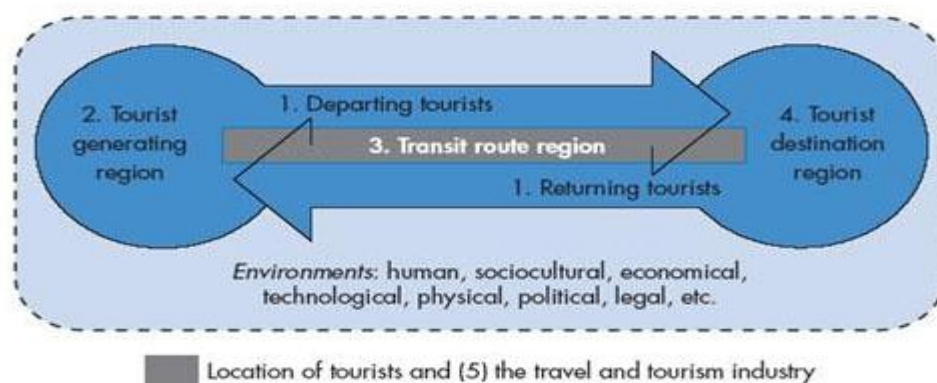
The movement of tourists between their home countries and preferred destinations via the transit region represents an element of energy which passes through the system. The traveller-generating region features motivation that causes or stimulates the flow, in other words provides the 'push'. This is where a decision to travel is made, that is, the conscious or unconscious need of an individual manifests itself in terms of a desire e.g. to relax, and in turn prompts action. On the other hand, the 'pull' to visit destinations animates the entire system and creates demand for travel in the generating region (Fletcher et al., 2013) by a range of offerings which aim to match tourists' needs e.g. beautiful scenery, warm climate, different culture etc. Subsequently, the tourism industry component of the model can be seen as a range of businesses and organisations involved in the delivery of the tourism product e.g. airlines, travel agents, hotels, restaurants etc. Consequently, these can be placed appropriately within the system e.g. cultural resources or natural attractions can be found in the destination region and the transport industry in the transit route region. Lastly, around these five elements of the tourism system are environments and external systems e.g. economic, political, cultural, social, physical etc. Notably, the tourism systems proposed by Leiper are open systems i.e. they assume interactions between their elements and the environments. Therefore, as a result of this interaction the environments shape the tourism system and in turn tourism has an effect on them. To illustrate this, any change in the environment e.g. the ongoing financial and economic downturn started in 2007, the wave of protests in the Middle East and North Africa in 2010, restrictions to travel imposed by governments, or a natural disaster, will most likely inhibit the confidence and ability of tourists to travel and as a result decrease the number of arrivals to a destination. In turn, the tourism system can influence these external environments, for instance by stimulating a

destination's economy, promoting global citizenship etc. Walker and Walker (2010) compare this interdependency to a spider's web. This point is emphasised by Hall (2010) who comments that the impact of crises on tourism industry illustrates the integration of the world's economies, transport systems, and media and communication networks to an extent that when something occurs in one area, its effects reverberate on a global scale.

The 'tourism systems' proposed by Leiper (1990) is a very simple model as the actual situation in tourism is much more complex. There are many overlapping elements in the structure e.g. many destinations, many tourist generating regions etc. From the perspective of this thesis, the most useful point of this framework is its ability to demonstrate the open nature of tourism. This means that, much like other industries, it is subject to macro-environmental changes (Morakabati, 2013), such as the aforementioned natural disasters or infectious diseases (Ahuvia, 2005; Mansfeld and Pizam, 2006; Kozak et al., 2007; Edgell et al., 2008). However, compared to other industries, tourism is particularly susceptible to external shocks because it is an industry where consumption is based on faith and trust (Morakabati, 2013). To clarify this point, tourism products have a number of unique, service-specific characteristics i.e. intangibility and inseparability (Zeithaml et al., 2006; Grönroos, 2007; Lovelock and Wirtz, 2007). Apart from its tangible aspects e.g. infrastructure, natural resources etc., the product is based on intangible services which are produced and consumed simultaneously, and thus cannot be experienced prior to the purchase and commencement of the holiday (Beerli, 2004; Tasci et al., 2007). In other words, no one knows how good or bad the actual holiday will be. Moreover, the situation is further complicated by the fact that their consumption occurs outside of the home environment of the consumer (Fletcher et al., 2013). Due to these unique characteristics inherent in service-intensive tourism products, the multitude of options available for tourists, and the things that may go wrong once on holiday, many scholars agree that travel decisions are a complicated, high-involvement process characterised by elevated levels of risk and uncertainty associated with making a wrong choice (Hsu and Lin, 2006; Dolnicar, 2007; Swarbrooke and Horner, 2007). Therefore, risk is a central element of tourist decision making. To reduce uncertainty and guide the process of a travel decision potential tourists, especially first-time visitors, largely rely on destination images (Fletcher and Morakabati, 2008), which transpose a mental depiction of an area into their minds and provide a pre-taste of a destination (Fakeye and Crompton, 1991).Thus, the importance

of this image or, in other words the trust of tourists in the ability of a tourist product to satisfy their needs is paramount. This also indicates that, as noticed by Lepp and Gibson (2003) and Lepp et al, (2011) risk and destination image are related concepts.

While damage to tourists' trust in any of a destination's attributes may potentially affect the final decision, the negative perceptions concerning relative safety and security present at a destination are particularly critical (George, 2003; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005). This is because, unsurprisingly, tourists are very sensitive to their perceptions regarding safety, health and well-being (Blake and Sinclair, 2003). This is particularly important in discretionary forms of tourism, such as leisure vacations (Fletcher and Morakabati, 2008), with the simple reason behind it - that most tourists will not spend their hard-earned money and time to go to a destination where their safety and well-being may be jeopardised. Any damage to the tourist destination's overall reputation for safety is likely to be an overriding factor and discourage most tourists from visiting afflicted areas (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a; 1998b; Sönmez and Sirakaya, 2002), as in the context of tourism, perception is reality when it comes to decision making (Santana, 2001). At a broader level, this view is supported by psychologists who believe that human behaviour is primarily driven by perception rather than facts (Renn, 2008). In the context of risk and safety, this is demonstrated by the frequent neglect or distortion by the public of factual data concerning the low probability of certain risks (Tanaka, 1998; Wiedemann et al., 2003b), and the resulting shifts in behaviours. For instance, in an attempt to avoid air travel, perceived as unsafe after the 9/11 attacks, many US travellers chose more dangerous road travel which resulted in an increase of fatal road accidents (Gigerenzer, 2006). Besides the importance of perception, this highlights the challenges involved in the effective communication of risk information and the severity of the consequences of its failure. Thus, in tourism, the challenge of those involved in delivering the product in times of crisis is often to convince potential tourists that their basic need for safety while on holiday will be met. The regrowth of tourism to what it was before the crisis is often only achieved once the negative image is eliminated from the tourists mind (Neumayer, 2004). This, however, is a very long, difficult and costly process that countries with a less diversified economy and a heavy dependence upon tourism revenue may not be able to overcome. Moreover, this is further complicated by the losses that a destination incurs while the growth is sub-optimal.

Against this background, the following sub-chapters are set out with a focus on the heart of the tourism system, that is, the tourist. This involves the critical evaluation

of the strands of research pertaining to destination choice theory, the concepts of perception, risk, travel risk perception and its impact on tourist decision-making.

2.2. Tourism consumer behaviour and risky tourist decision-making

In the context of the susceptibility of the tourism system to crises, understanding how tourists make holiday decisions, especially in times of crises, is one of the critical issues of the industry and tourism consumer behaviour research. At a broader level, this is concerned with the study of how people make judgments, decisions and sense of the surrounding world, which is based upon a number of theoretical approaches mainly adopted from the discipline of psychology.

The dominant understanding of decision-making is as a cognitive process that directs or organises much of human behaviour (Neisser, 1967, cited by Moore et al., 2012, p. 2). Through an emphasis on the internal dynamics of individuals, the cognitive approach views people as rational receptors of information about the surrounding world who engage in utilitarian thought processes to select an optimal solution from a range of alternatives (Evans et al., 2006; Solomon, 2007). Fundamental cognitive mechanisms, such as perception, learning, memory, personality, and motivation, mediate between stimulus (input) and response (output) in ongoing mental processes (Sternberg and Mio, 2009). It is assumed that individuals are active and engage in these processes to seek information and create knowledge which is stored in the form of schemas in the long-term memory (Sirakaya and Woodside, 2005; Moore et al., 2012). According to Entman (2004), schemas are clusters or nodes of connected ideas, beliefs and feelings regarding some concept which have been abstracted from prior experiences. Their make-up determines an individual way of receiving, organising and translating incoming stimuli. Specifically, schemas influence what individuals pay attention to (selective attention), and how they interpret it (selective distortion). In essence, these constructs provide an understanding of how individuals appraise, absorb, retain and respond to information they receive.

In line with these perspectives, the traditional consumer decision-making models (e.g. Engel et al., 1968; Howard, 1969; Runyon, 1980; Howard, 1994), as well as those adapted for tourism (Mayo, 1981; Sanders, 1981; Mathieson, 1982; Van Raaij, 1984; Moutinho, 1987; Um, 1990), view the consumer as a logical problem solver and information processor. To depict this, one of the traditional consumer behaviour models (Engel et al., 1968; Veroff and Veroff, 1973) is shown in figure 2.2. In a similar vein,

tourists are seen to solve problems by acquiring information and evaluating alternatives (e.g. holiday destinations) according to their needs in a manner that progressively narrows down the options to arrive at a solution that maximises benefits and minimises costs. The major variables impinging on this process are the socio-psychological processes (perception, cognition, learning), psychographic variables (motivation, attitudes, personality, emotions), and environmental variables (socio-cultural influences, situational influences) (Ryan, 2003; Decrop, 2006). In general, much of this work views the tourist decision-making (TDM) process as a motivationally-driven search for an optimal route to satisfy the desires and needs in relation to travel (Sirakaya and Woodside, 2005; Smallman and Moore, 2010).

Figure 2.2 The Engel, Kollat and Blackwell model of the buying process
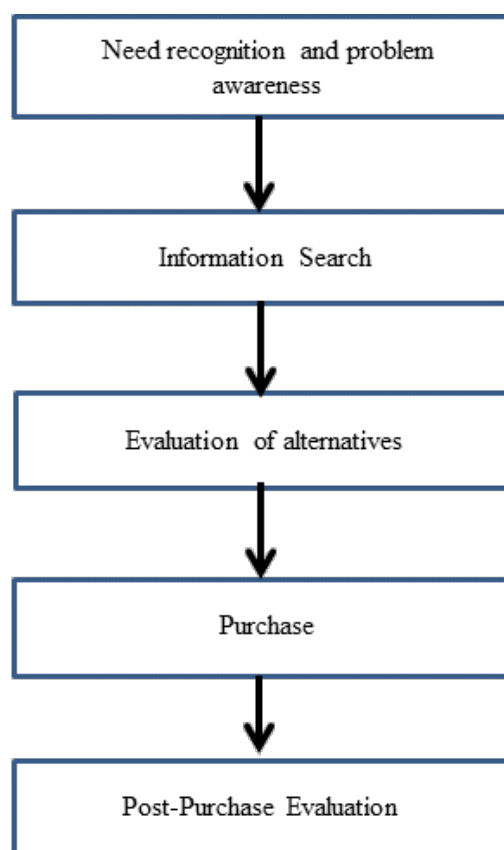
Source: Engel et al. (1968)

In congruence with the information processing and problem solving approach to TDM, most of the tourism research on risk and destination choices has been related to the issue of facilitators versus inhibitors (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a). That is, based on information obtained about destinations tourists evaluate their suitability for holidays in terms of attributes congruent with their needs (facilitators) and attributes which are not congruent with those needs (inhibitors) (Um and Crompton, 1990). In other words,

tourists compare destination alternatives according to their perceived benefits and costs (George, 2010) in order to choose the least costly one. In this sense, the possibility of experiencing an unwanted attribute of a destination, or a cost (e.g. crime, bad weather), would constitute risk (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a), which may inhibit travel if it outweighs the perceived benefits associated with visiting a particular destination (Fuchs and Reichel, 2011; Mansfeld and Pizam, 2006). This view is shared by many scholars who comment on the negative influence of perceived risk on decisions to travel internationally, as well as with regard to specific destinations (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005; Law, 2006; Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty, 2009; Reisinger and Crotts, 2010; Larsen et al., 2011a). Moreover, as discussed before, the risks to safety are particularly critical in the evaluation of destinations and it is reasonable to expect that when tourists consider two alternatives which offer similar benefits, the less risky one is likely to be chosen. However, while perceived risk can negatively influence TDM, it is important to have a balanced view of the benefit and risk relationship. For example, Sunstein (2002) argues that messages including information about benefits related to a purchase could reduce or outweigh the perceived risk associated with that action. Others maintain that the uniqueness of a destination's attributes may determine its ability to recover from tourism crises such as terrorism or political instability (Mansfeld, 1999; Neumayer, 2004; Frey et al., 2007). Thus, it is possible that the perceived benefits of a destination, especially ones which cannot be easily substituted (e.g. destination specific heritage sites, unique atmosphere), may increase tourists' risk tolerance or willingness to negate risk when making travel decisions.

A model which captures the above discussed aspects of risky TDM was proposed by Sonmez and Graefe (1998a) (see Figure 2.3). Besides depicting the risk and benefit weighing aspect of TDM, from the perspective of this thesis the model is particularly useful in highlighting the importance of tourists' exposure to information concerning external events. The theoretical underpinning of this model is provided by an information integration theory (IIT) (Anderson, 1981; 1982) and the protection motivation theory (PMT) (Rogers, 1975). An evaluation of these theories and of the model in addressing the research problem follows.

Figure 2.3 Model of international tourism decision-making process
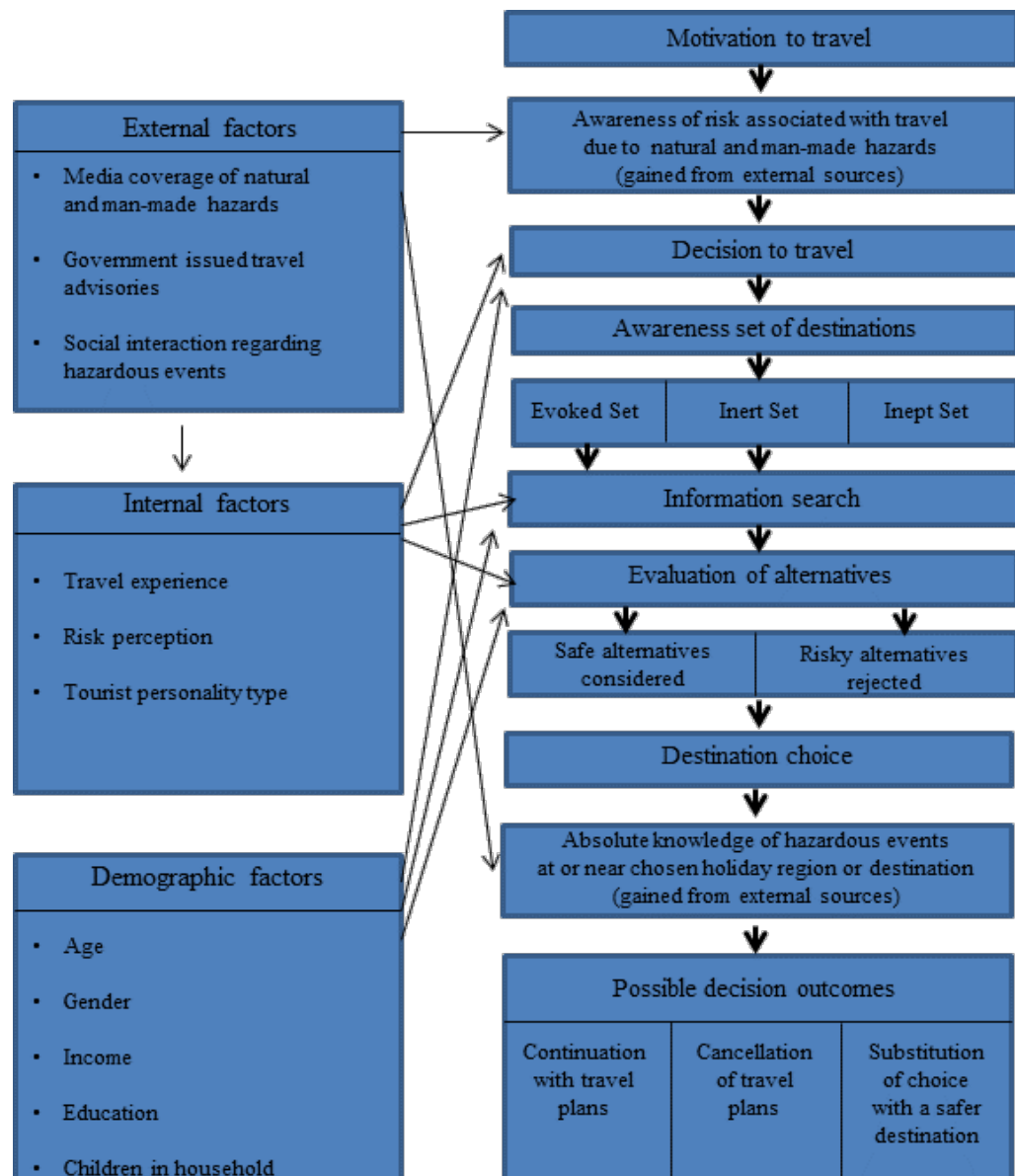
Source: Adopted from Sonmez and Graefe (1998a)

The IIT suggests that during the steps of TDM, consumers form psychophysical and value judgments. The former refer to subjective perceptions of physical reality (e.g. destination image, destination risk), whereas the latter refer to the way consumers rank tourism products and services according to their attributes (e.g. benefits and risk) (Anderson, 1981; 1982, cited by Sonmez and Graefe, 1998b). As mentioned above, existing impressions, evaluations and images of destinations are stored in the memory in the form of schemas. According to Anderson these may change when new information is learned about the product or service (e.g. a news report of a recent disaster in or near

a destination). Outside of the consumer behaviour context, communication scholars support the view that individuals may seek to revise and extend their schemas in light of new information (McQuail, 2010). For instance, Chong and Druckman (2007b) and Scheufele and Scheufele (2010) argue that consistent exposure to stimuli which contradict a schema may also lead to its alteration, that is, change the content of the schema and the links between its elements. While this is undoubtedly true in some instances, the application of IIT by Sonmez and Graefe (1998a) in the context of TDM overlooks one important aspect of communication. Namely, their conceptualisation of the potential influence of the media on tourists' perceived risk is as a one way process (as depicted above), which, as will be discussed in more detail in the following sections, is a discredited model of media effects (Devereux, 2007). To demonstrate this further, Sonmez and Graefe (1998a) recognise the importance of internal factors (e.g. personality) in TDM; however, their active role in the process of making sense of incoming information does not clearly come through in the model. In this sense, other internal factors, such as the aforementioned schemas and their role played in selective perception processes (i.e. attention, distortion) are particularly important. That is, if stimuli contradict the schemas, individuals may ignore them, or refuse to believe such unwanted messages (Jobber, 2009), and direct attention towards stimuli compatible with the schemas (Perse, 2001). Moreover, once activated, that is, retrieved from the memory; schemas help to process information (Scheufele and Scheufele, 2010) by relating its content to the existing understanding of the topic. For instance, an individual with a certain image of a destination (e.g. safe and familiar) may attend to new information about this destination in a fashion which seeks to confirm this impression. Moreover, schemas are also in use when information is missing or ambiguous (McQuail, 2010). For instance, when exposed to an incomplete report concerning safety at a destination (e.g. shortly after a tsunami), an individual may draw on knowledge of previous similar events to fill in the blank spots. In other words, existing knowledge of such events helps people to decide how much risk would be involved in visiting such a destination. This suggests that while useful in depicting the important role of information sources (external factors) for risk judgments (internal factors) in TDM, the relationship as conceptualised by Sonmez and Graefe (1998a) needs to be viewed with a critical eye.

PMT (Rogers, 1975) proposes that in a risky decision process the individuals' intention of adopting protective behaviour, such as risk avoidance, is the result of two

cognitive mechanisms of threat appraisal and the coping appraisal. That is, individuals engage in protective behaviour when: 1) the severity of the outcome of a threat is high (e.g. loss of life), 2) the chances of occurrence are high, and 3) the means to remove a threat are effective (e.g. choosing an alternative destination), and individuals can control the consequences (e.g. time and money for alternatives are available) (Rogers, 1975, cited by Floyd et al., 2004b). One can easily see such conditions arising with information available about severe external influences such as hurricanes, wars etc., and many potential holiday destinations being available in the tourism system. Together the IIT and PMT suggest that, as mentioned above, tourists may seek to avoid risk (protection motivation) associated with visiting a destination when their risk judgment (made in light of incoming information) outweighs the benefits. While it is reasonable to expect that individuals employ such strategies when deciding where to spend holidays, the question is how does the risk and benefit weighing formula work for them in practice. Specifically, to what extent can tourists be expected to make rational and optimal assessments of risk? In this regard, a number of approaches to studying risk and TDM indicate that in reality the process is more complex than a simple calculation of pros and cons. An evaluation of these strands of research follows.

In respect of TDM, as recognised by the experiential view of consumer behaviour (Holbrook, 1982; Mowen, 1988), interaction with experiential products such as tourism involves aspects of consumption such as intuition, spontaneity, feelings etc., which go beyond pure rationality and the functional aspects of tourism (Sirakaya and Woodside, 2005; Smallman and Moore, 2010; Walls et al., 2011). This is well demonstrated by the nature of the benefits consumers seek in tourism products which comprise of utilitarian (e.g. good price, availability of accommodation), as well as subjective, experiential and symbolic features (e.g. romantic, unique or mystic atmosphere) (White and Scandale, 2005). In the latter sense, experiential aspects of holidays are non-rational and so, may not involve a great deal of deliberation, clarity and articulation pre the commencement of a holiday. For instance, Smallman and Moore (2010) argue that the experience that tourists seek may not be present (or be vague) when a holiday is planned or behaviour begins. Rather it is mostly construed at the destination and has a dynamic and shifting nature (Moore et al., 2012). In this context it would be reasonable to expect that calculating the weight of holiday benefits against costs may be problematic. Moreover, it is argued that capturing such aspects of TDM using a linear, information processing and problem solving perspective may be inadequate (Decrop, 2005; Bargeman and van

der Poel, 2006). Specifically, studying the experiential aspects of holidays with the use of quantitative instruments is problematic as they limit the individual perspective of the tourist to the categories of tourism product identified as relevant by the researcher. In response to this, more recent interpretative and post-modern perspectives to consumer behaviour, argue that the complexity of consumer experience can be studied by employing naturalistic qualitative research methodologies (Marsden and Littler, 1998). As such they offer richer explanations of relationships and interactions (Dowe, 2004, in Smallman and Moore, 2010) and depth of individual perspective. However, rather than ignoring the cognitive approaches to consumer behaviour, Marsden and Littler (1998) proposed that a holistic perspective, which combines both approaches, should be used for a more comprehensive view of consumer experience. From the perspective of this thesis and the issues discussed so far, this approach is particularly relevant with regards to seeking to understand tourists' perception of holiday benefits that move beyond utilitarian features of destinations. Rather, benefits are understood and expressed as feelings and subjective meanings that tourists associate with holidays.

In respect to risk assessment, a number of scholars argue that people are not simply or not always rational. As advocated by Kunreuther et al. (2001) and Sunstein (2003), people have significant problems with interpreting risk as potential outcome probabilities when making their decisions or forming risk attitudes. This is expected to be especially true in light of complex events which people may know little about e.g. political and social turmoil in a foreign country, or terrorist attacks in an unfamiliar environment. The difficulty of the task is additionally compounded by the context of complicated and risky experiential decisions, such as destination choices. In such situations making the right decision is often a difficult task as outcomes are impossible to predict or calculate analytically. As recognised by Simon (1956; 1990), people may simply lack the cognitive capacity and time to process information to complete demanding tasks – a concept known as bounded rationality. Instead they are likely to use a different logic and rely on experience-based strategies called heuristics, that is, to look for certain cues or shortcuts to simplify the process and arrive at satisfactory decisions (Gigerenzer et al., 1999; Shah and Oppenheimer, 2008). In other words, rather than rational and analytical, such decisions are guided by cognition that is automatic and intuitive (Slovic et al., 2000), not deliberative and habitual (Jackson et al., 2006). For instance, the availability heuristic proposed by Kahneman and Tversky (1973) explains that people often judge the likelihood of something happening based on how

easily an example can be called to mind. Although efficient (Gigerenzer and Selten, 2002), heuristic judgments can also produce biases (Breckenridge et al., 2010). For example, the availability heuristic can misguide individuals in tasks such as the aforementioned case of a judgment of the likelihood of being harmed in an airplane crash post 9/11th. A misjudgement in this case was potentially caused by drawing on the availability in the mind of a recent event (e.g. due to increased exposure to media coverage), rather than facts which indicate that the chances of its occurrence are minimal. A related strategy which underscores the non-rational aspect of risk judgments is the affect heuristic (Finucane et al., 2000; Slovic and Weber, 2002). According to its proponents, people overestimate risk in affect-rich contexts such as violent crimes, shark attacks etc., as opposed to less spectacular but much more probable ones such as heart disease (Lowenstein et al., 2001; Slovic and Peters, 2006; Sjöberg, 2007). These examples clearly indicate that, in making risk judgments, humans may draw on a number of characteristics of an event or activity, using a non-rational logic which is prone to potentially dangerous errors (e.g. loss of life or damage to a destination's economy).

In summary, the above discussed theories of decision making, specifically with regards to destination choices and risk, are useful in understanding the responses of tourists' to crises. While it is clear that the risk which tourists associate with destinations can negatively affect TDM, the literature also suggests that the perceived benefits associated with visiting destinations may outweigh this factor and influence the final decision. Moreover, the literature also suggests that the way tourists define risks may depend upon their characteristics as well as external factors such as media reports and travel advisories. In respect of this, the following sections critically appraise relevant literature pertaining to the concept of risk, destination risk perception, and how it is determined.

2.3. The perception of risk

2.3.1. Risk in social sciences

Risk is an inherent part of thinking and an inevitable part of human life. It is experienced on a daily basis through the engagement in a variety of activities such as purchasing products, commuting to work, or even getting out of bed in the morning. Despite its importance, opinions of what is meant by risk can vary depending on

perspective, and there is no one accepted definition of risk, either in science or in lay perceptions (e.g. Renn, 2008). However, as Joffe (2003) argues, many definitions share the notion of anticipating future and uncertain outcomes. According to Rosa (2003, p. 56) the uncertainty concerns the outcomes of 'a situation or an event where something of human value (including humans themselves) is at stake'. Although risk may entail positive and negative outcomes with regards to something that humans value, it is generally used to relate to undesirable outcomes (Lupton, 1999). In this sense, thinking about risks helps people to understand and manage uncertainties of life and hazards (anything that could lead to harm or an undesirable situation) through constructing scenarios that help to forecast the adverse effects and to adapt their behaviour accordingly. This perspective on risk is particularly relevant in the context of the phenomena studied in this thesis. That is, by way of personal experience and information gathered about the external environment, tourists try to anticipate the potential problems which could occur at a destination and act upon them to avoid making a wrong decision.

The phenomenon of risk in social scientific literature is addressed in a number of ways which range from positivist-probabilistic to contextualist perspectives (Thompson and Dean, 1996). In the former sense, risk is conceptualised as an objective entity, the probability and consequences of an adverse event or activity which can be calculated rationally independent of subjective perception and cultures (Taylor-Gooby and Zinn, 2006b). Typically, risk, in this sense, is judged by experts by means of quantitative assessments of morbidity and mortality. This notion is rejected by contextualist perspectives on risk, which argue that risk cannot be treated as a scientific fact independent of human experiences, perception, and the context within which it is situated (Ben-Ari and Or-Chen, 2009). That is, risk has no single determining criterion and its probability is only one among many risk attributes (Jackson et al., 2006). Contextualists argue that risk is socially mediated, or even socially constructed (Zinn, 2008). Although hazards such as terrorism, tornadoes, crimes etc. are real and founded upon physical properties of the world, risk is a subjectively defined mental model derived from the relationship of individuals with hazards (Brun, 1994; Boholm, 1998; Jenkin, 2006). This is well articulated by Mairal (2008) who explains that, for instance, a hurricane is dangerous and may lead to harm, but it does not necessarily mean that it is risky. However, one's close proximity to a hurricane can be described by the subject as risky. Conceptualised this way, it can be argued that risk does not exist without the

assessor (Covello, 1984), while hazard is external and exists independently of the assessor (Jenkin, 2006). Subjectivity inherent in risk is well demonstrated by the common discrepancy between expert risk assessment and non-expert, public understanding and responses to this information (e.g. Slovic et al., 1986; Roberts, 1990; Tanaka, 1998; Wiedemann et al., 2003a; Keller et al., 2006; Rogers et al., 2006; Rogers et al., 2007). That is, rather than relying on numerical information, people are thought to make judgments in reference to what they remember reading, hearing or observing about the risk in question (Slovic et al., 2000). Driven by this phenomenon, a number of research streams address human perceptions and responses to risk. From this point of view it is commonly accepted that 'risk perception, in general, denotes the processing of physical signals and/or information about potentially harmful events or activities, and the formation of a judgement about seriousness, likelihood and acceptability of the respective event or activity' (Slovic et al., 1982 cited by Grobe et al. 2008, p. 16; Brehmer, 1987; Rohrmann and Renn, 2000; Renn, 2004; Breakwell, 2007).

Table 2.1 Psychological, qualitative aspects attenuating or amplifying perceived risk

Attenuate perceived risk	Amplify perceived risk
Familiar	Exotic/New
Individual control	Controlled by others
Limited effects	Catastrophic effects
Natural	Man-made
Fair impact distribution	Unfair impact distribution
Clear benefits	No clear benefits
Voluntary	Imposed
Information by trusted sources	Information by distrusted sources
Positive affect	Negative affect
Consequences not-fatal	Consequences fatal

Source: Renn (2008)

In psychology, the subjectivity of risk assessment is addressed by studies which build on the aforementioned heuristics and cognitive approach to the perception of risk. One of the most influential approaches to studying this phenomenon is the psychometric paradigm proposed by Fischhoff et al. (1978). It aims to understand how risk perception is influenced by the characteristics of risks (Taylor-Gooby and Zinn, 2006a). One of the main contributions of this line of research has been the realisation that perceived risk is a multidimensional concept characterised by a number of quantitative and qualitative dimensions. Its proponents demonstrate that when evaluating risks, people are influenced by a host of qualitative risk features (see table 2.1 above), or simplifying heuristics, which produce subjective biases and misjudgements of formal (quantitative) risk assessments (Fischhoff et al., 1978; Slovic et al., 1984). For instance, research shows that the public is more concerned about involuntary risks (Slovic, 1987; Starr, 1969, cited by Lofstedt, 2010), uncontrollable risks and those which have catastrophic potential (Slovic, 1987). Similarly, if individuals' feelings towards an activity are favourable, they perceive the benefits as high and risks as low (Finucane et al., 2000). As aforementioned in section 2.2., this is largely due to the difficulty involved in forming risk judgments in response to quantitative measures used by risk analysts. The implications of these findings for this research project are twofold. Firstly, the importance of the qualitative aspects of risk indicates that the way these are used in the process of communicating about risk is critical to its valuation and comprehension by the public. This is particularly important in view of the link between the media and tourism, as portrayed in the TDM model by Sonmez and Graefe (1998a), in the sense that variance in the qualitative aspects of a story may determine tourist perceptions of risk and their willingness to visit destinations concerned.

In socio-cultural approaches to risk, such as cultural theory and social constructivism, risk is the same as risk perception, that is, risk arises from the perception of it (Rosa, 1998). The cultural theory of Douglas and Wildavsky (1982) proposes that hazards are mediated by social factors i.e. socially selected and transformed into risks. This approach focuses on the role of worldviews and values held by different cultural groups in determining which risks people consider salient, and the ways in which a charge is brought to certain risks by social organisations (e.g. news media, activist groups, government agencies) (Jackson et al., 2006). For instance, terrorism may be considered a particularly salient risk because of the value that specific

groups (e.g. western tourists) place on what terrorists seek to threaten (e.g. freedom of movement as tourists) (Douglas, 1992). Such views may be reinforced by the communication of these hazards within this society in a fashion that resonates with and dramatises its feelings and beliefs (e.g. risky Middle East, tourists are targets). However, as discussed in the case of IIT and schemas, it is reasonable to assume that such views may also be amplified or attenuated by promoting a different set of representations or frames of mind (e.g. focusing on certain traits of risk at the expense of others). This point is emphasised by Lupton (2006, p. 19) who argues that 'the media to some extent control what kinds of meanings and messages are publicly designated on risks'. This underscores the dynamic nature of the relationship between audiences and communication organisations in selecting and transforming hazards into risks.

Other sociological perspectives, such as Beck's (1992) risk society or writers who adopted Foucault's governmentality concept (Castel, 1991: Ewald, 1991: cited by Lupton, 2006), have studied risk in the context of the development of modern societies and see it as a product of modernisation. Writers of both perspectives focus on the discourses that surround and construct risk, or the ways of communicating about and acting upon risk that are common to social groups (Lupton, 2006). From the perspective of this thesis, their value lays in highlighting the active role of the public in creating and re-shaping what constitutes risk, which is expressed by representations of risk circulating in society (i.e. social interaction, news media).

In an attempt to integrate the range of psychological and sociological approaches to risk perception and communication, the Social Amplification of Risk Framework (SARF) was proposed by Kasperson et al. (1988). Specifically, the framework seeks to facilitate a greater understanding of the ways in which the interaction between certain aspects of hazard events and their portrayal in mediated and psychological, social, and cultural processes may amplify or attenuate risk perceptions and, through this, shape behaviour (Pidgeon and Henwood, 2010). In the SARF, a hazard event is said to become known mainly through communication with others of risk representations. The representations are transmitted to individuals (e.g. via informal networks or information brokers) by social stations (e.g. Governmental agencies, the news media) rather than personal experience. Once communicated to receivers, they are subject to further processes of interpretation at the level of individual psychological (attention, decoding, heuristics), cultural and social filters (social and cultural context), which results in risk perceptions and resulting behaviours. The framework is useful in conceptualising

different views of perceived risk into a coherent picture; however, some authors argue that due to the complexity involved in the different stages of this framework and the need for a longitudinal approach, empirical examinations are rare (Frewer et al., 2002). Nonetheless, from the point of view of this thesis, it is a useful conceptual tool which emphasises the multidimensional aspect of risk communication and perception at individual and group levels.

Figure 2.4 SARF: Amplification/ attenuation of risk framework

AMPLIFICATION AND ATTENUATION

SOURCES OF INFORMATION	INFORMATION CHANNELS	SOCIAL STATIONS	INDIVIDUAL STATIONS	INSTITUTIONAL AND SOCIAL BEHAVUIOUR
Personal experience	Individual senses	Opinion leaders	Attention filters	Attitude / attitude changes
Direct communication	Informal social networks	Cultural and social groups	Decoding	Political and social action
		Government agencies	Intuitive heuristics	Organisational responses
Indirect communication	Professional information brokers	Voluntary organisations	Evaluation and interpretation	Social protest
		News media	Cognition is social context	

Hazard Events

Society
Stakeholder groups
Professional group
Local community
Directly affected persons

IMPACTS

Loss of sales

Financial losses

Regulatory actions

Organisational changes

Litigation

Increase or decrease in physical risk

Community concern

Loss of confidence in institutions

FEEDBACK AND ITERATION

Source: Renn (2011 p. 157)

In summary, what constitutes risk is determined not only by the probability of a hazard and the magnitude of the consequences but also by a blend of psychological, social and cultural factors (Ben-Ari and Or-Chen, 2009). Seeing as the focus of this thesis is on tourist risk judgments and their determinants, the stance adopted is the contextualist view of risk which emphasises its perceived and subjective nature. This approach recognises that the judgments of risk and its acceptability are influenced by a range of risk characteristics, and the way these are communicated to people as well as recipients' characteristics. A complex interplay of these factors gives rise to perceived

risk which often manifests itself in the public avoidance of certain events or activities, such as travel to destinations perceived as risky. In order to minimise the significant economic and social implications of this, researchers started studying tourists' perception and responses to risk associated with travel and holiday destinations. The following sections evaluate literature pertaining to the concept of risk in tourism as well as a range of its determinants.

2.3.2. The perception of risk in tourism

In tourism, risk perception is a function of uncertainty and consequences (Moutinho, 2000), with some consequences being more desirable to tourists than others. During the process of TDM it is the perceived potential gap between the expected and the final, subjectively experienced tourism product (Glaesser, 2003). It comprises predetermined and encoded ideas that individuals develop about a certain activity or a place (Silva et al., 2010). That is, risk in tourism is typically studied with regards to travel in general (e.g. Floyd et al., 2004b; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005; 2006), or specific destinations (Fuchs and Reichel, 2004; 2006; Uriely et al., 2007; Lepp et al., 2011; Schroeder et al., 2013). Essentially driven by the aforementioned nature of the tourism product and the vulnerability of the tourism system to external shocks and resulting demand fluctuations (Hall and O'Sullivan, 1996; Wahab, 1996; Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a; Coshall, 2003; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005; Araña and León, 2008; Wang, 2009), the topic of risk perception has received a considerable amount of attention in tourism literature (Dolnicar, 2007) which has resulted in a number of important findings.

It is commonly accepted that the perception of risk is multidimensional and varies depending on the type of risk perceived (see table 2.2), (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005). Initially borrowed from general consumer behaviour (Rohel and Fesenmaier, 1992), risk typologies for tourism products have been developed and refined to reflect tourists' concerns (e.g. Simpson and Siguaw, 2008). Following on from this, the judgments and responses of tourists to risk are studied either as categories (e.g. health, physical etc.), or specific indicators of risk (e.g. tasteless food, loss of luggage, bombing etc.) to create a risk index.

The differences in the extent to which tourists perceive risk in association with these events and activities are partly due to the aforementioned differences in their

qualitative characteristics. In this sense, events which may lead to fatal consequences, such as terrorism or war (Chan et al., 1999; Leslie, 1999; Pizam and Fleisher, 2002; Fleisher and Buccola, 2002; Chen, 2003; Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty, 2009), natural disasters (Park and Reisinger, 2010), crime (George, 2010; George and Swart, 2012), and diseases (Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty, 2009; Zimmermann et al., 2013) constitute tourists' main concerns. However, as argued by Morakabati (2013), the impacts may be determined by a variance in a number of other factors such as the frequency of events (and so salience and ease of their recall), or their intensity and magnitude (e.g. international war versus small scale unrest). In respect of the magnitude of events, major natural events such as earthquakes, floods and tsunamis can severely disrupt tourism activities (e.g. Huan et al., 2004; Sharpley, 2005) but despite their severity, such events are usually highly localised, and their effects on global tourism are typically small scale and short term (Mason et al., 2005). The involuntary, random and uncontrollable character of natural disasters undeniably has the potential to scare tourists away, however, it is man-caused disasters that seem to intimidate people a lot more (Sonmez, 1998; Cavlek, 2002; Heng, 2006). This may partly be attributed to the emotional charge (i.e. affect heuristic) carried by such events, which is further amplified by the intentional nature of harm involved, as opposed to acts of nature (Douglas and Mills, 2006). In this respect, Fletcher and Morakabati (2008) point out that PI and terrorism have a particularly high magnitude of impact. One of the main consequences of man-caused disasters is that, apart from the physical damage, the biggest impact is often felt on the psychological level (Gaynor, 2002; Schmid, 2005; Jenkin, 2006). The importance of the qualitative aspects of risk in this context is clearly demonstrated by the neglect by the public of the statistically low chances of becoming a victim of events such as terrorist attacks (Mueller, 2007).

As well as by the characteristics of events or activities, the impact on tourists may also be determined by the context in which these occur and are considered by tourists. For instance, as Morakabati (2013) argues, the same event may be perceived differently depending on the stage of tourism development and the stability of the destination affected (i.e. potentially indicating the competence to deal with the issue), its political relationships with generating regions (i.e. travel warnings issued by the governments), and the relationship with international media (i.e. the emphasis and dramatisation of certain aspects of an event by the media). These points indicate the complexities involved in individual risk judgments and further reinforce the role of risk

communication in tourism previously considered as a part of the TDM model of Sonmez and Graefe (1998a) and SARF.

Table 2.2 Risk categories used in travel risk research

Author(s)	Year	Types of risk
Roehl and Fesenmaier	1992	Functional/equipment, financial, physical, psychological, satisfaction, social, time
Mitchell and Vassos	1997	Highly detailed 43 risk factors of a holiday package, ranging from natural disasters to a tour representative
Maser and Weiermair	1998	Diseases, crime, natural disasters, problems with hygiene, transportation, culture/language barriers, uncertainty related to destination-specific laws and regulations
Sonmez and Graefe	1998	Equipment/functional, financial, health, physical, political instability, psychological, satisfaction, social, terrorism, time risks
Floyd et al.	2003	Financial, health, physical, crime, terrorism, social, psychological, natural disaster risks
Lepp and Gibson	2003	Health and well-being, war and political instability, terrorism, strange food, political and religious dogma, cross cultural differences, and petty crime
Reisinger and Mavondo	2005	Terrorism, health and financial, socio-cultural risks
Dolnicar	2005	Political, environmental, health, planning, property risks
Reisinger and Mavondo	2006	Cultural, functional, financial, health, physical, political, psychological, satisfaction, social, hijacking, bomb explosion, biochemical attack, time risks
Kozak et al.	2007	Infectious disease, terrorist attacks, natural disaster risks
Reichel et al	2007	Site-related physical, socio-psychological, physical harm, expectations, mass, self-behaviour
Simpson and Siguaw	2008	Health and well-being, criminal harm, transportation performance, travel service performance, travel and destination environment, generalised fears, monetary concerns, property crime, concerns for others, concerns about others

Beyond this, as emphasised by the psychometric paradigm of risk, how risk is perceived also depends upon the personal characteristics of people. In this respect, in the tourism context differences in leisure tourists' perceptions of risk were found by Roehl and Fesenmeier (1992), and categorised as: risk neutral group (those who

perceived less risk of each risk type); functional risk group (those who perceived high physical and equipment risk type); and place risk group, (those who perceived high destination risks). More recently, Dolnicar (2005) studied young Australian pleasure travellers' concerns and identified four 'fear segments'. They are: a higher fear segment (consumers who perceived all risks to be higher than average); a lower fear segment (consumers who perceived all risks to be lower than average); an overseas sceptics segment (consumers who were unsure whether additional risk would outweigh the excitements of overseas travels); and a thrill seekers segment (consumers who perceived risk as less likely to occur and rated thrill and excitement highly). These findings underscore the subjective nature of perceived risk and responses to it in tourism, and the need to understand the factors which determine this variance.

Against this background, the following sections focus on the evaluation of work that has been done with regards to determinants of perceived risk in tourism and willingness to travel. Specifically, these include: tourists' characteristics (i.e. psychographics, demographics) (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005); benefits sought in a tourism product; hazard events of terrorism and PI and the way people learn about these (most notably via the media), and the specific ways in which features of these events are depicted in news media reports. Despite a common agreement concerning the importance of the media in its influence on the variables of interest (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a; Hall, 2002; Beirmann, 2003; Glaesser, 2003), this complex relationship is rarely examined empirically. Similarly, although it is assumed that the attractiveness of destinations determines their resilience to crises, the role of perceived benefits in studies of perceived risk in tourism is rarely accounted for. Finally, a number of studies demonstrated the negative impact of terrorism and PI on tourism (Hall and O'Sullivan, 1996; Santana, 2001; Drakos and Kutan, 2003; Neumayer, 2004; Frey et al., 2007; Araña and León, 2008) and the differences in impact between these events (Fletcher and Morakabati, 2008; Saha and Yap, 2013). However, in light of the importance to TDM of the qualitative aspects of hazards and the media, it would be useful to understand which characteristics of terrorism and PI people may take into account when judging risk, and how these may be used to communicate risk and influence these judgments. The following sections appraise literature pertaining to these events in a manner that seeks to understand how events are defined.

2.4. Determinants of tourists' perceived risk and willingness to travel

2.4.1. Political instability

The phenomenon of PI is characterised by terminological confusion created by numerous and diverse definitions proposed in political and social science literature (Hudson, 1970; Morrison and Stevenson, 1971; Sanders, 1981; Gupta, 1990; Hall and O'Sullivan, 1996). This has been recognised by scholars who stress the need for terminological unity and conceptual clarity (Gupta, 1990; Seddighi et al., 2002). In an attempt to address these issues Tcheocharous (2010) reviews and evaluates existing approaches to studying PI and proposes a definition which encompasses the key features of the phenomenon. According to Tcheocharous (2010, p. 358) PI refers to:

> "A situation where a political system is subjected to challenges or changes in the form of internal conflict, internal change and external conflict. The extent/level of instability is determined by the deviation of any given political event (or a combination of events) from the specific normal pattern of the system in which it occurs."

In light of this definition, a country may be considered as unstable if the normal political processes are disrupted, and the challenge or change occurs within a political system. Change can be sought through peaceful means, that is, actions which are not meant to cause property damage, injuries or loss of life (Scarbrough, 1998) which include: protests, strikes or criticisms. PI can also manifest itself in violent events such as: civil strife (e.g. riots) (Gurr, 1970); international and internal war (Eckstein, 1965); military coup (Zimmermann, 1980); guerrilla warfare (Laqueur, 2009); and terrorism (Hall and O'Sullivan, 1996). While it is clear that the difference between protests and, for instance, a military coup carry different levels of potential harm, and so, perceived risk, it would also be reasonable to expect that judgment of the potential of a peaceful event escalating into violence is complex. In this sense, while an event may in fact turn out to be relatively small scale, in the early days or hours of an event knowing what will happen next is determined by a complex set of political factors which are likely to be difficult to judge from an outsiders point of view. To simplify the complexity, such judgments may be coloured by a number of other salient cues.

According to Siermann (1998) the common thread between different views on PI is the socio-political tensions which often result from grievances and conflicts in the

society. The manifestations of civil disobedience can create a threat to the political power of the incumbent government, and are usually aimed at satisfying some unsettled demands of a political nature. However, such actions may also affect property rights of individuals, damage public property, and include random victims of violence. In general, as Cook (1990, p. 14) adds, the 'basic functional pre-requisites for social-order control and maintenance are unstable and periodically disrupted'. Depending on the degree of tensions, conflict and the ability of the government to manage these, periods of instability may vary greatly and take from a few hours or days, to months and even many years (Neumayer, 2004). As with regard to other indicators of the extent of PI mentioned in the previous paragraph, the ability of tourists to judge personal risk on the basis of the extent of underlying socio-political tensions and the ability of the government to maintain social-order is likely to be difficult.

This suggests that the uncertainty associated with the period in which the struggle for change occurs, especially in the early days of an event, and the future course of action e.g. changes in policies, economic performance, escalation of conflict, etc. is an important notion when defining PI. This clearly concerns the unsettled system, its citizens, as well as those not directly involved in the conflict e.g. industries such as tourism, which operate within this politically and economically unstable environment (Hall et al., 2003). Uncertainty may be further attenuated, especially from the point of view of those uninvolved in a conflict, by the complexity of the situation and a lack of understanding of the underlying reasons for the disagreement.

In general, based on the above, it can be argued that the main elements or episodes that determine stability/instability of a system are: government change or challenge, social (internal) conflict, external conflict, politically-fuelled violence and the resulting uncertainty. However, as argued above, judging personal risk with regard to such events involves the consideration of a complex set of indicators, which, from a point of view of a tourist, may be done with minimum effort and while reacting to other cues. With regards to the relationship between terrorism and PI, the former can be an indicator and an expression of the latter (Sonmez, 1998). While examples can be found to support this relationship, it is also uncommon for terrorist attacks to take place in politically stable destinations (e.g. Bali, 2002, London 2005, Madrid, 2004, Marrakech, 2010). This indicates that PI and terrorism also have a separate conceptual identity, which is supported by a number of authors who examine the phenomena from this perspective (Richter and Waugh, 1986; Wahab, 1996; Enders and Sandler, 1991; 1998;

Sonmez, 1998; Mansfeld, 1999). Moreover, from the point of view of this thesis, this distinction may be particularly important for the relationship between the portrayal of these events by information sources tourists consult and their responses. With this point in mind, the differences between terrorism and PI, and the possible implications for tourist behaviour are discussed in the section 2.4.3.

2.4.1.1. Political instability risk and tourists' decisions

Tourism is often described as an effective instrument for promoting peace and a vehicle for cultural understanding between nations i.e. global citizenship. However, in reality tourism has very little influence on peace and security issues (Hall et al., 2003), and in general the industry is far more dependent upon peaceful conditions than vice versa (Edgell et al., 2008).

Table 2.3 Effect of political instability on tourism

Destination	Effect(s) of incidents
Croatia	Before the war in former Yugoslavia in 1991, Croatia received 5 million tourists. The war resulted in a decline in tourist arrivals by 74% in 1995 in comparison to before the war (Weaver, 2000, p. 107).
Mexico	As a result of the 1994 Zapatista rebellion in Mexico there was a 70% drop in international tourist arrivals (Pitts, 1996).
Nepal	The war in Afghanistan initiated in October 2001 had an adverse impact on visitor arrivals to Nepal in 2002, which fell at an average of 40% in the peak season (JAN-JUN) harming the total economy of the country (Nepal-Tourism-Board, 2002).
Thailand	As an effect of PI the number of tourist arrivals in Thailand went down from 1.7 million in December 2009 to 1.1 million in April 2010. With security concerns hotel occupancy fell from 60.2% in January 2010 to 46.6% in April 2010 (Euromonitor, 2010).
Tunisia	The political turmoil of early 2011 resulted in a drop in tourism arrivals by 40% in January and February (Economist, 2012)
Egypt	Ongoing disturbances and demonstrations throughout Egypt which erupted on January 2011 resulted in a 37% fall in visitor numbers to reach 9 million compared to over 14 million in 2010 (Euromonitor, 2012).

This view is broadly supported by literature, which states that the tourism industry only thrives in a politically stable, safe and secure environment (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a; Santana, 2001; Tarlow and Santana, 2002; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005;

Mansfeld and Pizam, 2006; Araña and León, 2008; Edgell et al., 2008). Often accompanied by the above mentioned extreme manifestations of violence, damage to infrastructure, loss of life, and other issues, politically unstable countries suffer from a shattered international image (Clements and Georgiou, 1998). In a study of the impacts of political violence on tourism, Neumayer (2004) found that apart from the violent nature of conflict, it was the human rights violations that deterred tourism most strongly. The perceived risk of tourists, associated with being caught up in a conflict, experiencing travel difficulties, or not being able to use a destination's attractions due to damage or security measures, represents a significant barrier to tourism activity. Beyond the issues identified above, Hunter-Jones et al. (2007) found that tourists may also avoid destinations in crisis because they associate visits to such areas with an endorsement of the conflict. In this context, it is not surprising that a lack of stability in the economic, social and political domains of a destination region can easily deter the inflow of tourists (Richter, 1999) (see table 2.3 for examples).

Although events such as coups, riots, or wars involve violence and the infliction of harm, it could be argued that if tourists become victims of such actions it is not necessarily done with intention. Rather, the force is used primarily against government or military targets and civilians are hurt accidentally (Santana, 2001; Norris et al., 2003). Moreover, the areas of a destination country which are affected, the extent of violence and social tensions involved, as well as the potential for geographical spread of unrest can vary. Thus, despite indicators of PI in some parts of a country, tourist beach resorts, or rural areas are in fact often unaffected and safe. Following this line of reasoning, it is possible that tourists perceive different levels of risk of PI in association with different holiday regions within a country, which may also translate into a greater likelihood of a visit. Naturally, such decisions would be further complicated by other PI risk factors such as the potential for conflict escalation, strikes, and disruptions to transport etc. This highlights the challenge and complexity inherent in judging risk associated with visiting an unsettled country. It is also for this reason that tourists tend to paint the areas they perceive as risky with a broad brush.

2.4.2. Terrorism

Terrorism is widely regarded as one of the most significant contemporary threats to global security; however, it is by no means a modern phenomenon. Violence against leaders and their governments for its psychological impact as a means to undermine or

destroy a political system can be traced to the dawn of recorded history (Martin, 2003). Despite an increase in the sophistication of the perpetrators aided by technological advancements in the areas of weaponry, communication and transportation, one of the major effects of such actions remains unchanged. To elaborate, a common thread between the past and present face of terrorism is its mass psychological aspect (Weimann, 2008), particularly its enduring capacity to challenge the peace of mind of everyday people.

As in the case of PI, there is no shortage of terrorism definitions proposed by politicians, military advisors, scholars, journalists and policy-makers (Bryan et al., 2010; Hoffman, 2006b). However, no widely accepted definition exists as the phenomenon is open to variety of meanings which depend on the perspective (Norris et al., 2003). For example, a spectator, authorities responsible for ensuring safety and security, journalists or the aggressor him/herself will all have different views on its meaning. As Norris et al. (2003) further argue, groups responsible for an attack can be regarded as 'terrorists', 'liberation movements', 'radical activists', 'urban guerrillas' etc. Therefore, a universal definition that encompasses all these views may not be achievable.

For the purpose of this thesis a definition by Schmid and Jongman (1988, p. 28) is used:

> "Terrorism is an anxiety-inspiring method of repeated violent action … whereby the direct targets of violence are not the main targets. The immediate human victims of violence are generally chosen randomly (targets of opportunity) or selectively (representative or symbolic targets) from a target population, and serve as message generators. Threat and violence-based communication processes between terrorists (organisations), (imperilled) victims, and main targets are used to manipulate the main target (audience)."

This definition highlights a number of characteristics which make terrorism a hazard which is particularly intimidating to judge to the public. Firstly, the communication aspect of terrorism, or, as argued by Weimann and Winn (1994), the theater of terror, underscores its intentional character. Indeed, many scholars argue that as opposed to a random criminal act of violence, terrorist acts are carefully planned and executed in the pursuit of specific aims (White, 2002; Hoffman, 2006a). These can be quite diverse, broadly or narrowly focused, and will largely depend on the specific

actor(s) and their underlying motivation and ideology. While reviewing specific features of numerous terrorist attacks and organisations is beyond the scope of this study, a number of underlying characteristics of terrorism can be used to understand differences between them, and how these may impact on perceived risk. In this sense, some authors (e.g. Hoffmann, 1998) propose understanding these differences on a basis of distinguishing between secular and religious terrorism (see table 2.4). The main difference between the two is that over the last two decades religious terrorism has increased in its scale, lethality, and global reach to an extent that it has become a central issue for a global community (Martin, 2009). According to Hoffman (2006) and Simon (2003) this is because religiously motivated terrorism sees mass casualties as an end in itself, rather than the means to achieve political goals. As such it is not constrained by secular political concerns (Benjamin and Simon, 2000) and seeks no compromise. The high consequences and emotional character of such species of terrorism may appear particularly more likely to affect one on a personal level despite the low probability of becoming a victim (Mueller, 2007). In contrast, according to Hoffman (2006), secular terrorism rarely attempts mass killing because such tactics are against their morals and political aims. Rather, it uses a constrained scale of violence because it aims to change the attitudes of audiences who can help them achieve their goals (Crenshaw, 2007) and excessive brutality would be simply counterproductive (Benjamin and Simon, 2000).

Table 2.4 Religious and secular terrorism

	Quality of violence	Scope of violence
Religious	Unconstrained scale of terrorist violence	Expansive target definition
	Result: Unconstrained choice of weapons and tactics	**Result:** Indiscriminate use of violence
Secular	Constrained scale of terrorist Violence	Focused target definition
	Result: Relative constraint in choice of weapons and tactics	**Result:** Relative discrimination in use of violence

Source: Hoffman (1998)

A different way of looking at the phenomenon is by defining terrorism as 'new' versus 'old', or, 'traditional'. According to Martin (2009), 'new' terrorism is characterised as being driven by religious doctrines, asymmetrical tactics, indiscriminate attacks against soft targets, and its intention of causing maximum

casualties. Therefore, seeing terrorism as 'new' also corresponds with its religious character. Among organisations which can be classed as both religiously motivated and 'new', Al Qaeda, a network organisation which seeks to unite terrorist groups in the name of faith is the most prominent. Its asymmetrical approach lies in its use of unexpected and unconventional means to cause maximum damage and overcome opponents' military superiority (DFAT.GOV.AU, 2004). One of such tactics has been the indiscriminate targeting of civilians (Enders and Olsen, 2011), which generates widespread moral repugnance in the target population (Norris et al., 2003) as well as pervasive experience of loss of safety and confidence in way of life (Fullerton et al., 2003; Fischhoff, 2006), and behavioural changes undertaken by the affected to reduce the psychological effects (e.g. avoid travel, certain places etc.) (Silver et al., 2002; Torabi and Seo, 2004; Rubin et al., 2005; Gigerenzer, 2006; Rubin et al., 2007). For this reason, this type of terrorism has been described as 'psychological warfare' designed to create a state of mind in which the target audience is not capable of making objective assessments of risk anymore, and is susceptible to perpetrators demands (Gaynor, 2002; Nacos, 2004; Schmid, 2005). In contrast, 'old' or 'traditional' terrorism, as Crenshaw (2007) notes, is considered to be a lot more specific, precise, and constrained in its targeting. That is, rather than aiming at publicity by means of targeting broadly (e.g. those opposing religion, Westerners), it seeks attention by selecting narrowly defined targets (e.g. politicians, military, specific institutions) (Hoffman, 2006).

While such distinctions are not without their flaws, as the history of terrorism largely complicates any clear cut distinctions in understanding the phenomenon (Crenshaw, 2007), they offer a way to grasp this complexity. As such, they act as cues on which to draw conclusions in a complex world, for instance, with regards to support of foreign policies, or making travel decisions. In this sense, such simplifications may be appealing for different actors, for instance consumers who seek to satisfy their goals (e.g. of a safe holiday), or those who may seek to promote a certain response, or reinforce dominant views. Specifically, in deciding on how much risk is involved in visiting a destination subject to terrorist attack or its threat, people may take into account a range of risk relevant cues such as emotional charge, the level of control in avoiding the consequences of an attack, typical victims, or specific perpetrators.

2.4.2.1. Terrorism risk and tourists' decisions

In the context of tourism, many scholars have commented on the influence of terrorism upon tourists' perceived risk and the resulting avoidance of affected destinations or postponement of holiday plans (Sonmez, 1998; Drakos and Kutan, 2003; Floyd et al., 2004b; Krakover, 2005; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005). Some examples of tourism demand declining in response to terrorism are presented in table 2.5 (see below).

Table 2.5 Effects of terrorism on tourism

Destination	Effect(s) of incidents
Egypt	The Luxor attacks in 1997 resulted in a decline in tourism arrivals by 13.8% from 1997-1998, and by 45.4% in 1998 compared to before the attack (Biju, 2006).
Kenya	The bombings of US targets in Nairobi 1998 resulted in 90 percent of inbound international flights being cancelled, which caused serious harm to the Kenyan economy (Kuto and Groves, 2004).
Indonesia	The 2002 bombings resulted in a drop of arrivals to the destination by 60% between October and November of 2002 (Bareham, 2004).
India	The shooting and bombing attacks in Mumbai 2008 impacted on the tourism industry which experienced a 60% drop in tourist arrivals (CNN, 2009)
Madrid	In response to a series of explosions on four trains in Madrid in 2004 the number of arrivals dropped by 10% (Lynch, 2004)
USA	The September 11th 2001 bombing of twin towers of the World Trade Centre in New York City resulted in a drop of international arrivals to New York by 10% in 2003 (NYC.GOV, 2013).

Although many more examples of the negative influence of terrorism can be found, it is also important to keep a balanced perspective. For example, some authors find that tourists are not always concerned about terrorism and travel to destinations such as Egypt and Thailand despite attacks (Uriely et al., 2007; Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty, 2009). This is demonstrated by Lynch (2004) who found that the Madrid bombings of 2004 had minimal effect (see table 2.5) on the Spanish tourism industry, which she attributed to the swift response of the Spanish Authorities. In a similar vein, despite the large scale of the 9/11th attack, the number of arrivals to New York in the following year was relatively unaffected. However, besides this factor, the resilience of

tourists to risk in these cases may also be due to the attractiveness of the destinations and the difficulty in finding substitutes for the unique benefits these destinations offer. This view is supported by Mansfeld (1999) and Frey et al. (2007) who argue that the degree of uniqueness of a destination's attributes may determine its ability to recover from tourism crises.

Moreover, seeing as the newness of a hazard is an important qualitative cue people take into account when judging and reacting to risks (Slovic et al., 1986), years of exposure to terrorist attacks may have resulted in the habituation of people with this hazard. That is, a degree of acceptance of terrorism as a part of life, which may lead to an increased ability of tourists to resist overreaction to its possibility.

For example, Uriely et al. (2007) report that tourists, who travelled to Sinai in Egypt in the aftermath of the 2004 attacks, used risk reduction rationalisations such as 'lightning doesn't strike in the same place twice'. Similarly, Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty (2009) suggest that tourists who travelled to terror stricken Thailand did so because they realised that the threat of terrorism is part of life and attacks can happen anywhere, home or abroad. Such statements clearly show that some tourists refuse to change their lifestyle because of terror and continue with their plans. In a different study, Hunter-Jones et al. (2007) identify that terrorism was perceived to be the least significant risk influencing the decision-making process among young backpackers. Similarly, one of the reasons voiced to justify the propensity of these respondents to ignore the influence of such events was "terrorism doesn't concern me, you can't do much about it can you?" (Hunter-Jones et al. 2007, p. 244). This also suggests that the motivation for certain types of tourism may also be an important factor in understanding how they respond to the risk of terrorism. This psychological factor is further explored in the following paragraphs. These examples show that reactions to terrorism vary, which is congruent with literature on travel risk perception.

In summary, although it is clear that it is not uncommon for destinations plagued by terrorism to be perceived as riskier, less attractive and avoided by tourists, the literature also shows that such reactions are not always the case.

Having discussed literature relevant to the concepts of terrorism, political instability and their relationship with tourism, the following section is set out with a focus on discussing similarities and differences between these phenomena. In particular,

how the feelings and thoughts that tourists have of these events may influence them in their perceived risk and willingness to participate in tourism products.

2.4.3. Terrorism and political instability – similarities and differences

Undoubtedly there is a degree of overlap between the complex phenomena of PI and terrorism. Extreme manifestations of political instability such as civil or international wars often lead to acts of terrorism, or vice versa. In broad terms, both involve violence and/or the threat of violence, and both can impact on tourism severely. This said, there are also differences between the phenomena, which may have a varying impact on global audiences. For instance, Fletcher and Morakabati (2008) found that political events, such as a coup, have more severe influence on tourism demand than a low-to-medium, one-off terrorist attack. This is supported by Saha and Yap (2013) who examined the performance of the industry in response to PI and terrorism in 139 countries between 1999 and 2009. The authors found that PI affects the tourism industry far more severely than terrorism, and terrorism on its own has limited effects when a country is politically stable. The following sections consider a number of characteristics of these events which may explain the pattern in tourists' responses.

Firstly, the situation of PI is often spread over longer periods of time, whereas terrorist attacks may be perceived much like a strike of lightning. Clashes of civilian combatants with military forces, protests etc. may go on for days, months or even years. In contrast, terrorism usually occurs quickly and briefly (Sonmez, 1998). This obviously is not a rule as some incidents may involve multiple operations, locations and last longer e.g. the attacks in Mumbai 2008, which lasted approximately 60 hours (Acharya et al., 2008). However, in comparison with lingering political conflicts, it is possible that some tourists follow the 'lightning doesn't strike twice in the same place' logic to arrive at a different level of perceived risk. Again, this is not a rule as unfortunate examples from Bali or Mumbai demonstrate that terrorists do strike in the same locations. In this sense, Pizam and Fleisher (2002) argue that the frequency of terror attacks has a particularly negative effect on tourism demand, and the industry will recover in 6 to 12 months when attacks are not repeated.

Secondly, in regard of whether or not a hazard is deliberately imposed on humans, it can be argued that as opposed to terrorist actions, when tourists become victims of PI it is rarely done by design. Conversely, as discussed in previous sections, it is not

uncommon for terrorist groups to attack tourists and tourist resorts (e.g. BBC, 2003; BBC, 2008), or threaten to use violence against specific tourist groups (e.g. Telegraph, 2010). Therefore, perception of risk is likely to vary depending on whether or not people believe they are intentionally targeted e.g. because of being a western citizen, tourist etc. (Woods, 2011). In this regard, inferences can be drawn from a number of characteristics of an event, such as, the way information concerning perpetrators, location of attack, or comparison to other events is presented.

Thirdly, apart from extreme cases of PI such as civil or international wars, its milder forms are typically highly localised (e.g. city squares, urban locations). Conversely, as 'new' international terrorist organisations demonstrate, terrorist attacks are not geographically bound and can occur in a variety of very different contexts (LaFree and Dugan, 2009). From a Balinese nightclub (BBC, 2003), to the London tube (BBC, 2005), or a secluded paradise beach in Kenya (Telegraph, 2011), in short, they can occur anywhere and anytime. In this sense, the perceived level of control in avoiding a particular hazard, as suggested by the geographical spread of locations considered dangerous, may have significant implications for the perceived level of risk.

Lastly, both PI and terrorism are usually subject to extensive media coverage (Hall, 2003; Norris et al., 2003; Woods, 2007; Larsen et al., 2011a). As discussed before, people have difficulty in processing complex information. For example, in the exploration of young tourists' perception of risk, Hunter-Jones et al. (2007) found that, in general, respondents had difficulties in distinguishing between acts of terrorism and crime. Moreover, because judging low probability and affect rich hazards is difficult (Sunstein, 2003), people tend to draw conclusions from a range of qualitative characteristics of risk. In this sense, to simplify the complexity, journalists may present stories within a frame of reference that emphasises some features of a hazard over others (discussed in more detail in section 2.4.4.2.). Thus, assuming that the content of such news influences receivers, differences in the way that the information concerning these hazards is presented may have different effects on the receiver.

In summary, terrorism and PI are related, but also distinct risk factors. Thus, it is argued that the way tourists make judgments concerning the risk of being negatively affected by these events may vary, especially with regards to the media coverage of such events. In this regard, insights into tourists' minds would be very beneficial for tourism marketers and decision makers involved in delivering tourism products. The

following sections discuss literature pertaining to the ways in which tourists attain knowledge about PI and terrorism, which influence the way they perceive, understand and make travel decisions involving risk.

2.4.4. Communicating about risks

As discussed before with the use of SARF, communication concerning hazards is fundamental as to the way in which some events are perceived as risky and some are trivialised. Risk communication can be defined as 'the social process through which risk judgments are established or modified' (Cvetkovich and Earle, 1991, p. 371). Its role is especially significant with regard to certain hazards (e.g. terrorism and PI) and contexts (e.g. tourism) where learning about risk on the basis of direct experience is limited. This view is supported by Bandura's (1977) Social Learning Theory, which posits that people learn much from indirect sources, such as observation and social interaction. In this regard, the communication of representations of risk is most likely as old as human culture itself and represents an important part of its heritage passed on from one generation to another (Wahlberg and Sjorberg, 2000).

While communication of such knowledge can be facilitated by different means (e.g. word-of-mouth, activist groups, governmental organisations), among these, the media are often commented to be a particularly important source of risk perceptions (Slone, 2000; Flynn et al., 2001; Petts et al., 2001; Kasperson, 2005; Durfee, 2006; Renn, 2008; Vilella-Vila and Costa-Font, 2008). The public typically receives a variety of information from news media about a range of issues such as environmental risks (e.g. global warming, flooding), to advances in science and technology (e.g. nanotechnology, genetically modified foods), and terrorism and events of political instability. In the context of tourism, traditional news media (print, broadcast and internet), social media, and government and industry (e.g. travel advisories) constitute the main social amplification stations. Much as in broader literature on risk communication, the media are often noted by tourism scholars to play a particularly significant role in influencing tourists' destination risk perceptions (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a; Beirmann, 2003; Hall, 2003; L'Etang et al., 2007; Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty, 2009; Larsen et al., 2011a). While providing people with crucial information in a timely manner, news media coverage of tourism crises is commonly believed to be associated with producing distorted understanding of the issues. This is typically attributed to the manner in which this is done which tends to be very dramatic,

attention-seeking, and inaccurate (Wahlberg and Sjorberg, 2000; Lupton, 2006; Lofstedt, 2010). In respect of this, the following sections discuss the potential role of the media in the amplification or attenuation of perceived risk, and the ways in which this relationship can be studied.

2.4.4.1. Media effects

Media effects can be understood as various social and psychological changes that occur in consumers of media message systems – or in their social setting or cultural values – as a result of being exposed to, processing, or acting on those mediated messages (Bryant and Oliver, 2008). From the perspective of this thesis, the significance of the relationship between the media and tourists' perceived risk can be viewed from a few perspectives.

Firstly, the absence of personal experience with infrequently occurring hazards, such as terrorist attacks or large scale riots, introduces an element of reliance of audiences upon information, which, according to Perse (2001), is particularly evident during crises. Indeed, in such times, the news media are often the only way to satisfy a high demand for information among the public. Facilitated by technological advancements, news stories and images can be circulated around the world in minutes. Moreover, Nacos et al. (2007) argue that even when people witness such negative events, they are still likely to turn to media sources for an explanation of what they experienced personally. The reality of crisis events is then experienced vicariously through news media reports that provide people with a conceptualised image of the real world, which closes the distance between them and the events (Shoshani and Slone, 2008). This reliance upon news media for information regarding unfamiliar events amplifies people's susceptibility to media effects (Ball-Rokeach, 1998) on a range of responses, such as, perceived risk. As explained before, in the context of tourism, the reliance on this information is further increased by the nature of tourism products (e.g. the reliance on destination images).

Secondly, the influence of the media in this context may also be due to the particular ways in which risk information is presented to audiences. As discussed before, people rarely respond to expert risk assessments in the manner intended (Wiedemann et al., 2003b; Rogers et al., 2007). Rather they draw on a host of qualitative aspects of potentially harmful events to arrive at a subjectively defined perception of risk. In this respect, Kitzinger (2009a) argues that the media does not

cover risk as formally defined by experts (i.e. an objectively calculated multiple of likelihood and impact), they cover stories: disasters, crises, and controversies. While it is important to note that the style of reports can vary between, for instance, different types of journalist (e.g. science specialist, general reporter), or audience demographics ('broadsheet' vs. 'tabloid'), such coverage typically contains multiple story elements that may be easier to process and more engaging to audiences than dry statistics. These may include, for instance, cues such as emotional appeals (e.g. child harmed), vivid images (the aftermath of a bomb explosion), or victims' stories (e.g. tourists' accounts of violent riots). In producing content that attracts attention and is wanted by the audience, the media are often accused of amplification of perceived risk and unwanted behavioural responses (Kitzinger, 1999; Petts et al., 2001). This phenomenon is of particular significance in the world of tourism, where unfavourable perceptions of destinations translate into large losses which reverberate on a global scale of the tourism system.

Despite an agreement concerning the importance of the media in influencing audiences, their role in shaping people's perceptions and opinions about significant political and social issues has been a subject of continuous debate and research. The study of mass communication is based on the premise that the media and their content have significant and substantial effects (McQuail, 2010). This makes common sense seeing how important the media have become in modern societies. The amount of resources (e.g. time, money, energy) given to producing and consuming media content seems to indicate clearly that it has to have some impact on our lives. Yet after over a hundred years of research there is little agreement as to the extent and nature of these effects (Schrum, 2002; Gauntlett, 2005).

The study of media effects has been characterised by a series of shifts in theoretical assumptions and the ways empirical results are interpreted. Initially (1930s) understood as direct and uniform across audiences, the paradigm of media effects has been revised (1930s-1960s) to limited influence (McQuail, 2010). The media and their influence were regarded to be indirect and dependent on a complex set of audience factors such as social categories, relationships and individual differences (Klapper, 1960). The third stage, beginning in the 1960s, was represented by a rediscovery of powerful media effects (Noelle-Neumann, 1973). The focus of research shifted from attitude change to the more cognitive effects of mass media. The fourth and present stage, beginning in the 1980s, is that of "social constructivism" (Gamson and

Modigliani, 1989), which combines the elements of both strong media effects and limited effects (i.e. the power of people to choose). While it can be argued that no one model of media effects is complete (Perse, 2001), the concept of powerful and uniform media effects has now been largely discredited. The more recent approaches to media effects seek to analyse how both media content and audience factors can shape the interpretation and understanding of social issues, such as the perception of risk. This is largely in agreement with the assumptions of the SARF framework discussed before (see figure 2.4) i.e. that media influence on risk is not a one-way process. The dominant approaches of this more recent phase of research on media effects are the theories of framing and agenda setting. According to Bryant and Miron (2006, cited by Giles and Shaw, 2009) framing, in particular, has now become the leading methodology in communication science.

The theory of agenda setting, introduced by McCombs and Shaw (1972), proposes that the relative importance of certain issues in the public's mind is affected by the emphasis that mass media place on these issues. Thus, through repetition and consistency of coverage, the media influences what audiences think about. As a result, information becomes more accessible (easily recalled) and tends to feed into making judgments or decisions (e.g. in respect of risk) (Scheufele, 2000; Bakir, 2006; Nisbet and Huge, 2006; Matthes, 2007). Rather than how the information about an issue is presented, it is the fact that the issue has received a certain amount of processing and attention that carries the effect (Scheufele and Tewksbury, 2007). In this sense, the agenda-setting function of the media is a likely example of accessibility bias (Shrum, 2009), which was mentioned before (see p. 27-28) using an example of post 9/11 decisions to avoid air travel.

In studies across a range of public opinion contexts, the agenda-setting function of the media has also been investigated with regards to perceived risk. For instance, in a longitudinal study, Frewer et al. (2002) found that over time, risk perceptions of genetically modified foods increased and decreased in response to changes in the extent of social and media discussion of the risk. In a similar vein, others found that an increase in the amount of news coverage had an effect on public perception of nuclear risks (Flynn et al., 1998) and bear attacks (Gore et al., 2005). Contrary to these findings, Woods (2008) and Nacos et al. (2007) found that the increased volume of media coverage of terrorism by itself produced no effect on perceived risk among the US public. Despite mixed results in studies on perceived risk, the evidence partly suggests

that an increased coverage of a particular issue can set a public agenda and feed into audiences' judgments. However, studying media effects on perceived risk from this perspective is associated with certain difficulties. For instance, for a robust finding, the measures of perceived risk among audiences need to be taken at different points in time i.e. before an event occurs, and after an intense period of coverage (Frewer et al., 2002). This means that the possibility of such research in response to real life media coverage is largely opportunistic and particularly difficult in the context of terrorism and PI. Moreover, agenda-setting is largely dependent upon the attention of audiences to particular issues covered over a period of time, which is complicated in the international travel and hazards contexts. That is, tourists may only pay attention to certain news when these are directly relevant to their needs e.g. a discovery of a hazard in the planning phase of a holiday or before departure.

Framing theory is different from agenda setting as it assumes that apart from raising the salience of issues in receivers' minds through the amount of exposure, the way a news story is presented (framed) affects how they understand and interpret the issues and events covered (Price and Tewksbury, 1997; Scheufele, 1999; Sniderman and Theriault, 2004; Scheufele, 2006; Entman et al., 2009). Media frames are generally seen as coherent packages of information containing a 'central organising idea or story line that provides meaning to an unfolding strip of events' (Gamson and Modigliani, 1989: 143). In short, a frame is an 'emphasis in salience of different aspects of a topic' (De Vreese, 2005: 53). Through the selection and emphasis on some aspects of perceived reality (e.g. facts, ideas, images), journalists present a story to the public within a particular frame of reference to simplify the complexity (Entman, 2004; Van Gorp, 2007). A framing effect is said to occur when, in the course of describing an issue or event, a speaker's emphasis on a subset of potentially relevant considerations causes receivers to focus on these considerations when constructing their opinions or judgements (Sniderman and Theriault, 2004). In the context of risk communication, for instance, a study by Spencer and Triche (1994) demonstrated that reporters tended to tone down the magnitude of the consequences of hazards and to reduce their seriousness. The emphasis in mass media coverage of hazards on some aspects of hazards to the exclusion of others has been demonstrated in a number of other studies (e.g. Driedger, 2007; Marks et al., 2007; Woods, 2007; Jönsson 2011).

According to media effects scholars, framing effects are based on the notion of applicability (Price and Tewksbury, 1997; Chong and Druckman, 2007b; Scheufele and

Tewksbury, 2007). These can occur either via the reinforcement of a particular way of interpretation of an issue or event that is already stored in the receivers' minds as a schema, or through suggesting ways of interpretation that are unfamiliar to receivers. Either way, the suggested interpretative framework (i.e. media frame) embedded in a news text is made applicable to an issue at hand (e.g. risk judgment) and provides a lens through which to draw conclusions (e.g. high risk versus low risk). A more detailed discussion of how framing effects may occur is presented in chapter 5.

A number of studies utilise the media framing theory to study the relationship between news content and audiences' perception of risk. Outside of the tourism context, these can be divided into two research streams.

Psychologically-oriented studies focus on isolated individual patterns of information processing and judgments in response to media messages (Price et al., 2005). Mostly experimental in nature, these studies manipulate news frames through experimentally prepared news stories to determine their influence upon individual cognitions. A number of researchers demonstrate how small variations in the make-up of messages elicit noticeable variations in audiences' perception of risk (Durfee, 2006; Schuck and de Vreese, 2006; Danis and Stohl, 2008; Boholm, 2009; Woods, 2011; Otieno et al., 2013). Among these, Woods (2011) found that his study subjects perceived more threat of terrorism when the danger was associated with 'radical Islamic groups' (as opposed to 'home-grown terrorists') and 'nuclear' technology (as opposed to 'conventional weapons'). Overall, in evaluating empirical evidence from a decade and a half, Sniderman and Theriault conclude that it is "widely agreed that citizens in large numbers can be readily blown from one side of an issue to the very opposite depending on how the issue is specifically framed" (cited by Slothuus, 2008, p. 1-2).

Other researchers argue that the effects of the media on risk perception are overstated and oversimplified as the majority of studies fail to take into account the complex moderating force of the socio-cultural context (Cottle, 1998; Anderson, 2006; Hughes et al., 2006). This complexity is emphasised by interpretative media and socio-cultural studies which uncover the multiple ways in which individuals actively negotiate, make sense and respond to risk information they encounter in social discourses (including the framing of issues by the news media) (e.g. Horlick-Jones et al., 2003; Wiedemann et al., 2003b; Kitzinger, 2004). However, as Brewer and Gross (2010) point out, these studies cannot demonstrate cause and effect.

In the context of tourism research, scholars often comment on the significant influence of the media on tourists' risk perceptions and resulting behaviour (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a; Hall, 2002; Glaesser, 2003); however the effects are rarely studied. For example, Davidson (2008) performs a content analysis of media reports concerning climbing accidents in New Zealand to uncover the risk representations. Although the author discusses the importance of framing i.e. the way in which a story is presented, he does not study audiences' perceptions. Also in the context of adventure tourism, King and Beeton (2006) study the effects of the media on young tourists' perceived risk of adventurous activities and willingness to participate in these activities. They do so by asking respondents to recall the accidents which they had heard about in the news media, and to self-report the extent to which they believe the reports influenced their perceptions and behaviours. Evidence obtained this way is rather problematic, mainly due to the difficulties for the participants to recall news reports, the self-report assessment of the media-risk relationship, and the lack of information on the specific media content. In another study of the relationship between the news media and tourist travel decisions, Stepchenkova and Eales (2010) quantify information on the attributes of Russia's destination image (including articles about terrorism and PI) that appeared in British newspapers between 1992 and 2007. Having coded the sample of articles about terrorism and PI as "unfavourable" they predicted that this information would negatively influence visitation patterns to Russia; however, this is not supported by the data. This suggests that the situation is more complex and the effect may depend upon a range of factors related to the message and the audience. For instance, while news about terrorism and PI is rarely "favourable", one would expect significant differences in qualitative characteristics between events, and consequently, varying ways of coverage of these events by the news media. More recently, in a study of risk perception associated with visiting London during the 2012 Summer Olympic Games, Schroeder et al. (2013) emphasise the importance of the influence of media coverage on perceived risk as a future area of inquiry.

In summary, risk and media scholars agree that the representation of risk through framing hazardous incidents is fundamental in how (and whether) the media influence perception of risk (Kitzinger, 1999; Hughes et al., 2006). Importantly, an investigation of the media and audience relationship needs to recognise both the power of media content to shape perceptions and the power of media audiences to resist/negotiate this content (Devereux, 2007) e.g. via drawing on existing knowledge, personal experience,

degree of attention etc. Indeed 'people may challenge the dominant messages to which they are exposed, arguing that messages are inaccurate and do not apply to them' (Wilkinson, 2001; Davin, 2003, cited by Lupton, 2006, p. 18). Despite the potential use of the framing theory to study the relationship between the news media and destination risk perception, the approach is yet to be applied in this context. In light of this literature, this project adopts the theory of framing to address the research problem.

The following sections focus on tourist characteristics relevant to judgments of risk. Importantly, in light of the above discussed issues, these characteristics may also be seen as audience characteristics which play a role in the particular ways in which tourists interact with the risk messages they may be exposed to through media communication.

2.4.5. Travel experience

Literature suggests that while few people come into contact with hazards such as PI and terrorism, experience, created through travel, influences the way people perceive risk in general. Specifically, experienced tourists may feel less threatened by certain risks and generally better prepared to manage them (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998b; Lepp and Gibson, 2003; Kozak et al., 2007). For example, Sonmez and Graefe (1998b) found that experienced tourists have a more positive attitude towards unfamiliar destinations and assign a lower meaning to possible hazards while travelling. Grounded in Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs, Pearce (1996) hypothesised that more experienced tourists seek to satisfy higher order needs, while less experienced tourists are more likely to be occupied with lower order, basic needs such as safety. Specifically, less experienced tourists were more concerned about health, terror and food issues, than more experienced tourists. This is confirmed by other researchers, who argue that previous experience results in lower risk judgements (Pinhey and Inverson, 1994; Floyd et al., 2004b; Larsen et al., 2007a; Chew and Jahari, 2014).

However, a lack of travel experience, in some cases, may simply mean that tourists are less aware of hazards, and thus are not concerned about the possibility of harm and downplay this factor when deciding to go on holiday. In contrast, experienced tourists may have a more realistic picture of a situation, with their perception of risk potentially heightened by negative experiences (personal or other travellers') in regard to some destinations or parts of the world e.g. stressful situations at an airport, heavy presence of armed forces, violence, or hostile natives. In summary, the above literature

suggests that travel experience is a factor which should be considered in studies of perceived risk.

2.4.6. Holiday preferences

Preferences have been regarded as one of the most critical elements to explain tourist destination selection and holiday choice (Murphy, 1985; Moutinho, 1987; Goodall, 1991). According to Ashworth and Goodall (1990), individual preferences determine which course of action is selected and which is rejected. In a similar vein, Decrop (2006) explains that preference is a special case of attitudes where product alternatives are compared and then one is chosen over another. Tourists have to choose which of the destinations they wish to visit and which to skip. The result is the creation of typical consumption patterns of the tourism product based on preferences.

Preferences are based on an individual's personality and direct the search for specific ways of satisfying existing needs (Suh and Gartner, 2004). There have been several attempts in studies to specify distinct tourist types and benefits sought with an end goal of predicting holiday preferences and destination choices. The results have also been used to explain the acceptability of destination risk among tourists, and as suggested above, they may also be useful in understanding how these types interact with risk messages. A review of key research in this area follows.

2.4.6.1. Holiday type – benefits sought

According to Hayley (1968), the benefits, which consumers seek in products, provide insight into the basic or underlying reasons why they may purchase them. While in today's competitive world, holiday destinations seek to comprise of a wide range of offerings, typically they cannot cater for every segment. For instance, a coastal resort may offer a range of attractions and experiences that will be different to those of a city or a rural area. Of course, countries which offer a wide range of destination types that comprise of unique pull factors e.g. a world famous heritage site, pristine natural environment etc., have better chances of attracting tourists.

As highlighted in chapter 2.2, the perceived benefits associated with tourism products play a crucial role in the relationship between perceived risk and the willingness of people to travel. This indicates that destinations which offer benefits that match tourists' preferences may be less susceptible to hazard events and associated

perceived risks (Mansfeld, 1999; Neumayer, 2004; Frey et al., 2007). Research in this area usually seeks to understand the influence of perceived risk on willingness to travel in relation to a country (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a; Sonmez and Graefe, 1998b; Valencia and Crouch, 2008). However, it is argued that a finer grained investigation may be useful. Firstly, certain areas of a country in crisis usually entail a smaller or greater risk of being exposed to a hazard (e.g. kidnapping on the coast of Kenya, riots in the centre of Cairo or London etc.). Therefore, it is only reasonable to assume that while, for instance, judging Egypt to be at risk of PI due to violent protests in Cairo, a tourist may still be willing to travel to a beach resort of Sharm-el-Sheikh. Secondly, as explained above, large tourism intensive countries such as Egypt, Spain, or Turkey, will typically comprise of different regions, or types of destination, each associated with different benefits. It is therefore argued, that the willingness to travel to a certain region within a country, despite perceiving the country to be at risk, may be intensified further when the region offers holiday benefits preferred by the tourist. This is supported by Neumayer (2004) who argues that the reason for the smaller impact of events of political violence on some countries may be explained by the large size and diversity of the country, which means that it cannot be easily substituted by travelling to another country.

To account for this risk and holiday benefit trade-off, relevant literature was appraised. Numerous benefit-based segmentation studies have been applied in a tourism context with an end goal of understanding and identifying tourist preferences and behaviour (Frochot and Morrison, 2001; Kay, 2006; Gibson and Papadimitriou, 2008). However, no accepted definition of benefit or benefit categories exists. After reviewing relevant literature, Frochot and Morrison (2001) propose dividing this body of research into three streams. One approach defines benefits as product and service specific attributes, or pull factors, of a destination desired by tourists (e.g. Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Kastenholz et al., 1999; Yannopoulos and Rotenberg, 1999; Sarigollu and Huang, 2005) e.g. the availability of entertainment, beaches, heritage sites etc. The others focus on tourist motivation, or push factors, to find psychological benefit outcomes people seek to satisfy their needs (e.g. Cha et al., 1995; Beh and Bruyere, 2007; Pennington–Gray and Kerstetter, 2001), such as relaxation, achievement etc. Finally, a number of studies mix the two approaches because consumption of tourism products combines both tangible attributes and psychological expectations (May et al., 2001; Bieger and Laesser, 2002; Jang et al., 2002).

As Kay (2006) points out, there is some confusion and mix of interpretations in tourism benefit literature between benefit and other consumer behaviour constructs such as motivation, motives, attitudes and expectations. A recent review of segmentation studies by Bigne et al. (2008), suggests that the benefits sought and push motivation factors should be treated as separate segmentation criteria. Thus, to avoid confusion, the following approach is employed in this thesis. Benefits sought are conceptualised as activities and attributes, referring to pull factors, which people seek from holidays to satisfy their needs e.g. 'warm climate/sunbathing', or 'abundant wildlife'. The psychological outcomes, referring to push factors, people seek or prefer e.g. thrill, novelty, stimulation, relaxation etc. are operationalised separately, as stemming from socio-psychological characteristics of tourists (see 2.4.5.2). Both constructs are employed for a more complete understanding of tourist preferences.

Similarities can be observed between the different benefit categories proposed, which include: tourists who seek adventure, cultural experiences, nature based experiences, and relaxation, sun, sand and sea. Although it is clear that the tourism experience is far more complex, and reducing it to a few categories involves a degree of oversimplification and ambiguity (Lowyck et al., 1992), adopting this approach provides a framework for managing the complexity. A number of studies investigate tourist benefits sought, with the use of broad holiday/destination categories such as: adventure, cultural, and beach, to emphasise the distinct attractions, activities, and psychological outcomes (e.g. Eachus, 2004; Tran and Ralston, 2005; Lehto et al., 2008; Tran and Woodside, 2009; Larsen et al., 2011a).

In light of the above discussed research, the information on tourists' benefit preferences can be measured using lists of attributes adopted from extant studies. To account for the risk and benefit trade-off, these results will be related to tourists' willingness to travel to different regions of a country (each emphasising different holiday benefits), in a hazard event scenario.

As explained, to account for the complexity of TDM, tourist preferences have also been studied in relation to certain socio-psychological outcomes or ways of delivering a tourist experience as a means of profiling distinct tourist types. In this regard, it is argued that benefit preferences are also expected to be associated with a certain personality type, and thereby, different levels of perceived risk and patterns of willingness to visit destination regions despite information about hazard events. An appraisal of literature concerning tourist typologies follows.

2.4.6.2. Tourist type

Numerous tourism studies use tourists' psychographic and behavioural characteristics to profile for tourist holiday preferences. Current tourist typologies can be divided into sociological and psychological streams of research (Jackson, 2006). Many of these attempts share common themes which are discussed below.

From a sociological perspective, Cohen (1972; 1979) identified four categories of tourist travel preferences which fall in a spectrum which range from those seeking novelty (explorer and drifter) to those pursuing familiarity (the individual and organised mass tourist) in their travel experiences. Additionally, the author described the latter two types as institutionalised (less adventurous, package tours, followers) and the former as non-institutionalised (explorative, independent travel, pioneers). Although Cohen's typology is not complete and cannot be applied to all tourists, it does offer a way of arranging and understanding tourist activity (Fletcher et al., 2013). For instance, the construct has been applied by Alvarez and Asugman (2006) and Lepp and Gibson (2003) to demonstrate that tourists seeking familiarity would perceive higher levels of risk associated with international travel than those seeking novelty. Unfortunately, Lepp and Gibson (2003) studied perceived risk in association with international travel, rather than specific countries, which may be an overly broad category. Using a different instrument for measurement of novelty-seeking, Correia et al. (2008) also found novelty-seeking to be a significant determinant of risk. However their study omitted physical risks (e.g. terrorism, crime) and focused on psychological and financial risks only. In this sense, it would be useful to understand whether such a characteristic is associated with lower sensitivity to risk in relation to terrorism and PI in country and destination type specific contexts.

A similar typology has been proposed by Smith (1977), who classified tourists based on the level of familiarity sought and the preferred level of social interaction (with host and other tourists). A detailed description of seven roles ranges from explorers (those who seek novelty and interaction with local culture) to charter tourists (those who seek familiarity and culture similar to their own). However, Smith did not comment on the implications of these roles for risk in tourism.

In a similar vein, Gibson and Yiannakis (1992; 2002) propose that while on vacation individuals perform preferred tourist roles (14 types) which provide an optimal balance of three bipolar dimensions of stimulation-tranquillity; strangeness-familiarity;

and structure-independence. The above themes have also been related to various other typologies created in wider tourism literature (Dann, 1977; Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Smith, 1989; Mo et al., 1993).

Psychological typologies of tourism preference have been based mostly upon trait theory, which, according to Gerrig and Zimbardo (2002) can be understood as the building blocks of personality and motivation. One of the main contributions came from Plog (1974; 1991), who divided tourism consumers into two broad groups of allocentrics and psychocentrics (with additional near-psychocentric, midcentric, and near-allocentric groups). According to the author, psychocentrics are characterised by being anxious within their daily lives, risk averse, and prefer travelling as part of a group on package tours to familiar and commonplace destinations. In contrast, allocentrics prefer unstructured trips in smaller groups to unusual places and more contact with local cultures. In general, they are more confident and do not suffer from general anxieties. In reality the situation is a lot more complicated as most people are mid-centric, that is, a combination of both ends of the continuum, and therefore distinct types are difficult to identify. A number of studies used Plog's model to investigate tourist preferences, which resulted in some empirical support for this personality dimension (Nickerson and Ellis, 1991; Griffith and Albanese, 1996; Plog, 2002). Surprisingly, as noted by Weaver (2012), none of the studies which employed Plog's model (including Plog) ever disclosed the instrument used for measuring different personality types. More recently, Weaver (2012) confirms the relevance of Plog's psychographic model in a study of tourist destination choice. The author discloses 10 items of the internally reliable scale for the purpose of future measurement of the construct. As such, the instrument could potentially be used to study differences in perceived risk.

A different stream of psychological research on tourist preferences is based on the sensation seeking (SS) trait proposed by Zuckermann (1979; 1983b; Gilchrist et al., 1995; Griffith and Albanese, 1996; Pizam et al., 2002; Eachus, 2004; Pizam et al., 2004; Lepp and Gibson, 2008; Litvin, 2008). According to Zuckermann, SS is 'a trait defined by the seeking of varied, novel, complex, and intense sensations and experiences, and the willingness to take physical, social, legal, and financial risks for the sake of such experience' (Zuckerman, 1994, p. 27). Differences in people's needs for intense and novel sensory experiences are assessed by a total score of four SS sub-scales (thrill and adventure seeking, experience seeking, boredom susceptibility, and disinhibition). A

number of researchers argue that individuals high in SS are in general less risk averse, and thus might frame risk associated with travel and some activities e.g. extreme sports, as a stimulant rather than an inhibitor (Galloway and Lopez, 1999; Pizam et al., 2002; Litvin, 2008). However, this does not imply that people high in SS have a "death wish" and accept any risk (Zuckermann, 1983, in Lepp and Gibson, 2008). They calculate risks associated with hazards (e.g. the chance of injury in mountain biking) with consideration of their control (e.g. skill), and accept risks as a means for an enjoyable experience, rather than for the sake of experiencing risk itself. Undoubtedly, terrorism is a distinctively different species of risk to extreme sport. Therefore, whether or not SS is associated with different levels of perceived risk may depend upon the type of risk itself. This is somewhat supported by Lepp and Gibson (2008) and Aschauer (2010) who found that both high and low sensation seekers perceived risk similarly, however they did not measure risk in association to any specific hazards. In contrast, Sharifpour et al. (2013) find that high sensation seekers perceive less risk associated with visiting Arabia. In general, this research demonstrates that, despite mixed results, SS is a trait that may be an important factor in studying tourists' responses to risk of terrorism and political instability.

The various typologies proposed are helpful in understanding different aspects of tourist experiences and the motivation behind them; however no one of these typologies has emerged as a universally accepted approach. Typologies developed over the past decades have all attempted to group together tourists based on their preferences for a particular vacation experience (Wall and Mathieson, 2006). In summary, as mentioned above, the extant classifications of tourists tend to highlight similar themes. These include: the degree of reliance on the tourism industry, the degree of novelty sought, the degree of social interaction (with host and other tourists), and the preferred level of stimulation (e.g. Cohen, 1972; Plog, 1974; Smith, 1977; 1979; Plog, 1991; Gibson and Yiannakis, 1992; Pizam et al., 2004; Lepp and Gibson, 2008).

In an effort to combine the contributions of tourist typology research, Jackson (2006) proposed a tourism specific personality inventory which consists of the allocentric-psychocentric and introvert-extrovert dimensions. Importantly, his scale is better suited for the measurement of both allocentric and psychocentric personality than that proposed by Weaver (2012). To clarify, all items in Weaver's scale are framed as allocentric items, which may introduce a bias when seeking to identify the opposite, psychocentric type. To avoid this, Jackson's (2006) scale contains a mixture of both

allocentric and psychocentric items. More recently, Paris and Seery (2012) proposed to extend Jackson's (2006) model with an SS scale for a more complete representation of tourist groups. Importantly, this dimension captures tourists' stimulation vs. tranquillity preferences, and the propensity to engage in risky behaviours. This approach is adopted in this thesis. The details of the items employed for the measurement of tourist type are explained in the methodology chapter. Specifically, information obtained from a two dimensional instrument of tourist personality will be used to support the relationship between holiday benefits sought and tourists' willingness to travel in the context of risk.

2.4.7. Demographic factors

2.4.7.1. Age

Age has been used in the past as a predictor of differences in risk perception (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a; Sellick, 2004) which has produced mixed results. Some studies have found that older people give higher risk estimates than younger people (Lai and Tao, 2003); others demonstrated opposite effects (Gibson and Yiannakis, 2002; Floyd, 2004a); while still others have found no relationship (e.g. Hellesoy et al., 1998). While age may be a helpful factor in accounting for some differences in how people perceive and respond to risk, it is unlikely to provide an explanation on its own. Rather, such data may be useful when interaction with other factors is considered for a richer account of possible differences, for instance, benefits sought, or tourist personality type. For instance, Kozak et al. (2007) found that older, experienced male tourists were less likely to change their plans in response to potential health problems, terrorism or natural disasters. This also indicates the possible relationship between age and experience, which as suggested by Pearce (1996), may be critical in understanding differences in responses to risk.

2.4.7.2. Gender

Literature suggests that gender may be an important factor explaining differences in travel risk perception. For example, some authors argue that women are more concerned with travel risks than men (Carr, 2001; Lepp and Gibson, 2003; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2006; Park and Reisinger, 2010; Matyas et al., 2011), and more vulnerable to risk than men (Gibson and Jordan, 1998a; 1998b). Moreover, a number of studies indicate that women are more anxious, risk averse, and more willing to express

fear than men (Howell et al., 2001, Lerner et al., 2003, cited by Reisinger and Crotts, 2010). While this indicates that women may perceive more risk, it is also possible that the different disposition towards risk of men is associated with cultural values and traditions e.g. it is less socially acceptable for men to admit concerns, which may result in lower risk judgments. This is supported by Putrevu (2001) who notes that The Social Role Theory suggests that traditionally the behaviour of men is associated with assertiveness, mastery and self-efficacy. Similarly, others argue that stereotypically masculinity shares a connection with risk-taking (Bem, 1981, 1993, Kelling et al, 1976, cited by Ronay and Kim, 2006) as well as a sense of daring and bravery (Wilson and Daly, 1985). Moreover, in consideration of cultural influences, it is also possible that perceived risk may be affected by a social desirability bias e.g. giving in to risk, or being fearful of travelling, may be socially undesirable. Hence, despite gender type, people want to describe themselves in socially approved ways i.e. brave and adventurous.

Other research in tourism found gender differences in perceptions related to specific types of risk (Carr, 2001; Pizam et al., 2004; Kozak et al., 2007). Specifically, Carr (2001) suggests that women may be more concerned about crime than men, which may be useful in understanding related man-made hazards of terrorism and PI. On the contrary, Sonmez and Graefe (1998) and Simpson and Siguaw (2008) do not find any association between gender and individual perception of risk. This suggests that much as in the case of age, gender may add explanatory power in association with other variables employed to study the research problem. This is demonstrated by Lepp and Gibson's (2003) study on tourism specific roles which found that female drifters (i.e. Cohen's tourist types as discussed before) perceived less risk of terrorism than male drifters, while among other tourist types males perceived less risk.

2.4.7.3. Travel group composition

Literature suggests that apart from other demographic factors, the make-up of the travel party may also help to explain differences in how people assess risk For instance, the way people travel may be related to tourist roles discussed in previous sections. That is, travelling alone may be an indicative characteristic associated with Cohen's drifter role, or Plog's Allocentric type, hence potentially explaining why these tourists perceive less risk. This is partly supported by a study by Pizam et al. (2002) and Pizam et al. (2004) who found that tourists who preferred to travel independently (i.e. self-

organised) with friends, as opposed to packaged group travel with family, tended to be high on risk-taking and sensation seeking. Similarly, Elsrud (2001, p. 602, cited by Lepp and Gibson, 2003) found that both male and female solo backpackers, a group which can be likened to Cohen's drifters, 'practice risks' in their travels. This, however, is rejected by Reichel et al. (2007) who also studying backpackers found that those who travelled alone were more risk-averse than those who travelled in a group. Similarly, Perry et al. (2011) found that solo travellers had lower health risk perception, and were more risk-seeking than group travellers.

In regard to different travel companion structures, such as for instance young families, as related to Roger's (1975) PMT, it would be expected that for such groups the threshold of acceptable risk would be reached sooner, and so be expressed in greater motivation to protect group members by avoiding potential harm. While some of the research discussed suggests that travelling in a group, especially on package tours, is indicative of tourists who perceive more risk, it is also possible that being closer to the industry i.e. guides, structure, and other tourists, provides a sense of confidence and protection. This notion is supported by Bressler (2011) who notes that while package tourists focus on security and could be categorised as risk averse, the product they receive often offers them psychological and financial security, hence less worry. Thus, provided that tourists trust in the industry's ability to protect e.g., trusted guides, reliable travel agencies, those travelling in groups on a package may in fact be more likely to visit destinations which may be considered risky by solo travellers. Particularly because the popular tourist areas they prefer are typically much more protected than off-the-beaten-track areas that may appeal more to backpackers, drifters, or allocentrics.

Summary

Drawing on literature pertaining to the relationship between tourism, risk, terrorism, PI, and the media, this chapter has identified a number of knowledge gaps and set the scene for this research. In respect of this, risk in tourism has been identified as a multidimensional phenomenon, the perception of which, depends upon a range of factors. Despite scholarly activity in the area, evidence with regards to some of these factors has been inconclusive. Firstly, although often regarded as critical, the research on the influence of the media has been scarce. To address this, the media framing theory has been identified as a lens through which the relationship between news reports concerning hazard events and individuals' responses to such stimuli can be studied. A

survey of the literature confirmed that no studies up to date applied this theory in the destination risk context. Secondly, the influence on perceived risk and willingness to travel in response to hazards of factors such as tourists' demographic characteristics, and holiday preferences (i.e. holiday benefits sought and the psycho-social aspects of a holiday) requires more research. Specifically, the profiles created on the basis of holiday preferences may be important determinants of perceived risk, willingness to travel as well as responses of tourists to media reports. Moreover, risk may vary depending on the type of hazard considered. While often studied, the differences in the influence, especially via news reports, on perceived risk and willingness to travel between terrorism and PI are unclear. Finally, despite recognition in the literature of the importance of the risk and holiday benefits relationship, their influence on the willingness to travel in times of crises received little attention in tourism literature.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1. Introduction

This chapter details the methodological approach adopted for the primary research. The choice of specific methods and the manner in which they were operationalised is explained and justified. The chapter starts by explaining the focus of the research, the approach utilised, and the reasons for rejecting alternative approaches. The chapter then discusses the research process adopted including the philosophical assumptions, before each stage of data collection and analysis is discussed in detail.

3.2. Focus of the research

Critical appraisal of work that has been done with regards to the relationship between tourism consumer behaviour, terrorism, political instability and the media identified a number of knowledge gaps and is the focus of this thesis. The aim of this research project is to critically evaluate the effects of news media reports concerning terrorism and political instability on leisure tourists' risk perception and willingness to travel. This aim will be achieved by addressing the following objectives:

1. To determine the factors that influence destination risk perception and willingness to travel.

2. To determine the influence of news media frames regarding events of terrorism and political instability on destination risk perception and tourists' willingness to travel.

3. To understand the role of benefits associated with travelling to different destination regions in the relationship between tourists' risk perception and willingness to travel.

4. To build a theoretical framework concerning the effects of news media frames of terrorism and political instability risk on leisure tourists' risk perception and willingness to travel.

Initially, a qualitative approach to addressing the aim and objectives of the study was considered. This approach is supported by a number of studies which employ in-depth interviews and/or focus-groups to investigate the influence of media frames on a range of audience opinions and thought processes (Gamson, 1992; Chong, 1993; 1996), including risk (Hornig, 1993; Horlick-Jones et al., 2007; Hughes et al., 2008). The

strengths of this approach lie in the ability of researchers to uncover the depth of how audiences respond to and use media frames, individually or in group settings. These studies demonstrate the active role of the audiences in the process of relating frames encountered to existing ideas (e.g. rejecting, considering irrelevant), and highlight the importance of their characteristics. However, while in-depth interviews and focus groups can be used to study the influence of media frames on an audience's thinking processes, typically these methods do not provide strong evidence of causal relationships (Brewer and Gross, 2005). A number of studies address this aspect by employing laboratory and survey-embedded experiments (e.g. Flynn et al., 2001; Bakir, 2005; Quigley, 2005; Bakir, 2006; Schuck and de Vreese, 2006; Driedger, 2008; Woods, 2011), which focus on attitudinal and behavioural responses of individuals to media content emphasising different aspects of risk. However, in establishing causal links these studies are criticised for being reductionist and failing to recognise the complex ways in which audiences work with the messages they encounter in public discourse to derive meaning (Cottle, 1998; Anderson, 2006; Hughes et al., 2006).

In a similar vein, limitations in employing either a quantitative or a qualitative approach have been identified with regards to studying risk in TDM. While the majority of research on perceived risk in tourism employs a quantitative approach (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a; Lepp and Gibson, 2003; Floyd et al., 2004b; Dolnicar, 2005; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005; Larsen et al., 2011a), qualitative studies are not uncommon (e.g. Elsrud, 2001; Hunter-Jones et al., 2007; Uriely et al., 2007; Silva et al., 2010). The former approaches are useful in establishing relationships among the main variables, however, they are typically limited in answering the 'why's' of these relationships. The latter approaches address this issue but, because of specific settings and small samples, the results cannot be generalised to wider populations. Moreover, as suggested by extant research, studying the relationship between perceived risk and benefits may be particularly difficult employing solely a quantitative approach.

In light of these arguments and the complexity of the multidisciplinary research undertaken, a mixed-method approach was used to address the research problem. Despite what many consider to be a quantitative/qualitative divide, the approach has gained wide support in recent years (Creswell et al., 2003; Bryman, 2008). This includes studies concerning the main areas of focus of this thesis, that is, risk perception (Poortinga et al., 2004; De Franca et al., 2009), media effects (Price et al., 2005;

Parmelee et al., 2007), and TDM in the context of risk (King and Beeton, 2006; Reichel et al., 2007; Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty, 2009; Lee et al., 2011).

3.3. Research approach

It is common practice to divide research into quantitative and qualitative approaches. At one level this distinction refers to paradigmatic differences, where a paradigm is defined by Teddlie and Tashakorri (2009, p. 86) as a 'worldview, together with the various philosophical assumptions associated with that point of view'. On another level, the terms refer to different methods of data collection and analysis (McMillan and Schumacher, 2006). The basic differences on both levels are summarised in table 3.1 (see below).

Table 3.1 Basic differences between quantitative and qualitative research concepts

	Quantitative	Qualitative
Paradigm	Positivism	Interpretivism
Views of knowledge (epistemology)	Objectivist Knowledge summarized in the form of time-, value-, and context-free generalisations.	Subjectivist Reality only knowable through human mind and socially constructed meaning
Role of theory	Deductive approach, testing or verification of theory	Inductive approach, generation of theory
Methodology (aims of scientific investigation)	Experimental/manipulative Objectivity, analysis of causal relationships, generalisability of findings	Hermeneutical/dialectical Understanding of complexity and depth of phenomena, transferability of findings
Methods (research techniques and tools)	Experiments and surveys Close-ended questions, predetermined approaches, numeric data	Case studies, narrative research, interviews, focus groups, ethnographies Open-ended questions, emerging approaches, text or image data

Source: Adapted from Slevitch (2011)

Importantly, as numerous researchers note (e.g. Silverman, 2006; Murray, 2013), neither approach should be seen as better than the other, rather their suitability depends upon the context, sample size, purpose and nature of the research project in question. Therefore, seeing as each of the approaches provides a different perspective and each is associated with strengths and weaknesses (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Creswell,

2009), the choice should be driven by the ability of a particular approach to yield convincing answers to the questions that the researcher seeks to settle. In this sense, driven by the difficulty in addressing increasingly complex research problems with the use of one or the other type of data and analysis, researchers started to combine quantitative and qualitative methods within one study (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011).

On the level of paradigmatic differences, this practice was contested by purist researchers who operate at either of the extreme points of positivism and interpretivism (e.g. Smith, 1983; Smith and Heshusius, 1986; cited by Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005). They advocate an incompatibility thesis (Howe, 1988), which posits that quantitative methods are embedded in commitments to particular versions of the world (ontology) and to knowing of that world (epistemology), which are conflicting to those of qualitative methods (see table 3.1) (Hughes, 1990). Therefore, on the grounds of this incompatibility, they argue that methods from different paradigms cannot, and should not, be mixed.

Despite this dispute, a growing number of researchers have been embracing mixed-method research (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003; 2009) i.e. research that mixes both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study (Creswell, 2009). Mixed-method research encourages methodological diversity and eclecticism to draw from the strengths and minimise the weaknesses of either individual approach (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Bryman, 2008). Acceptance of mixed-method research has grown to a point where even leading qualitative purists have suggested that it is possible to combine the elements of one paradigm into another (Guba and Lincoln, 2005).

In taking a mixed-method approach to the research, a pragmatic philosophical stance has been adopted to allow the benefits of each method to be fully embraced. This strategy is broadly supported by a number of mixed-method proponents (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2003; Pansiri, 2006; Johnson et al., 2007; Greene, 2008; Feilzer, 2010; Harrison and Reilly, 2011). Rather than starting with particular philosophical assumptions, pragmatists argue that research questions should drive the method(s) used (Biesta, 2010), believing that 'epistemological purity doesn't get the research done' (Miles and Huberman, 1984: 21, cited by Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005). In describing pragmatism's philosophical basis for research, Creswell (2009) suggests that pragmatism does not require a commitment to any system of philosophy and reality, and, as a result, mixed-method researchers may draw assumptions for their research both from qualitative and quantitative stances.

3.4. Mixed method strategies and research design

The foremost reason for employing a mixed-method approach as the driver of the particular research design in this project was the realisation that one data source is insufficient to address the research problem. This strategy is commonly supported by mixed-methods researchers (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005; Ridenour and Newman, 2008). To support the project planning phases a number of classifications of mixed-method designs, proposed by mixed-method researchers (e.g. Creswell et al., 2003; Greene, 2007; Morgan, 2007; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009) have been consulted. The four major types of design by Creswell et al, (2003) are presented in Figure 3.1 (see below).

One of the key criteria used in choosing a design that best matched the needs of this research was the timing of methods. In this sense, a sequential combination of mixed-methods (design type 'b' and 'c') was selected (rather than convergent 'a') to allow the building on findings between different phases. In respect of the order of quantitative and qualitative methods, initially, in-depth interviews as a primary method were considered to explore tourists' thoughts and feelings concerning the risk of terrorism and PI. This exploration would then inform a quantitative phase concerning the relationship between news media representations of such events and tourists' perceived risk. However, six informal interviews revealed that interviewees had difficulties with discussing the above issues, which underscores the inherent complexity of the phenomena studied. This is supported by a study of Hunter-Jones et al (2007), who found that interviewees had difficulties in distinguishing between crime, terrorism and PI. Therefore, this approach was abandoned due to a risk of producing a very broad and unfocused discussion around the topic, rather than specific risk event variables being tested. Moreover, seeing as studying the relationship between the media and perceived risk in the context of TDM is further complicated by a host of socio-psychological and demographic factors identified in the previous chapter, it was decided that selecting a sample of interviewees without consideration of these factors would be problematic. For this reason, the study was conducted in a sequence of a quantitative strand followed by a qualitative strand to overcome these weaknesses and utilise theoretical and empirical insights of extant research.

Figure 3.1 Main mixed-method research design types

a) The convergent (triangulation) parallel design
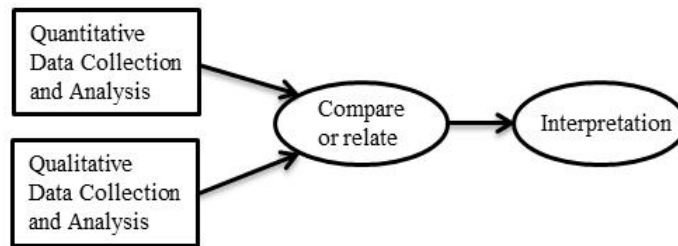
b) The explanatory sequential design
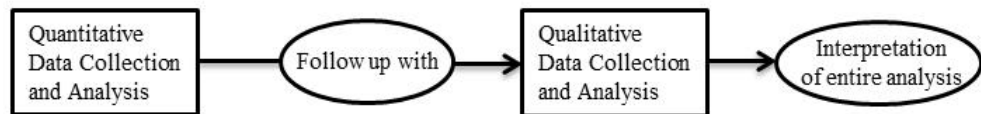
c) The exploratory sequential design
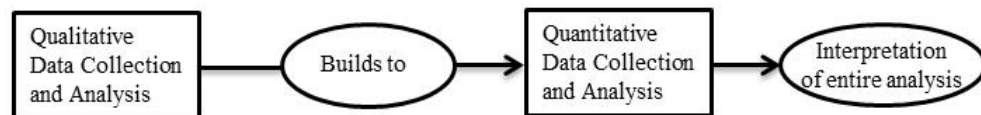
d) The embedded design
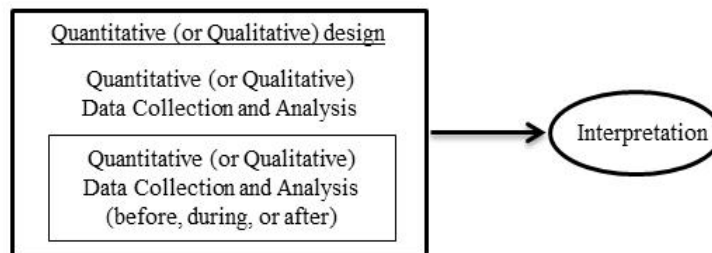
Source: Adapted from Creswell et al (2003)

Specifically, the study design involved three techniques of data collection and analysis in the following order: questionnaire survey, survey-embedded experiments, and interviews. The specific ways in which the different methods were employed to address the research objectives and research questions are presented in table 3.2.

Table 3.2 How the research methods are linked to the research objectives and questions

Methods	Objectives	Research Questions
Phase 1: Questionnaire-survey	Obj. 1 and 3	RQ1: What is the difference in perceived risk (PR) between leisure tourists' with different levels of sensation seeking? RQ2: What is the difference in PR between allo/mid/psychocentric tourist types? RQ3: What is the relationship between holiday benefits sought and perceived risk among leisure tourists RQ4: What is the difference in PR between tourists with different demographic characteristics? RQ5: What is the relationship between willingness to travel (to different region types) and tourists' psychographic characteristics? RQ6: What is the difference in willingness to visit a destination after a terrorist attack between tourists with different psychographic and demographic characteristics?
Phase 2: Survey-embedded experiment	Obj. 2, and 4	RQ7: What is the effect of media frames concerning the magnitude of risk of terrorism/ political instability (PI) on PR of leisure tourists? RQ8: What is the effect of media frames concerning event type (terrorism / PI) on PR of leisure tourists? RQ9: What is the difference in the judgment of PR in response to information about terrorism/PI between allo/mid/psychocentric tourist types? RQ10: What is the effect of media frames concerning the magnitude of risk of terrorism/ PI on the willingness to travel of leisure tourists? RQ11: What is the effect of media frames concerning event type on the willingness to travel of leisure tourists?
Phase 3: Interviews	Obj. 2, 3 and 4	RQ12: What message elements of media frames concerning the magnitude of risk of terrorism / PI are used by leisure tourists in making judgments of PR and willingness to travel? RQ13: How are the message elements of media frames concerning the magnitude of risk of terrorism / PI used by leisure tourists in making judgments of PR and willingness to travel? RQ14: What is the role of travel benefits associated with different destinations in the willingness to travel after a terrorist attack / event of PI?

Therefore, the study was designed in a way that best answers the research questions. Beyond this, a number of specific practices of mixed-methods, as well as reasons for their employment, were identified in accordance with a framework proposed by Bryman (2006). These were: 1) to offset the weaknesses associated with any individual approach and draw on the strengths of both the quantitative and qualitative strategies; 2) to identify a sample of respondents for a qualitative strand of research with the use of data obtained from a representative sample of a quantitative strand; 3) to help explain the findings generated by the quantitative strand of research with the use of the qualitative strand of research, and thereby 4) bring together a more comprehensive account of the area of inquiry of interest.

3.5.   Questionnaire survey

The questionnaire was designed to study the relationships between leisure tourists' media consumption patterns, demographic factors, holiday preferences, travel risk perception and willingness to travel. The questionnaire was divided into four parts, namely: 1) news media use (Q2-Q5); 2) holiday preferences (Q6-Q7); 3) risk and holidays (Q8-Q9); and 4) personal information (Q10-Q14) (see table 3.3).

The first part included questions concerning the importance of different sources of information for providing news and for destination choices; the frequency of the use of social media; and the specific news sources used.

The second part consisted of questions concerning tourists' personality characteristics (Q6) and holiday benefits sought (Q7). The former was an 8-item scale of allocentric-psychocentric tourist personality types, comprised of items borrowed from Jackson and Inbakaran (2006). Each of the items represented a different aspect of the tourist personality i.e. 1) the need for structure, 2) familiarity/novelty, 3) off-the-beaten-track, 4) reliance on the tourism industry, 5) venturesomeness, 6) intellectual curiosity, 7) activity, and 8) openness to other cultures, which was phrased as a statement referring to tourists' holiday preferences. To measure SS tendencies, a short 4-item scale was used with one item from each of the SS sub-scales i.e. (thrill and adventure seeking, experience seeking, boredom susceptibility, and disinhibition). For each of the 12 statements, the respondents were asked to indicate the extent of agreement/disagreement on a 5-point Likert scale: from 1=Strongly disagree to 5=Strongly agree.

Table 3.3 How the questionnaire survey is linked to the research objectives

Objective number	Question number	Variable name	Description
N/a	1	Screening question	Screen out members of the public who have never travelled overseas for a holiday and do not wish to do so in the future
1	2	News media use	Importance as a source of news of 'Television', 'Printed newspaper' 'Radio' and 'Online sources'
	3 A, B, C		Specific media sources (News channels, Newspaper, Radio) used to obtain news
	4		Frequency of use of social media sources
	5	Info. sources used for destination choices	Importance of information sources used by respondents for holiday destination choices
1	6	Holiday preferences	Tourist personality characteristics: Allocentrism/Midcentrism/ Psychocentrism, and Sensation Seeking.
4	7		Benefits sought – attributes and activities associated with holidays
1	8	Travel risk perception	Extent of worry about four types of travel risk (i.e. crime, health, PI and terrorism) associated with travel to a specific country (Egypt, India or Turkey)
4	9 A, B, C	Willingness to travel pre incident	Willingness to travel to three regions (adventure, beach, culture) within a specific country (Egypt, India or Turkey)
	10 A, B, C	Willingness to travel post incident	Willingness to travel to three regions (adventure, beach, culture) within a specific country (Egypt, India or Turkey) post terrorist attack
1	10	Demographic factors	Travel experience – regions visited
	11		Travel experience – number of overseas holidays
	12		Travel group composition
	13		Gender
	14		Age

The holiday benefits sought were measured with a 15-item scale of attributes and activities of a holiday destination. The respondents were asked to indicate the extent of

the importance of each of the items in the choice of a holiday destination on a 5-point Likert scale: from 1=Not at all important to 5=Very important.

Part three was comprised of risk perception (Q8), and willingness to travel pre (Q9 A, B, C) and post terrorist attack (Q10 A, B, C) questions. The perceived risk was measured with the use of 4 specific risk items (i.e. crime, health, terrorism and PI) on a 5-point Likert scale: from 1=Very worried to 5=Not at all worried. Next, tourists were asked about their willingness to travel to three regions (adventure, beach, culture) within a specific country pre and post a terrorist attack. Responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale: from 1=Would definitely avoid to 5=Would definitely visit.

Lastly, part four included five questions covering travel experience (regions of the world visited, and frequency of travel in the past 3 years), usual travel group composition, gender and age.

To avoid vague responses, Q8-Q10 needed to be set in a context which was not too broad (e.g. Africa, or overseas travel). For this purpose, three countries (Egypt, India, and Turkey) were selected on the basis of the following criteria:

1. The amount of terrorism and PI incidents over the past two years.

2. The amount of media coverage of the incidents (measured in the number of newspaper articles which made reference to the incidents) in the 12 months before the survey with the use of the LexisNexis UK database. Taking into account British daily and weekend newspapers (the same as were used in the questionnaire survey), searches on the following keywords were performed; for Terrorism; 'Terror*'; and for Political Instability: 'Riot*', 'Unrest*', and 'Political Instability'). The results of the database searches were as follows:

   - Egypt: Terrorism (N=174) and PI (N=635)
   - India: Terrorism (N=292) and PI (N=153)
   - Turkey: Terrorism (N=157) and PI (N=121)

3. The popularity of the countries among British tourists (measured in arrivals). Egypt (1,034 m), India (787,000), Turkey (2,582 m) (FCO, 2012).

4. The diversity of tourism attractions and distinct destination contexts. All three countries have the resources to cater for different holiday types (e.g. cultural, adventure, sun and sand)

To control for the influence of the context (Egypt, India, and Turkey) on the respondents' ratings of perceived risk and willingness to travel, the questionnaire was constructed in three different versions. Each version differed in respect of the country context (in Q8), and the three destinations (emphasising benefits) within this country (in Q9-10), while keeping other elements of the questionnaire constant.

The paper version of the questionnaire was pre-tested with 30 academic staff at Bournemouth University (10 per questionnaire type). This stage facilitated critical feedback to remove any ambiguous terms, clarify obscurities, and incorporate additional aspects that had been overlooked in the original version. The final version of the questionnaire is presented in appendix 1.

3.5.1. Sampling approach and administration

A paper copy of the questionnaire survey was distributed via post. Distributing the questionnaire online was rejected mainly due to the difficulties in obtaining a representative sample. However, in order to increase the response rate, those contacted were given the opportunity to fill in the questionnaire online (the link was printed in cover letter) as well as a hard copy version, depending on their preference.

In order to achieve a national probability sample of British leisure tourists, a simple random sampling technique was chosen. Working to a 95% level of confidence, a minimum sample would be 384. Taking into account typical response rates of postal questionnaires (10-15%) it was decided that 3000 UK households would be contacted to obtain the target sample of 384.

The sample was drawn from a sampling frame of UK postal addresses with the use of the Postcode Address Finder (PAF) database. The PAF is the most up-to-date and complete database of addresses in the UK containing over 28 million entries (Royal-Mail-Group, 2013). A list of all 2981 post-code districts (denoted by the first group of numbers and letters in the postal code e.g. BH12 (ONS, 2013)) was sourced (Map-Logic, 2013), and a sample of 100 were selected at random using an Excel spread sheet (Techrepublic, 2007). A visual check of these 100 post code districts was made to ensure that a broad national coverage had been achieved. Every residential address within these 100 districts was extracted from the PAF database, and a weighted sample drawn from this to form a database of 100,000 addresses (in an excel spread sheet). Addresses were chosen at random from this new database.

While the Royal Mail Postal Address Finder provides the most up-to-date and reliable database of addresses, it does not include details of the residents at each address. Consequently, questionnaires were sent simply to the address rather than being personalised to a named recipient. Research has stressed the adverse effect that non-personalisation has on response rates (De Leeuw and Hox, 1988; Dillman, 2007), however, available databases that contain personalisation details tend to be out-of-date, costly, and contain often-surveyed addresses, which could conversely reduce response rates. Moreover, such databases are likely to contain biases due to their method of compilation (Dillman, 2007).

Questionnaires were posted with a covering letter and a pre-paid envelope. The covering letter was printed on Bournemouth University headed paper and briefly explained the survey and the importance of responses (see appendix 2). Contact details were provided to enable recipients to discuss the study with the researcher if they wished to do so.

Each questionnaire was assigned an identification number, which was scanned upon return and exported into SPSS to save time on data input. Initially, 700 of each questionnaire version (2100 altogether) were posted. After two weeks nearly equal amounts of the different questionnaires bad been completed and received back. Subsequently, the remaining 300 per questionnaire version (900 altogether) were sent out.

The questionnaire also sought to identify participants for the experiment phase of data collection. An incentive was offered to maximise the number of participants, namely, each participant was given a chance of winning a prize (e.g. £40 in Amazon vouchers).

3.5.2. Questionnaire survey data analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Science 20 (SPSS) was employed as the main tool for analysis and display of data. Naturally, before starting analysis a researcher must decide which statistical tests to employ.

Ultimately, decisions, concerning the statistical tests chosen, are driven by the types of questions one seeks to answer, and the nature and the quality of the data. There are three types of data i.e. categorical, ordinal, and interval (Field, 2009). Categorical data is made up of two or more categories that cannot be ordered, for instance, regions

of the world visited by a tourist (Q10 in the questionnaire). When categories are ordered, the data is known as an ordinal. However, apart from the order in which something occurred e.g. the level of agreement with a statement, these data tell nothing about the differences between values. In contrast, the intervals between the values of interval data represent equal differences in the property being measured. In essence, the type of data being measured determines which statistical tests are available for analyses.

The types of statistical tests are divided into parametric and non-parametric tests. In general, some researchers argue that parametric tests are more powerful and allow more conclusions to be drawn than their non-parametric counterparts because they use less information in their calculations (de Vaus, 2002; Asthana and Bhushan, 2007). However, parametric tests involve a range of assumptions and requirements which need to be met in order to justify their use. These most commonly concern: a normal distribution of data, homogeneity of variance, and at least interval data. Non-parametric tests are often used as they make fewer assumptions about the type of data on which they can be used and are more flexible (Field, 2009). Most non-parametric tests work on the principles of ranking the data, rather than working on the actual data, which overcomes the limitations of using data that breaks the parametric assumptions. Seeing as most of the variables measured in this study are ordinal, the study has used non-parametric tests. Specifically, the following non-parametric tests have been used:

- Wilcoxon signed-rank test

- Mann-Whitney U-test

- Kruskal-Wallis test

3.5.2.1. Wilcoxon signed-rank test for two related conditions

This test is used to compare two sets of scores from the same sample of participants, and is applicable to situations where researchers want to investigate any change in scores from one condition to another. For instance, in this study, the test was used to investigate the difference between the willingness to travel to a destination in two conditions i.e. pre and post a terrorist attack. The difference is considered statistically significant when the value of significance level p is below the level set e.g. 0.05.

3.5.2.2. Mann-Whitney U-test for two independent samples

This test compares two independent sets of data to show whether there is a significant overall difference between these sets of data in the magnitude of the variable of interest. For instance, a comparison between two categorical, independent groups such as allocentric and psychocentric tourist type, on the value of an ordinal variable such as perceived risk.

3.5.2.3. Kruskall-Wallis for several independent samples

The Kruskal-Wallis test is used when there are more than two sets of data. For example, when researchers wants to investigate whether there is a difference between people from different age groups, in terms of their perceived risk. Importantly, if statistically significant, this test demonstrates that differences between groups exist, but it tells nothing about where these differences exist. For this reason, post hoc procedures with corrections using Mann-Whitney U-test have been employed to determine the exact differences.

In addition to these non-parametric tests, the study included descriptive tests of demographic data, Principal component analysis (PCA) to uncover the underlying benefits sought dimensions (Q7), and Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (Rho) test. All of the above procedures are discussed in greater depth in the questionnaire analysis chapter.

3.6. Survey based experiment

A survey-based experiment was employed with a focus on the causal link between news media reports of terrorism and PI, and leisure tourists' perceived risk and willingness to travel. The following sub-chapters discuss the literature with regards to the suitability of experiments for studying causality, the different types of experimental designs, their strengths and weaknesses. This is followed by a description of the experimental design employed, the independent and dependent variables, the sample and the administration, as well as the techniques employed to analyse the data.

3.6.1. Experiments and causal inference

According to Shadish et al. (2002, p. 12), an experiment is a "study in which intervention is deliberately introduced to observe its effects". This intervention involves

the manipulation by the experimenter of a variable, hypothesised to affect the outcome, and its application in the form of a treatment on different subjects, or groups of subjects. The effects are then observed by comparing the outcomes between the groups exposed to different treatments. The key strength of experiments is that, as opposed to correlational studies which establish whether or not there is a relationship between variables, experiments can demonstrate that by changing the independent variable, a change is possible in the dependent variable. This point is highlighted by Wimmer and Dominick (1994, p. 85) who state that experiments represent "the best social science method for establishing causality".

Importantly, the validity of such evidence lies in the ability of the experimenter to convincingly discount all other explanations of the measured outcome. While such uncertainties can never be completely eliminated in social sciences due to the many contextual factors that complicate the causal inquiry, there are a number of procedures that researchers employ to minimise the error (Gunter, 2000). Firstly, the researchers need to carefully define the independent variable, which represents the aspect of the environment that is manipulated, and the dependent variable, or the measurable outcome of the manipulation. Secondly, to minimise the possibility of the effect on measurable outcome attributable to differences between experiment subjects, social scientists often randomly assign subjects to treatments. If successful, this procedure creates groups of subjects that are probabilistically similar to each other, to ensure that any differences in measured outcome are likely to be due to the treatment (Shadish et al., 2002). Wimmer and Dominick (2011) note that another way to control for the impact of confounding variables (i.e. those other than independent variables) is to match subjects on characteristics that may relate to the dependent variable. Provided a relevant variable is known, subjects are paired on a similar value of this variable before being assigned at random to different groups. For instance, a researcher may group people on the basis of age, or personality type, to ensure that the final groups are homogeneous with respect to these variables.

In the context of media research, the value of experiments lies in the ability of researchers to study the causal relationship between media stimulus and audience responses (Gunter, 2000; McDermott, 2002). Through the manipulation of specific aspects of media content, as well as the control of background factors (i.e. confounding variables) and the conditions under which individuals are exposed to media stimulus, researchers are able to demonstrate that the observed response is due to a treatment. In

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the context of this research project, the experiment is used to address objective 2 i.e. to study the influence of media frames of terrorism and PI on leisure tourists' perception of risk and willingness to travel. Specifically, the method enables the researcher to examine how the different ways in portraying the risk associated with visiting a destination subject to terrorism and political instability, may influence tourist responses.

3.6.2. Types of experimental designs – strengths and weaknesses

Different types of experimental designs can be implemented depending on the nature of the subjects, instruments, and available resources. In the very simplest form, the classic randomised laboratory design compares the reactions of the treatment group (exposed to e.g. media stimuli) with the control group (not exposed to experimental treatment) (Hornig-Priest, 1996). This approach is often employed in studying media framing effects (Brewer and Gross, 2010), however, many other designs have been used to study complex social phenomena.

A more complex laboratory design involves, apart from the post-test measurement of dependent variable, an assessment of respondents' critical measures pre exposure to treatment. The advantage of this procedure lies in the greater confidence of the researchers with regards to the equivalency of the groups at the outset of the experiment. Moreover, a pre-test/post-test design enables researchers to observe the exact amount of change in the dependent variable (if any) as a result of treatment. This said, it may also defeat the purpose of the experiment by sensitizing the respondent in unanticipated ways and affecting the way he or she attends and responds to treatment (Wimmer and Dominick, 2011; Sparks, 2012). For instance, a pre-test perceived risk measurement may cue respondents to the specific goal of a media stimulus he or she is exposed to. For this reason, it is not uncommon for a researcher to employ post-test only with an assumption that a random assignment to treatments results in equivalent groups (Lecheler and De Vreese, 2010; Maoz, 2012).

Other variations include factorial designs which, as opposed to the designs discussed above, allow researchers to study the effects of more than one independent variable within the same study (Gunter, 2000). The simplest type of factorial design is the 2 x 2, that is, two independent variables with two levels each. For instance, researchers may study: the source of media stimulus (TV or Mobile phone) and the time of exposure (5 or 10 minutes). Such designs enable researchers to study both the separate effects of independent variables, as well as the way they might interact with

each other. While manipulations of more than one independent variable (e.g. 3 x 3) are not rare in media studies (e.g. Woods, 2011; Allen Gershon, 2012; DeLung et al., 2012), they are associated with much larger samples to ensure that each treatment is applied to a sufficient number of participants.

The designs discussed above have been developed and were mostly carried out in laboratory settings. A number of media effects studies have successfully adopted this approach to the experimental method (e.g. Jackson, 2009; Matthews, 2012). Laboratory experiments mean that participants are invited to a central location, typically an academic institution, where they are exposed to the experimental stimulus. While this ensures control of the process and precision of the measurement, the laboratory approach has been criticised for the artificiality of the environment in which the participants are placed to interact with media material (Silvermann, 1977; Babbie, 1989; cited by Webster and Sell, 2005). Specifically, concerns have been raised over the extent to which results obtained in such settings can be generalised to non-laboratory settings. A second and related issue concerns the use of convenience samples, mostly comprised of students, which are often used in laboratory settings (Preiss et al., 2007). Due to large costs and logistical difficulties using students is the only way to conduct many experiments. The risk is that their demographics and psychographics are usually quite dissimilar to the population at large.

Dissatisfied with the artificial character of laboratory experiments and the implications of this for the validity of findings, researchers began to manipulate media variables of interest in more natural surroundings (Green et al., 2014). The major advantage of field experiments is that they combine internal validity of randomisation with the external validity afforded by the real-world settings in which the subjects are exposed to stimulus material (Gerber, 2011). Wimmer and Dominick (2011) further note that because of the natural settings, subjects provide a truer picture of their normal behaviour. Although field experiments address the external validity weakness of the laboratory approach, the researcher usually has much less control over the environment which results in less certainty concerning results. Moreover, the costs and logistical challenges involved in conducting them are a large obstacle.

Another category of experimental design is the survey experiment (Brewer and Gross, 2010). According to Morton and Williams (2010, p. 206) "a survey experiment is a type of individual decision-making experiment that might be conducted in the field or via the internet". The main advantage of this method over others is that although the

participants know that they are taking part in a survey, they are not told that other respondents may be receiving different questions or stimuli material (Morton and Williams, 2010). Moreover, the internet offers researchers a relatively inexpensive way of reaching audiences that would otherwise be difficult to obtain with the use of laboratory experiments. These include, for instance, audiences from locations which are geographically dispersed, as opposed to students or members of a local community. Therefore, provided a sample representative of a larger population is available, this type of experiment is a suitable option increasingly employed in framing experiment research (e.g. Sniderman and Theriault, 2004; De Vreese et al., 2010; Borah, 2013).

Another strength of experiments conducted via the internet is that the exposure of participants to stimulus material happens in an environment that is familiar to them (Cappella and Jamieson, 1997). Moreover, the experiment is conducted without the direct presence of the experimenter, which can introduce potential bias in other types of experiments (Gunter, 2000). The biggest drawback of this type of experiment is that, much as in any other self-administered survey techniques, the researcher can never be sure whether the intended person responded. In addition, other aspects of the environment, in which a respondent interacts with the stimulus material, are very difficult to control.

Importantly, while conducted in settings which are familiar to participants, researchers must recognise that there will always be an element of artificiality in the experimental research. As in laboratory experiments, participants are often exposed to a short extract of media material (e.g. a short clip, an article) taken out of context, which largely simplifies the reality of media and audience interaction. The complexities of real life involve many other factors, such as, the relevance of information to one's context, the level of attention, mood and other situational factors. Thus, while aiming to recreate the reality of the situation of interest, one must assume that such conditions can never be obtained.

In consideration of the advantages and weaknesses associated with experimental methods and the different types of design, the survey-based experiment conducted via the internet was adopted for the following reasons.

Firstly, a sample of questionnaire-survey respondents who agreed to participate in a follow-up survey was available. Given that the sample of respondents available to

participate in the experiment was geographically dispersed, conducting laboratory or field experiments would not be feasible.

Secondly, a range of information concerning the demographic and psychographic characteristics of the participants was available from the questionnaire survey. The data was analysed to obtain results concerning the significant relationships between the variables identified in the literature review. Participant characteristics, identified as relevant to the dependent variables of interest (i.e. perceived risk and willingness to travel), were used to match respondents of a similar value of these characteristics, before assigning them to different treatments.

Lastly, while it is difficult to eliminate artificiality associated with experiments, it can be argued that this aspect of the design is improved by the ability of the participants to interact with the stimulus in environments that are familiar to them. In light of the factors considered above, a survey-based experiment was identified as a method capable of achieving objective two of this study.

3.6.3.   Experiment design

The independent variables of interest were manipulated by the researcher to create four treatments, each incorporated into a fictitious news article and presented to each of the four groups of participants (see appendix 3). The particular design employed was a 2 x 2 mixed factorial design (see figure 3.2). This approach enabled the researcher to investigate the influence on dependent variables of two independent variables (factors) with two levels each. i.e. 'Event type' ('Terrorism' or 'PI'), and 'Message framing' ('A - Perceived risk amplifying' or 'B - Perceived risk attenuating')

Figure 3.2 Experiment design

	Levels	**Factor 1** - Risk event type	
		Terrorism	**Political instability (PI)**
Factor 2 - Message framing	**(A) Perceived risk amplifying**	Treatment 1 **Terrorism A**	Treatment 3 **PI A**
	(B) Perceived risk attenuating	Treatment 2 **Terrorism B**	Treatment 4 **PI B**

With respect to factor 1, terrorism and PI have been identified as similar but also distinct phenomena (chapter 2 section 2.4.3). Consequently, different characteristics associated with these events were manipulated and incorporated into fictitious articles hypothesising differences in the magnitude of their influence on dependent variables of interest.

Manipulations of factor 2 were guided by a theoretical assumption that some accounts of risk associated with events of terrorism and PI will have a greater effect on tourists than others. In this sense, factor 2 represents the message framing with two levels i.e. frame intended to amplify perceived risk (A), or frame intended to attenuate perceived risk (frame B). The specificity of the message elements employed within versions A and B, and their expected direction of influence, are explained and justified in the following sections.

The survey placed respondents in a scenario of considering a holiday in a non-specific country with three types of holiday region. Role playing is a widely adopted method in experimental designs (Petty et al. 1991, cited by Jun and Vogt, 2013). The reason for the de-contextualised scenario was to exclude the influence of the potentially confounding effects of respondents' attitudes and feelings towards the country on dependent variables. This was undoubtedly an oversimplification of the process as, in reality, risk judgments and the willingness to travel are considered in a specific context, and are very much context sensitive. Nonetheless, controlling for these factors was necessary for the investigation of the effects of news report framing on dependent variables within the complex context of TDM.

No control group was used in the experiment. The reason for this decision was related to the non-specific country context employed in the scenario, which meant that apart from a short description of the country at the beginning of the survey, participants had no information about it. In this context, creating a control group would not be feasible as any 'neutral' article would potentially influence participants' responses. Alternatively, not exposing participants to any reading material would create meaningless responses to dependent variables. Therefore, each of the four treatments acted as a control group for the other three treatments, as it manipulated message elements that the other treatments did not.

3.6.3.1. Independent variables – fictitious articles

The fictitious articles were designed in a fashion which holds the factual base of events constant while manipulating aspects of risk, which are predicted to have an effect on dependent variables. The choice of the factual basis of the articles was based on consideration of the specific context in which the interaction between news texts and audiences is set out. As argued in the literature review section, holiday choices are exceptionally risky. Tourists often make decisions with regard to unfamiliar countries, buy services they are unable to pre-test, and face multiple issues that may affect the final experience. Hence, unsurprisingly, their tolerance for risk is often very low.

Against this background, it is argued that tourists are most likely to negotiate how much risk they are willing to accept when their involvement is high i.e. when they are highly motivated to visit a particular place. This motivation may be because of benefits that can't be substituted, and/or they have something to lose, i.e. time or money. Because recreating such conditions is very difficult in a hypothetical scenario, the factual basis of the scenario selected for the experiment needed to be designed in a way which would maximise the negotiation of acceptability of risk. In other words, the events reported needed to be 'mild' enough for respondents to elaborate on their perceived risk and willingness to travel, yet 'threatening' enough to produce an effect. For this reason, the factual basis for events of terrorism and PI was the standard commentary from the FCO of "no advice against travel to the country". Furthermore, the pair of articles about terrorism employed the tourism specific commentary of "no downturn of tourists to the country due to terrorism", and in pair about PI, information on the "limited impact of the events on the transport network".

The following sections focus on the message elements employed in the fictitious articles 'A' and 'B' about events of terrorism and PI that were tested in the experiment. The articles were designed to produce a composite effect i.e. the message elements employed in versions 'A' and 'B' are expected to produce a combined influence on the dependent variables. This was based on the assumption that although both events generally refer to a physical risk, there are many differences between them and the ways in which they may affect people in their risk judgments (see tables 3.4 and 3.5). For this reason, different sets of message elements are employed in describing the magnitude of risk (A and B) involved in the events. What needs to be noted is that the message elements selected are not an exhaustive list of risk indicators that may be used in

reporting on terrorism and PI. Rather, they are a set of potential elements of news reports that may influence the level of audiences' perceived risk associated with visiting an affected area. The message elements were selected on the basis of existing theories, and with consideration of the specific context of holiday choices employed to investigate the potential effect on dependent variables.

3.6.3.2. Terrorism article versions A and B

Table 3.4 Message elements used in constructing the articles about a terrorist attack

Dimension of terrorism risk	Scenario A Perceived risk amplifying	Scenario B Perceived risk attenuating
1) Targets of attack	• "Including British tourists"	• "Mainly police officers" • "Security Forces"
2) Suspected Perpetrators	• "al-Qaeda and associated radical Islamic groups"	• "Domestic rebel separatist group"
3) Location of explosion and threat of further attacks	• "Police vehicles parked in city square situated on the edge of a district full of restaurants, cafes and shops" • "City centre locations" • *Security* "Airports, train station and markets" • "Further indiscriminate attacks in areas popular with tourists cannot be ruled out"	• "Police vehicles parked in city square" • *Security* "Across the country"
4) VoxPopuli- Event atmosphere and confidence level	• "I have never seen anything like this and I cannot believe it happened right here. Now people will not have peace of mind"	• "Yes it was a terrorist attack but we refuse to be terrorised. Life here goes on as usual".

1) Targets of attack

Man-made disasters are particularly intimidating to audiences due to their intentional and malicious nature. However, the extent to which they receive media attention and affect audiences, among other factors, also possibly depends upon who the

violence, or its threat, is directed at. In other words, it isn't only about the 'body counts' but also about 'whose body counts' (Kitzinger, 2009b). This mechanism is also discussed by Irwin et al. (1998), who argue that the extent to which someone is at risk has a bearing on risk perceptions. In the context of tourism and crisis events such as terrorism or PI, it is argued that people would be expected to show more concern over the prospect of an attack, if they believe to be personally at risk due to characteristics such as their nationality, lifestyle, religion etc. Such beliefs may be promoted or reinforced when people are exposed to media coverage of events which are particularly relevant to them. For instance, attacks which involve victims of a group they identify with e.g. British tourists, backpackers etc., as opposed to 'other people' such as foreign military units or government targets. Facts indicate that tourists were wounded or killed in numerous international attacks in destinations such as Egypt, Turkey, Bali, Morocco, India etc. However, while certain events may share a factual basis of tourists victimised, the extent to which the news coverage emphasises a particular way of interpreting this information may vary. Following this logic, it is expected that the emphasis on victimised "British tourists" in version A, along with other message elements of this article version, will result in higher judgments of perceived risk, as opposed to "police officers" and "security forces" in version B.

2) Suspected perpetrators

Another fundamental element of news, which people are hypothesised to take into account when interpreting the risk of terrorism, is the information concerning the perpetrators. According to Iyengar (1991), attribution of responsibility is one of the most basic heuristics people employ to make sense of an issue or event. After years of coverage of terrorist events worldwide, tourists would be expected to have compiled a deep pool of cognitive and affective associations to the main perpetrators as well as consequences of their actions. In this sense, the attribution of responsibility to a specific group may activate a schematic representation concerning, for instance, typical tactics, why acts are carried out, or other memorable events and the magnitude of threat.

In terms of specific perpetrators, it is not uncommon for the media to frame the contemporary threat of terrorism in Britain, as well as globally, as a problem of Islamic extremism (Alouche and Lind, 2010). Examples include several high profile events of 'new' terrorism such as Bali (2002, 2005), London (2005), or Madrid (2004), where responsibility has been attributed to, or claimed by, al-Qaeda and associated Islamist

networks. Of the different types of religiously-motivated terrorism, Islamist, or Jihadi, is often commented to be the most threatening to Western values, interests and society (Bakker, 2006; Martin, 2009). Moreover, according to Pape (2005, cited by Woods, 2011), terrorism framed as motivated by religious extremism, may appear irrational, beyond compromise, and uncontrollable. As a consequence, as postulated by the psychometric risk paradigm (Fischhoff et al., 1978), a lack of control in association with a hazard may lead to higher levels of perceived risk.

The connection between Islam, mass violence and extremism, has become particularly prominent in the minds of people in Britain, as well as much of the western world, in the years following 9/11 (Nacos and Torres-Reyna, 2003; Sobolewska, 2010). As such, it may be a particularly powerful cue, leading to a range of stereotypical negative social judgments.

Some evidence of these attitudes in society is demonstrated by recent social attitude surveys. For instance, a survey by Pew Research Center revealed that 70% of Britons were concerned about 'Islamic Extremism' and 61% assigned negative traits to Muslims. Specifically, 43% described them as 'fanatical', and 32% as 'violent'. Moreover, 52% of British adults assessed relations between Muslims around the world and westerners as being 'generally bad' (PRC, 2011). Another survey, by YouGov, revealed that 58% of those questioned associate 'Islam' with 'Extremism', and 50% associate 'Islam' with 'Terrorism' (BBC, 2010). When asked about the source of information about Islam 57% reported 'TV News' and 41% 'Newspapers'. These results point towards a larger trend of tension between the 'Islamic world' and the (non-Islamic) 'Western world', which is partly due to the impact of terrorist attacks (Pettigrew, 2003; Skitka et al., 2004). Importantly, this indicates a possibility that any reference to al-Qaeda or Islamic extremism in reporting on a terrorist attack, may activate a range of interconnected ideas and feelings which indicate a particularly dangerous type of situation.

Therefore, respondents would be expected to react differently to information about a terrorist attack depending on who is the suggested perpetrator. In comparison with "al-Qaeda and associated radical Islamic groups" in version A, rather than opting for excluding any mention of a specific group in version B, the study focused on a Non-Islamic type of perpetrator i.e. a separatist-nationalist group. The most prominent organisations of this type that Europe has been confronted with are the Basque Fatherland and Freedom (ETA) and Irish Republican Army (IRA). While there are no

strong theoretical bases for an assumption that such groups would appear less threatening to people, it is possible that the connection between violence and civilian victims (or western victims) in this case is less prominent in peoples' minds. It could be argued that despite targeting civilians and the tourism industry in the past, the main targets of the separatist movements above, as compared with Islamic groups, include government officials and military units. A search on the Global Terrorism Database (GTD) (START, 2012) of incidents between 1980-2011 carried out by the IRA and ETA on non-civilian targets (i.e. Police, Military, Government, Utilities) produced 1825 instances, compared to 391 attacks against civilians (including tourists). Following this logic, the study is designed in a way as to suggest the linkage between "domestic rebel separatist group" and security forces in version B of the article. Beyond this, the differences in perception may exist mainly on a basis of beliefs as to why the attacks are carried out. That is, reflecting a portrayal of Islamist terrorism as an extreme expression of otherness and intolerance to the western way of life e.g. the freedoms and wealth displayed by tourists.

3) Location of explosion and threat of further attacks

Information concerning the location of a terrorist attack and areas considered at threat was used as another indicator of risk which people may consider when making their judgments concerning its acceptability. It is only logical to expect that an attack on a police station situated on the outskirts of a city may have a different effect to one carried out in a restaurant popular with westerners or a paradise island resort. In this context, the location of an attack may be indicative of motives and tactics that lead to certain conclusions e.g. 'designed to cause maximum harm', 'targeting tourists' etc. While the location of an incident, such as a bomb explosion, is a hard fact, the information itself can be presented in various ways. For instance, by placing emphasis on the proximity of the attack to other locations e.g. restaurants, banks etc., the report can suggest which interests may be particularly at risk. Thus, in testing the effects of the location of an attack on receivers' perceived risk, the first location frame employed in version A has an emphasis on the proximity of the explosion to an area "full of restaurants, cafes, and shops", as compared to a more vague location such as a "city square" in version B.

Secondly, it is argued that while a heavy presence of security forces probably increases the safety of an area as opposed to no security, it may also sensitise people to

specific areas considered at risk and its magnitude. Following this logic, in specifying locations with a heavy presence of security forces, a report may suggest to receivers which areas are likely to be subject to further attacks, and hence, should be avoided. Specifically, the second frame employed has an emphasis on key tourism infrastructure i.e. "airports, train stations and markets" in version A, as opposed to a generic statement on tighter security "across the country" in version B.

The previous frames are employed in a way as to make links between specific tourism relevant locations and the possibility of an attack, hence greater risk to civilians or tourists specifically. Rather than suggesting links covertly, the last frame employed in version A overtly places emphasis on the possibility of "further indiscriminate attacks in areas popular with tourists", as opposed to an absence of the frame.

In this sense, all three location frames are employed to reinforce each other in suggesting a certain way of interpreting a piece of news and producing higher perceived risk ratings in a combined manner.

4) **Vox Populi - Event atmosphere and confidence level**

An assessment of the post-incident atmosphere and information on the extent to which people are affected by a particular risk event was used as another indicator of riskiness involved in visiting a certain destination. Apart from official risk assessment communication i.e. from the Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO), news reports often employ commentary from the general public (vox populi), or, the 'vox pops'. As such, vox pops (or any news sources) can be used to frame an issue or event by supplying background information or story suggestions (e.g. Matthews, 2010). The effects of news sources are beyond the scope of this study, and the focus in the current design is on what is being communicated to the audiences i.e. lay-public accounts of what happened. To minimise the effect of a specific news source, e.g. a name indicating cultural background, or a profession, an anonymous member of the local public was used. Quoting unnamed sources is a common practice occurring within news (e.g. Stenvall, 2008; Wilson, 2010). Drawing on the findings of the psychometric tradition of perceived risk, one of the qualitative dimensions of risk is its newness/familiarity. That is, dangers perceived as new tend to be judged as riskier than ones perceived as old. In this sense, a news report may place different levels of emphasis on this aspect of an incident via, for instance, quoting reactions of the public. Following this logic, the current design uses two frames of 'newness' and 'familiarity'. The former is employed

in version A and emphasises the novelty of the problem as perceived by the local public, and its negative consequences on individuals' confidence in response to the event. The latter, used in version B, presents the information from a balanced point of view with an emphasis on the habituation of the members of the public with the problem and their resilience to the issue. As such the frames represent two distinct ways of reacting to terrorism i.e. aversion and tolerance/resilience which may suggest to readers which course of action is most suitable.

3.6.3.3. Political instability article versions A and B

Table 3.5 Message elements used in constructing the articles about an event of political instability

Dimensions of PI risk	Scenario A	Scenario B
	Perceived risk amplifying	Perceived risk attenuating
1) Violence	• "Violent clashes" • "Violent protests"	• "Clashes" • "Protests"
2) Commentary on degree of socio-political tensions Vox Populi commentary on socio-political tension and consequences (confidence)	• "Threatening atmosphere of high tension" • "I have never seen anything like this, it was complete chaos. We all feel nervous because the problem will not just go away overnight"	• "Isolated acts of frustration" • "It was loud at the square but outside life went on as usual. I do not think there will much trouble, people are just venting anger"
3) Geographical spread and consequences	• "There is a possibility that further violent protests could spread" • "which would likely have serious consequences for public safety and order"	• "Any further protests are likely to be confined to city squares" • *Outside* "predicted to remain calm and not affected in any way"
4) Disruptions to transport network	• "in the event of conflict escalation, delays and cancellations cannot be ruled out"	Absence

1) Violence

As discussed in the literature review, political instability refers to a situation where a political system is unable to meet the demands of forces which challenge its governance and change is sought through the use of non-legitimate actions such as protests, violence or civil war. While change may be sought peacefully (Scarborough, 1998), PI is often associated with violence used in accomplishing political goals (Neumeyer, 2004). Because of the strong emotional charge and associated vivid imagery, events which contain an element of violence receive attention in the media and are particularly engaging for the audiences. Apart from generating attention, such events often evoke feelings of dread, anxiety and perceived risk disproportional to the actual probability of harm (Sunstein, 2002). With regard to the media coverage of demonstrations, riots, and protests, it is not uncommon for news reports to employ graphic descriptions of conflict, and to emphasise violence and drama over, for instance, social injustice. To demonstrate this, Cottle (2012) notes that many of the British daily newspapers (Daily Star, The Sun, Daily Express, Daily Mail, The Guardian, The Independent) used the same violent image to depict the outbreak of London riots in 2011. Therefore, it is argued that apart from providing facts, a news report, through an emphasis on the vivid aspects of a story, may promote a particular way of interpreting an event, from which conclusions can be drawn regarding the risk involved in visiting the area concerned. Specifically, in describing the nature of the confrontations, the word "violent" is employed in version A of the article, expecting to add to the concern of the audience, as opposed to its absence in version B.

2) Degree of socio-political tensions

Similarly to an event of terrorism, in the case of PI, the commentary concerning the atmosphere surrounding the event and the extent to which it affects those concerned, was used as an indicator of risk involved in visiting a destination.

According to Siermann (1998) the common thread to different expressions of PI, such as protests, strikes, riots etc., is the presence of socio-political tensions. As argued in the literature review section, judging the potential of such events for escalation, from the tourists' point of view, is very difficult. In this sense, an emphasis on the extent of social grievances, an intimidating atmosphere or widespread anxiety, at the expense of other information, may indicate the magnitude of the issue, likely developments and the potential for negative consequences. Following this logic, it is proposed that one way in

which a report may promote such an interpretation of an event, is by portraying the event as being characterised by a "threatening atmosphere of high tension" versus "isolated acts". As such, the degree of social tension pertains to the extent of conflict, likely developments, and the level of control and ability to avoid the potential problems a tourist may have in an affected destination.

Moreover, as in the case of terrorism, it is common for reports on PI to employ vox pops to portray the reality of the event, as it is experienced by the people affected. This provides potential tourists with a 'pre-taste' of the situation and cues on which to draw conclusions. Therefore, in congruence with the discussion above, a report may cite individuals who view the event in a fashion that promotes a certain way of interpreting the issue. Specifically, in keeping with the above employed design, it would be expected that in version 'A' of the article, higher ratings of perceived risk would be induced by placing an emphasis on the large extent of social tension, as evidenced by 'complete chaos' on a previously unseen scale, and its negative consequences on the confidence of the local public. Conversely, in version B of the article, it would be expected that an emphasis on the 'loud' but limited extent of unrest and social tension would result in relative calm and confidence among members of the public. Again, these aspects of the story pertain to the extent of control an individual may have in avoiding the negative consequences of an event.

3) Geographical spread and consequences

In a similar vein to the articles concerning a terrorist attack, information on the locations considered at threat of unrest, was used as another indicator of PI risk. Specifically, it is argued that in the context of tourism, the geographical spread of events is particularly important. While extreme events such as civil or international wars affect large areas, many smaller scale events of PI are bounded areas such as a particular city, or even an area within it e.g. city squares etc. Despite limited geographical spread, tourists tend to paint risky areas with a broad brush (Santana, 2001) attributing salient aspects of an event, such as violence and drama, to neighbouring countries, regions etc. In consequence, virtually unaffected areas may be perceived as being in a state of civil disorder, unlawful and unsafe conditions. In this sense, it is proposed that reports may place varying levels of emphasis on the geographical spread of unrest. In the context of this design, it is predicted that in version 'A' of the article, higher ratings of risk would be produced by an emphasis on the possibility of unrest spreading to areas across the

country and its "serious consequences for public safety and order". Conversely, in version 'B', emphasis placed on a prediction of events to remain "contained to city squares" and other areas to remain "calm and not affected" is expected to produce lower ratings of risk.

4) Disruptions to the transport network

The last element employed in the pair of fictitious articles concerning PI, is the commentary regarding the transport network within the country. In the tourism context, consumers constrained by time are particularly sensitive to risks of transport disruption e.g. through accidents, weather, or industrial action (Dolnicar, 2007; Simpson and Siguaw, 2008). A prospect of delays, not being able to access tourist attractions, or becoming stranded in a politically unstable country, is enough to discourage most tourists from visiting a destination. In this sense, it is proposed that an emphasis placed on the possibility of transport "delays and cancellations" in version A of the article, would be expected to heighten tourists' perceived risk, as opposed to an absence of such emphasis in version B.

3.6.3.4. Dependent variables

The key dependent variables measured in the survey were perceived risk and willingness to travel.

Willingness to travel: The willingness to travel was measured pre and post participants' exposure to an article treatment. The decision to employ pre and post-test was driven by the need to establish expected base differences in the willingness to travel to different regions within the country. It was decided that employing this tool pre the reading of the article was valid, as information about the benefits of different regions embedded in the survey, provided the respondents with a basis on which to make judgments about their willingness to travel. At the same time this measure did not reveal the purpose of the article. Specifically, participants were asked about their willingness to visit three regions within a country on a 5-point Likert scale: from 1=Would definitely avoid, to 5=Would definitely visit. Each of the regions i.e. cultural (city), adventure (rural), and beach (coastal resort), included a short description of typical benefits associated with a holiday in such locations.

In addition to close-ended questions, an open-ended format was used post exposure to the article. Participants were asked to provide a short explanation of their decision concerning their willingness to travel to each of the regions. These questions were employed to examine whether the message elements, emphasised in the articles read by the participants, appeared in their explanations of decisions made. A number of studies of media framing effects employ both question formats to enhance the ability to explain quantitative results (Brewer and Gross, 2010; Lecheler and De Vreese, 2010).

Perceived risk: Perceived risk was measured only post participants' exposure to the article treatment on a 5-point Likert scale: from 1=Very Worried, to 5=Not at all worried. No pre-test of perceived risk was taken due to a concern over sensitising the participants to the objective of the experiment. Moreover, seeing as the country context was non-specific i.e. respondents had no perceptions of risk present at the country (or other feelings and attitudes which may have influenced the judgment), one measure was sufficient to observe the impact of the article. As in the case of the willingness to travel variable, the question concerning perceived risk was also asked in the open-ended format to support quantitative findings with qualitative data.

3.6.4. Sampling approach and administration

The sample of the experiment participants was obtained from the first questionnaire-survey. A total of 160 respondents (N=160), 34% of all asked, expressed an interest in participating in a follow-up study by providing an e-mail address. An e-mail campaign was sent to the respondents (see appendix 4) using the e-mail merging tool MailChimp. The software offers researchers a cost-free and time-efficient way to contact large groups of respondents while ensuring respondent confidentiality. After the initial campaign, 7 e-mails were returned as non-deliverable and identified by MailChimp as non-existing. This was potentially due to an input error made by the participants when providing the e-mail address or the e-mail accounts had been terminated by the participants. The final number of confirmed e-mail deliveries was reduced to 153 (N=153).

Based on the findings of the questionnaire, the participants were matched with respect to their psychographic (allocentric-psychocentric types) and demographic (age and gender) characteristics. As discussed before, this procedure was carried out to control for characteristics which were relevant to the dependent variables of interest.

Due to the uneven number of deliverable addresses, the final groups consisted of three groups of 39 participants (N=39), and one of 38 participants (N=38).

During the data analysis period, one more e-mail was sent to the respondents to update them on developments and to minimise losing participants. The final surveys were sent out to the four groups of participants via an e-mail which contained a link to the online survey (see appendix 5). Each of the groups was assigned a separate link, with additional identification numbers assigned to each of the participants. This procedure enabled the researcher to link responses to other data obtained from the questionnaire and significantly reduce the length of the survey.

3.6.5. Experiment data analysis

As in the case of the questionnaire survey, the relationships between the variables of interest were analysed with the use of SPSS. Similarly, the following non-parametric tests were used to analyse the relationships between the variables of interest:

- Mann Whitney U-test
- Kruskall-Wallis test

In addition, one parametric test (mixed model ANOVA) was used to examine whether the differences in the willingness to travel pre and post exposure to the article, could be attributed to the article content. While the nature of the data suggests non-parametric tests should be used, no non-parametric tests were available to assist the researcher with analysis of the relationship. In this case, it was decided that tests would be performed to obtain an indication of any interesting patterns in the data, while assuming that the results would need to be treated with a critical eye.

3.7. Interviews

To expand on the quantitative findings of the first stages of data collection, semi-structured interviews were held with participants from those first stages (RQ's 12- 14 see table 3.2). In particular, the interviews sought to obtain a deeper understanding of the results of the statistical tests concerning the relationship between the key independent variables, which were manipulated in the fictitious articles, and the dependent variables. Because each of the article treatments consist of a number of message elements, the statistical tests employed could only determine whether there were differences in the dependent variables between the readers of the four different

article treatments. In other words, it was unknown which particular element(s), within the articles read by respondents (e.g. perpetrators, violence etc.), influenced their responses. For this reason, the interviews were used to understand which elements of the articles were noticed by the respondents (RQ12), and whether the conclusions reached by the interviewees, in response to this content, were made in the direction hypothesised by the researcher (RQ13).

In addition, the interview sought to address objective 3. Specifically, given the complexity of experiential tourism products, it was decided that purely quantitative methods were insufficient to capture the trade-off between perceived risk and holiday benefits sought. In seeking to understand the role of holiday benefits in the context of risk (RQ14), the interviews also focused on the thoughts and feelings of tourists associated with their preferred holidays.

To address the following questions, the interview followed the layout of the experiment survey. Prior to the interview, the participants were asked to re-read the article they were exposed to in the experiment, and the short descriptions of the three regions within the country introduced in the scenario. The interviews commenced with the researcher briefly explaining the purpose of the interview and ethical issues. Subsequently, the participants were asked questions in reference to answers they provided in the experiment survey concerning dependent variables. These were divided into the following three parts:

1. Article use – the participants were asked to explain whether after reading of the article there was any particular part of the text that helped them in making a judgment of risk, associated with visiting the country described in the article. The responses to this question were then coded for any reference by the respondents to the elements emphasised in the fictitious news articles they read.

2. Willingness to travel – the participants were asked to explain their judgments of willingness to travel to each of the three regions after exposure to the article.

3. Holiday preferences – using the same eight dimensions of allocentric-psychocentric personality type as used in the questionnaire survey, the participants were asked about their holiday preferences. This section included questions such as "When on holiday do you enjoy spending time in tourist popular areas e.g. shopping, theme parks, famous heritage sites?" These

questions sought to understand whether the benefits associated with different types of destination play any role in the way people respond to fictitious articles.

3.7.1. Sample and interview procedures

The sample of participants for the interviews was identified from the list of individuals who responded to the experiment survey. In consideration of patterns in the data concerning psychographic profiles, perceived risk and willingness to travel, the researcher set a target group of 12 interviewees to be recruited for the interviews. The specific quota consisted of three tourist types (i.e. allocentric, midcentric, psychocentric) per each of the four article treatment groups (i.e. Terrorism A, Terrorism B, PIA, PIB).

The database available from data analyses performed in the early phases of the research served as a basis for contacting the potential participants. Subsequently, e-mails were sent to participants in each of the three target groups (N=124), including the participant information sheet explaining the details of the study (see appendix 6 and 7). Initial e-mails resulted in 5 respondents agreeing to participate in the interviews. Following this, two reminders were sent a week and two weeks after the initial contact point, resulting in the target of 12 participants being met.

The interviews were conducted over the telephone, each lasting approximately 20 minutes. Telephone interviews were selected for the same reasons as in the case of survey-based experiments i.e. due to the costs and time involved in arranging face-to-face interviews with a geographically-dispersed sample. Skype video calls were also offered to the participants as an alternative to telephone calls, however, only one person preferred this form of contact over the telephone. With the permission of the participants, interviews were recorded for later transcription, and transcribed using the NVivo package.

3.7.2. Interview data analysis

The analysis of data obtained from the semi-structured interviews was performed with the use of NVivo software. NVivo is software that supports qualitative and mixed-methods research in the organisation, analysis and reporting of interviews, focus groups, audio and social media data (QSR, 2013).

Thematic analysis was selected as the method to be used for the analysis of the qualitative data obtained from the semi-structured interviews. The themes within the data were identified primarily with a theoretical, or top down approach; that is, one that is driven by the researcher's particular theoretical interest and research question (Braun and Clarke, 2006), in this case, the media framing theory, and research questions 12 to 14.

This choice had implications for how the coding was performed. It meant coding data in a deductive logic to fit into the pre-existing themes and researcher's analytic preconceptions (i.e. the message elements manipulated in the news articles and dimensions of the allo/psychocentrics tourist personality inventory).

Importantly, part of the analysis was also inductive, in that the analysis was open to identifying themes that moved beyond pre-existing themes, or the researcher's theoretical interest in the topic. The following paragraphs set out the phases of analysis which underpinned the analysis of the interviews.

Phase 1 – This phase began with assigning relevant features in the data to pre-defined themes (i.e. the message elements embedded in the news articles, and the dimensions of the allo/psychocentric tourist personality inventory). These themes were theory driven and have been defined in the previous data collection stages of the project (see section 3.6.3.1). This phase also included broad participant-driven (inductive), open coding used to deconstruct the data into new general themes, for instance, ideas about risk and specific events that go beyond the elements emphasised in the fictitious news articles. These new themes were assigned clear labels and definitions, to serve as rules for the inclusion of units of meaning which were coded from the transcripts.

Phase 2 – This phase began with reviewing the process of assigning coded extracts to pre-defined themes. This phase also included re-ordering the new themes identified and coded in phase 1, into categories of themes, by grouping related themes under these categories and organising them into a framework that made sense for further analysis of the data.

Phase 3 - This phase involved further refining of the themes, and generated a final framework of analysis for reporting purposes. This was represented in the form of 12 mind maps, each depicting the detailed process of interaction between a news article and the member of the audience. The mind maps were created on the basis of the model

of a cognitive frame proposed by Scheufele and Scheufele (2010) (explained in section 5.1.2). The data was related to the demo/psychographic profiles established in the questionnaire data, to consider any patterns that may exist and enrich the story which analysis tells.

Phase 4 – This final phase focused on producing the final report of analysis. Each of the mind maps generated in phase 3 were presented and supported with vivid, compelling extract examples, which were related back to the findings of the questionnaire and experiment, and to the literature and research questions. Finally, the analysis looked at the commonalities among the cases discussed to produce a synthesised account of the potential outcomes of the interaction between the news articles and the audience, and cognitive mechanisms which play a key role in this process.

Chapter 4: Questionnaire survey and survey-experiment findings

This chapter presents the findings obtained from the quantitative strand of the research, which included a questionnaire survey and a survey-embedded experiment. This is done by presenting first of all the data analyses and main findings from the questionnaire survey and their implications for the survey-embedded experiment. Subsequently, the findings of the survey-embedded experiment are presented and discussed.

The questionnaire section has been divided into two parts i.e. 1) the respondents' profiles and 2) the analysis of the relationships between the variables studied. Part 1 includes descriptive analyses of the data concerning tourists' risk perceptions and willingness to travel, as well as the range of the respondents' demographic and psychographic characteristics. These data were then used in part 2 to determine the factors that influence destination risk perception and the willingness to travel (Objective 1). This part is presented in a way that addresses each of the 4 research questions presented in the methodology chapter (Table 3.2). Before proceeding with a presentation of the analyses and findings, the 6 research questions are re-stated in the introduction to part 2.

The results of the questionnaire survey served as a screening tool to identify personal characteristics that determine perceived risk, and a means to provide a sample for the experimental part of the quantitative strand of research. This enabled the researcher to control for relevant tourist characteristics in examining causal links between representations of hazards (news articles of terrorism and PI) and tourists' perceived risk and willingness to travel.

4.1. Questionnaire – respondents' profiles

4.1.1. Background to questionnaire and demographic profile

A total of 475 questionnaires were returned including 18 non-leisure tourists and 13 unusable (blank or half-filled) responses, which were excluded from further analyses. The demographic profile of the retained sample of 444 (response rate 14.8%) as well as the profile for each of the three questionnaire versions is presented in table 4.1. The questionnaire was completed by 195 male (44.0%) and 248 female respondents (56.0%). The ages ranged from 18 to 65 years old and over, with '65 years and over'

being the largest age category (24.6%), followed by '45 to 54' (20.7%), and '55 to 64' (19.4%). With the exception of the '65 and over' age group, these data reflect the UK population of outbound holidaymakers measured between 2005 and 2009 (ONS, 2011). The overrepresentation of the '65 and over' age group by 13.4% in comparison to ONS data, may be explained by the amount of spare time the respondents had available in comparison to the younger and slightly underrepresented age groups i.e. '18-24' (5.70%), and '25-34' (3.5%). In terms of international pleasure travel patterns, the majority (45.3%) had travelled between 1 and 3 times in the time period. Moreover, 46% of the tourists reported that they usually travel with their partner/spouse, followed by 30.7% of the tourists who mostly travel with their family. Finally, nearly 98.2% had previously visited Europe, compared with the smaller percentages of tourists who had previously visited Africa (39.7%) and the Middle East (25.3%).

Table 4.1 Demographic profile of respondents

	Egypt (N=146)		India (N=153)		Turkey (N=145)		Total (N=444)	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Age band								
18-24	3	2.1	9	5.9	6	4.2	18	4.06
25-34	23	15.8	25	16.3	28	19.4	76	17.1
35-44	16	11.0	22	14.4	24	16.7	62	13.9
45-54	31	21.2	34	22.2	27	18.8	92	20.7
55-64	30	20.5	31	20.3	25	17.4	86	19.4
64 +	43	29.5	32	20.9	34	23.6	109	24.6
Gender								
Male	65	44.5	65	42.5	65	45.1	195	44
Female	81	55.5	88	57.5	79	54.9	248	56
Number of international trips in the past 3 years								
None	21	14.4	19	12.3	19	13.1	59	13.3
Between 1 and 3	68	46.6	73	47.7	61	42.1	201	45.3
Between 4 and 6	33	22.6	48	31.4	40	27.6	121	27.3
7 and more	24	16.4	13	8.6	25	17.2	62	14.1
Travel group composition								
On their own	8	5.5	11	7.2	7	4.9	26	5.9
With friend(s)	30	20.5	28	18.3	19	13.2	77	17.4
With partner / spouse	67	45.9	69	45.1	68	47.2	204	46.0
With family (incl. children under 18 years of age)	41	28.1	45	29.4	50	34.7	136	30.7
Regions visited								
Africa	58	39.7	53	34.6	51	35.4	162	36.6
Americas	80	54.8	94	61.4	92	63.9	266	60.0
Asia and the Pacific	54	37.0	58	37.9	61	42.4	173	39.1
Europe	143	97.9	151	98.7	141	97.9	435	98.2
Middle East	37	25.3	39	25.5	45	31.3	121	27.3

4.1.2. Psychographic profile

Information on the respondents' traits was obtained from the results of two psychographic scales i.e. allocentrism and sensation seeking (SS). Before proceeding with the analyses, a number of statistical procedures were employed to examine the reliability of the instruments used. Starting with the SS scale, a Cronbach's alpha procedure was used with a satisfactory result of r=.773. Subsequently, a correlation matrix was built to determine if each of the scale items correlated with the total score (item-total) of the scale. Items included in the SS scale had values above .4, which according to Field (2009) indicates a satisfactory internal consistency of a scale.

Table 4.2 Sensation seeking scale results

Sensation seeking scale (N=444)	Mean	SD	Corrected item-total corr.
Experience seeking			
I would like to take off on a trip with no pre-planned routes or timetables	2.75	1.38	.458
Boredom Susceptibility			
I get restless when I spend too much time at home	2.87	1.17	.449
Thrill and Adventure Seeking			
I would like to try an exciting sport	2.46	1.38	.608
Disinhibition			
I would love to have new and exciting experiences, even if they are illegal	1.83	1.04	.633
Scale total	2.47	.96	.773 [a]

[a] Cronbach's Alpha

This scale used a five-point Likert format from 'strongly disagree' through to 'strongly agree' for responses. Next, the mean scores on the SS sub-scales were computed for an overall SS score. The result (2.47) indicates a slight bias towards low SS among the participants (see Table 4.2). One reason for this result may be the age of the respondents. Given that traits such as SS, in general, are more characteristic of younger people (Zuckerman, 1983a; Gibson, 1996), older respondents would be expected to score lower on the scale. Consistent with the findings of Eachus (2004), the results of a Kruskal-Wallis test confirmed statistically significant differences in SS between the age groups (chi-square= 25.265, df=5, p=.000). However, because the test does not signify where the differences lay, a post-hoc analysis with Mann-Whitney tests and Bonferroni correction were applied to follow-up on this finding. The Bonferroni adjustment was made by dividing the 0.05 value of significance by the number of comparisons to be conducted (three tests), which resulted in a significance level

set at p < 0.0167. The results revealed that the 25-34 age group scored significantly higher on the SS scale than the 64+ (U=153.500, z=-4.611), 55-64 (U=206.000, z=-2.507), and 45-54 (U=188.000, z=-2.835) age groups. Seeing as these three age groups constitute the majority of the sample (nearly 65%), their impact on the SS score provides a reasonable explanation of the lower overall SS score.

To distinguish between low sensation seekers and high sensation seekers a cutoff point has been set at the neutral score of 3 (low sensation seekers <3 and high sensation seekers >3). The results of this commonly employed procedure (e.g. Eachus, 2004; Sharifpour et al. 2013) are presented in table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Low and high sensation seekers

Sensation seeking	Low SS N=303	High SS N=108
	Mean	
Experience seeking		
I would like to take off on a trip with no pre-planned routes or timetables	2.17	4.04
Boredom Susceptibility		
I get restless when I spend too much time at home	2.49	3.87
Thrill and Adventure Seeking		
I would like to try an exciting sport	1.84	4.04
Disinhibition		
I would love to have new and exciting experiences, even if they are illegal	1.33	2.97

Subsequently, the analysis focused on the reliability of the allocentric/psychocentric scale. Firstly, seeing as some items in the scale were negatively worded (see table 4.4) to avoid an acquiescence bias and mindless answering (DeVellis, 2003), the scores needed to be reversed to obtain meaningful overall scores of the scale. This was executed following the procedure employed by Jackson (2006) in measuring allocentrism. This meant that scores approximating '1' were indicating a psychocentric tourist type, scores approximating '3' a midcentric type, and scores close to '5' an allocentric type. Secondly, a correlation matrix was built to examine whether the items were inter-linked. Having reversed the scores i.e. coded the scores for allocentrism, it was expected that the items would be correlated. This was confirmed with the results of a Spearman Rank-Order Correlation (RHO) with all items significantly correlated in the expected direction ranging from .209 to .416 (see appendix 8).

Next, an analysis of the psychographic items was completed to determine the capacity of the items for differentiating between individuals. The following criteria were used: mean score approximating the theoretical mean of 3, and a range of responses from 1 to 5. An examination of the items included in the study revealed that, with the exception of items 4 and 6, the criteria for good discriminating power were met. Items 4 and 6 were biased towards the allocentric end of the Likert scale. In particular, allocentric item 4 ('enjoy a sense of discovery') did not attract a full range of scores (i.e. only between 2 and 5) and was heavily skewed with a mean score of 3.98. The reason for consistently higher scores may be due to a social desirability bias (Fisher, 1993), in that item 4 was aimed at capturing the adventurous aspect of the personality, which may be deemed positive and desirable by many respondents. This item was removed from further analyses as it provided a poor basis for differentiation between cases.

With seven items retained, the analysis focused on issues of internal consistency by employing Cronbach's Alpha test, examining whether items correlated with the total score of the scale. The results revealed a satisfactory alpha reliability with a score of .764.

Next, the mean responses on the seven allocentric/psychocentric items served as the basis for cross-trait classification. The analysis aimed at identifying psychographic groups with maximum intra-group homogeneity and inter-group heterogeneity. Unfortunately, as discussed previously when evaluating extant research, few studies, which applied some form of Plog's theory, disclose the method of how the groups were derived. Among these, Jackson and colleagues (1999; 2006) divide their sample into two extreme groups of allocentrics and psychocentrics using a median split on a composite allocentric score. Employing this approach is problematic because, as posited by Plog (1991; 2002), the majority of the population fall between the allocentric and psychocentric types. Thus, by creating two groups, many respondents are classed as one of the extreme ends of the continuum, while conceptually they are neither. As a result, obtaining poorly differentiated groups has implications for the interpretation of their characteristics as well as for further analysis; for instance, differences in preferences or perceived risk between groups. Therefore, in accordance with Plog's theory, this study sought to identify three personality types in order to clearly demonstrate differences between extreme groups on allocentric/psychocentric items and to examine whether these groups differ with respect to dependent variables (e.g. perceived risk and benefits sought). A similar approach to classifying respondents on the basis of psychographic

characteristics is employed by a more recent study by Weaver (2012). Specifically, the author employs a hierarchical cluster analysis, a common technique in tourism segmentation studies (Dolnicar, 2008), to identify three groups of tourists that vary in their degree of allocentrism.

Following this approach, a number of clustering tests have been employed with an end goal of producing well-differentiated allocentric, midcentric and psychocentric groups. Firstly, although a number of clusters were suggested by previous studies and Plog's theory, a hierarchical cluster analysis using Ward's method was employed. Despite exploring a number of solutions, a satisfactory outcome was not identified as the groups produced by hierarchical analysis were not statistically different with respect to all the items. Similar results were obtained by employing a non-hierarchical K-Means approach.

Having failed to produce a satisfactory solution, the analysis focused on an alternative method of splitting the cases with quartiles as cut off points (Altman and Bland, 1994). Employing this method allows the identification of individuals on the basis of extreme scores i.e. top 25%, bottom 25%, and middle 50% of the sample distribution. The extreme groups approach, based on a quartile split, is commonly used when analysis seeks to identify distinct groups of individuals and submit those to further analysis (Preacher et al., 2005). Following this approach, the scores on the seven allocentric/psychocentric items were computed for an overall score. Subsequently, the quartile split of distribution on this score, indicated the cut off points for creating three groups of respondents (see table 4.4). This procedure was carried out on the whole sample, as well as on the separate questionnaire versions to be used in further analyses (see appendix 9).

The groups obtained were consistent with Plog's theory, which suggests that the majority of people can be characterised as midcentric (N=79, 54%), compared to fewer allocentric (N=35, 23.9%) and psychocentric (N=32, 21.9%) types. Importantly, all groups were significantly different from each other on all 7 items. Given that the items were measured on a 5 point Likert scale, the groups, especially the extreme ones, were fairly well differentiated (overall gap 1.78), with gaps in the values assigned to the 7 items ranging between 1.45 and 2.20. These profiles were used in the analyses of the relationships reported and discussed in the following sections.

Table 4.4 Allocentric personality scale results

Psychographic items	Overall N= 444	Allo N=109	Mid N=227	Psycho N=108	Gap between Allo-Psycho
1) (Need for structure) Prefer tourist package vacations[a]	3.36	4.34	3.46	2.14	2.20
2) (Familiarity/novelty) Prefer to travel to destinations that are familiar to me[a]	3.07	3.94	3.13	2.08	1.86
3) (Off-the-beaten-track) Prefer to stay away from popular tourist areas	3.20	3.95	3.17	2.50	1.45
4) (Reliance on industry) Prefer my usual comforts and luxury [a]	2.64	3.80	2.46	1.82	1.98
5) (Intellectual curiosity) Curious to learn new things and seek intellectual enrichment	3.66	4.29	3.80	2.74	1.55
6) (Activity) Prefer resting and relaxing more than lots of activities[a]	2.74	3.68	2.69	1.89	1.79
7) (Openness to other culture) Prefer socialising with people from the same or similar culture [a]	3.17	4.04	3.11	2.38	1.66
Scale total	3.14	4.00	3.13	2.22	1.78

Cronbach's alpha = .764
[a] Allocentric items worded negatively (scores reversed)

4.1.3. Holiday benefits sought

The benefits people seek from holidays were assessed using a 15 item five-point Likert scale. Rather than using the ratings of the respondents for each of the items separately, the analysis turned to examining whether these can be reduced to a lower number of unobserved variables i.e. factors. In order to uncover the dimensions underlying the benefit items, a factor analysis using the principal component analysis (PCA) method with varimax rotation was employed.

Before performing the factor analysis, a correlation matrix was built (see appendix 10) to ensure that the inter-correlations were not too high or too low. A visual scan of the matrix revealed that the majority of correlations were below the coefficient of .3 and several above .5, which indicated that the variables with higher correlation coefficients were potentially clusters measuring similar things. Following the advice of Field (2009, p. 648) on excluding variables which have very low correlations with other variables, the 'Scenic Beauty' item was excluded from further analysis.

The visual scan of the matrix did not point towards overly high correlations (i.e. r > .8), however to avoid extreme multicollinearity, the analysis then looked at the determinant of the correlation matrix. A value of 0.003 was obtained i.e. greater than the value of 0.00001, which indicated that the variables were not too highly correlated

(Field, 2009). To determine the suitability of PCA further, a Bartlett's test was employed. A significant Bartlett's test indicates that the correlation matrix is significantly different from the identity matrix (i.e. the correlation between variables is significantly different from zero). The suitability of the data for PCA was confirmed with a result of p<.000 (see table 4.5).

Table 4.5 KMO and Bartlett's test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.809
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2553.279
	df.	105
	Sig.	.000

In order to confirm further the appropriateness of the data for achieving distinct and reliable factors, the analysis turned to the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy. The KMO statistic varies from 0 to 1, where values approximating 1 indicate that the patterns of correlations are relatively compact and suitable for factor analyses. The value of the KMO statistic obtained was .805 (see table 4.5), which according to Kaiser (1974, in Hutcheson and Sofroniou, 1999, p. 225) can be interpreted as "meritorious".

Having confirmed that the quality of the data merits the use of PCA, the researcher turned to the main analysis. Following the suggestion of Hair et al., (2010), conventional criteria were used for factor analysis: (1) eigenvalues above 1.0, (2) factor loadings equal to or above 0.40, and (3) results of the factor analysis explaining at least 50% of the total variance. Table 4.6 displays the factor loadings, eigenvalues and the explained variance obtained from PCA (N=444). Specifically, the analysis grouped together items that received similar ratings and revealed three factors accounting for 64.7% of the variance.

The resultant three factors represent the underlying dimensions of the benefits that respondents seek when they go on holidays. The first factor summarises **culture** related benefits such as historic sites, heritage and arts exhibitions, traditional lifestyle etc. The second factor consists of four variables, representing **adventure** benefits such as physical challenge activities, camping sites, and abundant wildlife. Finally, the third factor relates to typical hedonic tourist benefits associated with **beach** holidays such as a warm climate, sunbathing, nightlife and entertainment.

Table 4.6 Factor analysis of holiday benefits sought

Item	Factor 1 Cultural benefits	Factor 2 Adventure benefits	Factor 3 Beach benefits
Unique culture	.718		
Historic sites	.819		
Art/cultural events	.791		
Heritage and arts exhibitions	.849		
Traditional lifestyle	.661		
Physical challenge activities		.836	
Abundant wildlife		.807	
Remote and wilderness environment		.861	
Camp sites		.716	
Warm climate and sun			.737
Nightlife and entertainment			.749
Amusement or theme parks			.761
Beach and water activities			.772
Good shopping facilities			.728
Eigenvalue	3.071	2.863	2.818
% of variance	21.934	20.449	20.131
Cronbach's alpha	.837	.835	.810

The factor scores were then saved as variables, resulting in composite scores of importance attached to the underlying dimensions of the benefits sought by respondents. These procedures were also performed on the separate questionnaire versions. As with psychographic scales, the importance of the benefits was assessed on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 'not at all important' to 'very important'. In other words, the higher the score on any of the three factors identified, the greater the importance attached to the benefit when choosing a holiday destination.

As acknowledged in the literature review chapter, this approach involves a degree of oversimplification. At the same time, it allows the complexity to be managed by obtaining information on the importance that tourists attach to one benefit dimension in relation to the others. Naturally, holidays sought and what destinations offer involve combinations of benefits e.g. elements of adventure, physical challenge and opportunity to visit famous heritage sites. However, from the point of view of a consumer, some of these dimensions will be more important than others, thus indicating a preference for different types of holiday.

With this point in mind, the differences in importance attached to the three benefit factors were examined using the non-parametric Friedman test, and were found to be statistically significant (Chi ^{2}= 183.847, df= 2, p= .000), with cultural benefits regarded

as the most important criterion when choosing a holiday destination and adventure the least important (see table 4.7 below).

Table 4.7 Descriptive statistics for importance attached to benefit dimensions

Benefit dimension	Egypt (N=146)	India (N=153)	Turkey (N=144)
Cultural	3.51	3.54	3.53
Adventure	2.53	2.61	2.58
Beach	2.81	3.07	2.93

4.1.4. Perception of risk

Having obtained information regarding the respondents' holiday preferences, the analysis then focused on the perceived risk the tourists associated with different holiday destinations. Specifically, this section of the questionnaire measured respondents' concerns with crime, health, PI and terrorism risk in relation to the three countries (i.e. Egypt, India, and Turkey). The risk ratings (see table 4.8 below) are presented per each separate country context. In respect of Egypt, the risk of PI was reported by respondents as the biggest concern followed by the risk of terrorism. In the case of PI, it is logical to expect that the responses reflect the ongoing violent demonstrations and clashes in Egypt from January 2010 onwards. Although no inference can be made at this stage concerning the impact of the exposure of the tourists to media reports on this response, it is possible that the news media coverage of dramatic events in Egypt played a role in this process. As explained in the methodology chapter, the causal link between perceived risk and information about the sources of risk will be investigated with the use of an experiment.

Table 4.8 Perceived risk results

Types of risk	Mean perceived risk		
	Egypt	India	Turkey
Crime	2.42	2.42	2.70
Health	2.34	2.18	2.63
PI	2.09	2.44	2.74
Terrorism	2.22	2.42	2.72

5 point scale (1=very worried, 2=somewhat worried, 3=neither, 4=not very worried, 5=not at all worried)

Similar to the findings regarding Egypt, the India destination respondents reported heightened risk awareness, with health risk (e.g. food/water safety, poisoning, diseases etc.) representing the largest concern. This finding is in line with the high health risk image associated with Third World destinations such as India (Jonas et al., 2011), and

supported by previous studies, such as Cossens and Gin (1994) who note that health risks that result from poor quality of water or food are perceived as higher in Asia and Africa than, for instance, in Europe. This, however, is despite the fact that health risks are not contained to these geographical areas, as evidenced by the 2001 outbreak of foot and mouth disease in the UK (BBC, 2001), or the 2003 SARS outbreak in Canada (NYTimes, 2003).

In respect of the Turkey destination, while still below the neutral mean score of 3, the results indicate that tourists perceived less risk associated with visiting this country. This is despite numerous terrorist attacks in the past decade, including both government targets (e.g. the Police in Istanbul 2010), and popular tourist destinations in the Mediterranean coast (e.g. Marmaris, 2006; Antalya, 2006). The reason for these destination risk perceptions could be related to a range of factors such as the ability of the destination authorities to manage the crises, travel advice concerning the destination released by tourist-generating countries, or the destination's relationship with tourist-generating countries and the international media. No attempts to attribute the destination risk perceptions to these factors were made as this would require additional data and was beyond the scope of this study. The main focus of the analysis was to understand which tourist characteristics determine the risk judgments and willingness to travel. For this purpose, the latter variables of perceived risk and willingness to travel were further examined with consideration of the demographic and psychographic profiles of the respondents, obtained from the data analysis presented in the sections above.

4.1.5.   Willingness to travel

The extent of the participants' willingness to travel was measured in relation to the three regions within the countries studied, each emphasising one underlying benefit i.e. cultural, adventure, or beach. Designed much like travel brochures, region descriptions focused on the main attractions, or pull factors, of Egypt, India, and Turkey. Willingness to travel was measured under two conditions. The first condition described three regions under 'normal' or 'business as usual' circumstances (referred to henceforth as 'normal willingness'). A visual check of mean scores (see table 4.9) shows that in this condition the participants were most willing to travel to the cultural region and least willing to travel to the adventure region, which is consistent with the benefits they sought in holidays. Moreover, frequency statistics revealed a relatively high number of respondents who indicated they 'would rather visit' (i.e. '4') or

'definitely visit' (i.e. '5') cultural (72.5%), adventure (41%), and beach (49%) regions. This is an interesting result given the increased risk awareness in association with Egypt and India, and indicates that holidays in these contexts were desired by respondents despite these perceptions.

Table 4.9 Mean scores of willingness to travel to the three regions in two conditions

		Cultural region	Adventure region	Beach region
Egypt	Normal Willingness	4.00	2.95	3.27
	Willingness after terrorism	2.22	2.10	2.05
India	Normal Willingness	3.84	2.95	3.61
	Willingness after terrorism	2.25	2.17	2.20
Turkey	Normal Willingness	3.78	2.89	3.63
	Willingness after terrorism	2.22	2.10	2.06

5 point scale (1=would definitely avoid, 2=would rather avoid,3=neither, 4=would rather visit, 5=would definitely visit)

The second condition used the same region descriptions and asked participants how willing they would be to visit if they came across a news report about a terrorist attack in the country (referred to henceforth as 'willingness after terrorism') (table 4.9).

It was expected that regardless of the extent of 'normal willingness' to travel to any region, the majority of respondents would report lower willingness to travel after introducing a terrorist attack scenario. Results of the mean scores of willingness to travel reported in table 7 indicate that the scores declined as expected. To examine this further a Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test was employed (see table 4.10).

The test confirmed that the scales were being used as expected, as introducing information about a terrorist attack produced statistically significant declines in willingness to travel in all three cases: cultural (Z= -9.400, p= 0.000), adventure (Z=-6.562, p=0.000), and beach (Z= -7.671, p=0.000). This finding is consistent with the predominant view of tourists expressed in tourism literature (e.g. Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a; Irvine and Anderson, 2006; Law, 2006), that is, rational consumers who tend to be risk averse and prefer to avoid destinations that appear unsafe.

Table 4.10 Results of the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Tests for differences between willingness to travel in two conditions

Normal willingness to travel – willingness to travel after terrorism	Ranks	N
Cultural region	Negative ranks [a]	348
	Positive ranks [b]	3
	Ties [c]	93
	Total	444
Adventure region	Negative ranks	237
	Positive ranks	37
	Ties	170
	Total	444
Beach region	Negative ranks	325
	Positive ranks	14
	Ties	105
	Total	444

[a] Willingness to travel after terrorist attacks < Normal willingness
[b] Willingness to travel after terrorist attacks > Normal willingness
[c] Willingness to travel after terrorist attacks = Normal willingness

At the same time it needs to be noted that, although willingness to travel declined in the majority of the cases, there were also cases of the extent of willingness to travel remaining unchanged or increasing in response to information about terrorism. One possible explanation of this result is that the initial score (i.e. normal willingness) was low, thus information about terrorism did not produce a change and the expressed willingness remained at a low level. The other explanation is that a high level of willingness to travel was not negatively influenced by the information. To explore this further, the analysis sought to identify respondents who reported a high willingness to travel (i.e. scored 4 or 5) to regions in the terrorist attack condition. Frequency statistics revealed expected low numbers of individuals who were willing to travel despite this information i.e. (19.6% to cultural, 16% to adventure, and 14% to beach regions). These results confirm that while respondents show a relatively high willingness to travel to destinations despite perceived risk, when new information about a specific hazard is introduced, the willingness decreases dramatically.

4.2.   Analyses of relationships

Descriptive data, concerning the respondents' characteristics and judgments reported in the sections above, were then used to address objective 1. That is, to examine whether the variation in the expressed level of risk concerns and the willingness to travel to different regions were associated with the respondents' characteristics. Specific research questions were as follows:

RQ1: What is the difference in perceived risk between leisure tourists' with different levels of sensation seeking?

RQ2: What is the difference in perceived risk between allo/mid/psychocentric tourist types?

RQ3: What is the relationship between holiday benefits sought and perceived risk among leisure tourists?

RQ4: What is the difference in perceived risk between tourists with different demographic characteristics?

RQ5: What is the relationship between willingness to travel and tourists' psychographic characteristics?

RQ6: What is the difference in willingness to visit a destination after a terrorist attack between tourists with different psychographic and demographic characteristics?

The next sections present the findings in the following order: the relationship between perceived risk and tourists' characteristics (psychographics, benefits sought and demographics) and the relationship between willingness to travel and tourists' characteristics.

4.2.1.   Perceived risk and tourists' characteristics

4.2.1.1. Perceived risk and psychographic characteristics

To address RQ1, the trait of SS was considered in its relationship with perceived risk. As posited by Zuckermann (1994), individuals high in SS tolerate higher levels of risk associated with activities such as extreme sports or gambling to satisfy their need for intense sensory stimulation and novel experiences. In this sense, it is possible that high sensation seekers are less concerned about some travel situations that may be

perceived as risky by low sensation seekers. However, it needs to be noted that while sensation seekers tolerate more risk involved in potentially harmful activities, they are not reckless (Lepp and Gibson, 2008). To experience the emotional highs offered by a risky activity, such individuals evaluate the chances of a loss involved when participating in the activity via judging their ability to control it (Trimpop et al., 1999). For instance, a surfer may decide to ride a large wave; however, it is unlikely that this decision was made without consideration of his means to minimise the physical risk involved in the activity i.e. superb surfing skills. Therefore, the magnitude of risk perceived by sensation seekers would also be expected to depend on the type of risk taken into account and its implications for individual control. In this respect, extreme sports or eating unhealthy foods represent very different species of danger to terrorism or PI.

Table 4.11 Results of the Mann-Whitney test for sensation seeking and perceived risk

Types of risk	Sensation seeking (N=411)		MUW	Z	Asymp.sig.
	Low	High			
	Mean perceived risk				
Crime	195.27	236.10	13111.000	-3.199	.001
Health	191.15	247.65	11863.500	-4.460	.000
PI	194.51	238.22	12882.000	-3.413	.001
Terrorism	193.94	239.83	12708.500	-3.573	.000

A Mann Whitney test was employed to examine whether the sensation seeking trait determines differences in perceived risk. It was estimated that high sensation seekers would be associated with less risk concerns. The results (see table 4.11) show that the tourists high in SS perceived significantly less risk associated with visiting Egypt, Turkey and India than their low SS counterparts. This is supported by a study of Sharifpour et al. (2013), who found that individuals with higher propensity for SS perceived less physical risk (including terrorism and PI) associated with visiting Arabia. Seeing as SS may increase individuals' tolerance of risk associated with activities that involve novel and exciting experiences, it can be argued that the tourists with a higher propensity for SS were less preoccupied with the risks, because the destinations included in this study were sufficiently rewarding in this respect. Therefore, rather than predisposing individuals to be lenient towards risk per se, SS may be a function of an increased ability of tourists to rationalise personal risk, even that of terrorism and PI, provided benefit preferences associated with pleasure travel are satisfied.

At the same time, the result is somewhat surprising taking into consideration the findings of the psychometric paradigm of risk (Slovic et al., 1984) concerning the qualitative aspects of the hazard which individuals would be expected to take into account when forming risk judgments. Specifically, given the relatively low level of control an individual may have over minimising the potential for physical harm resulting from terrorist attacks or political instability, as opposed to extreme sports for example, it could be argued that SS should play little role in determining perceived risk associated with such events. Although not attributed to the individual level of control, the lack of association between the SS score and perceived risk was found by Lepp and Gibson (2008) and Aschauer (2010). This indicates that the relationship between SS and destination perceived risk is a complex one and it requires further attention from tourism scholars.

Secondly, to address RQ2 the analysis focused on the allo/psychocentric continuum of tourist personality type. As suggested by studies which apply Plog's model, allocentric types are characterised by a preference for novel and stimulating social, intellectual and physically active experiences (e.g. Griffith and Albanese, 1996; Litvin, 2006; Weaver, 2012). Seeing as some of these experiences may involve a degree of risk e.g. the interaction with unknown cultures, increased uncertainties associated with self-organised travel, or visiting 'off-the-beaten-track' areas, allocentrics, as opposed to psychocentrics, would be expected to be less sensitive to risk. For this reason, it was estimated that the different psychographic groups would exhibit differences in the extent to which they perceived risk. The results of a Kruskal-Wallis test (see table 4.12) show that there were statistically significant differences between the psychographic groups in each of the country contexts; therefore the null hypothesis was rejected in all three cases.

To follow-up on these findings a post-hoc Mann-Whitney test with a Bonferroni correction (p<0.016) was employed, expecting the biggest differences between extreme groups i.e. allocentric and psychocentric. More specifically, allocentrics were expected to have reported less concern, and psychocentrics to have responded with more concern.

As expected, the psychocentric group was significantly more concerned about all types of risk than the allocentric group (table 4.13), with the exception of the Turkey sample where the only significant difference was found with regards to the health risk. The latter results may be explained by the relatively lower perceived risk associated

with Turkey, which meant that the gaps between the extreme groups were as a result smaller.

Table 4.12 Results of the Kruskal-Wallis test for tourist types and perceived risk

Types of risk	Tourist types			Chi-square	Asymp. sig
	Allo N=35	Mid N=79	Psycho N=32		
	Perceived risk mean ranking Egypt				
Crime	94.06	74.41	48.77	21.509	.000
Health	104.39	71.49	44.67	37.375	.000
PI	96.90	74.32	45.89	27.670	.000
Terrorism	99.20	75.63	40.14	36.112	.000
	India				
	Allo N=37	Mid N=76	Psycho N=40		
Crime	97.95	75.64	60.21	15.287	.000
Health	96.99	73.32	65.50	12.244	.002
PI	99.35	73.41	63.14	14.849	.001
Terrorism	99.01	76.03	58.48	17.338	.000
	Turkey				
	Allo N=37	Mid N=72	Psycho N=36		
Crime	81.15	74.38	61.88	4.273	.118
Health	86.11	73.13	59.26	8.049	.018
PI	84.19	70.04	67.42	3.826	.148
Terrorism	81.26	73.84	62.83	3.800	.150

Moreover, significant differences in concerns with all risks were also observed between allocentrics and midcentrics in the Egypt and India samples, and midcentric and psychocentric groups in the Egypt sample (see appendix 11). In other words, the lower the degree of allocentrism, the larger the risk concerns among leisure tourists. This supports findings of studies, such Lepp and Gibson (2003), which revealed that novelty seeking (a dimension of the allocentric personality type), measured by employing Cohen's (1972) construct, is associated with a lower perception of travel risk. In support of Plog's theory, Sonmez and Greafe (1998a) adopted a form of his instrument (4 items) in their study of perceived travel risk; unfortunately they did not report any findings. The importance of personality in studying perceived risk was also emphasised by Reisinger and Mavondo (2005), as measured by single word items (e.g. extroverted, confident, helpful, active) borrowed from Menzes and Chandra (1989). However, they concluded that tourists, in their sample, perceived equal amounts of terrorism risk, regardless of differences in confidence and venturesomeness. In contrast, data in this study indicates that perceived risk varies significantly between different

personality types, notably with allocentric types being the least concerned about all types of risks measured. This confirms that personality, and the degree of allocentrism/psychocentrism specifically, is an important factor in explaining tourists' perceived risk.

Table 4.13 Results of the Mann-Whitney post hoc test for perceived risk between allocentric and psychocentric types

Types of risk	Tourist types	Mean ranking		MUW	z	Asympt.sig.
Crime	Allo and Psycho	43.56	23.55	225.500	-4.448	.000
Health	(Egypt)	45.74	21.16	149.000	-5.394	.000
PI		44.30	22.73	199.500	-4.761	.000
Terrorism		45.86	21.03	145.000	-5.493	.000
Crime	Allo and Psycho	48.70	30.30	381.000	-3.832	.000
Health	(India)	47.36	31.26	430.500	-3.413	.001
PI		48.46	30.25	390.000	-3.697	.000
Terrorism		49.30	29.48	359.000	-4.048	.000
Crime	Allo and Psycho	41.55	32.32	497.500	-1.935	.053
Health	(Turkey)	43.36	30.46	430.500	-2.729	.006
PI		40.96	32.93	519.500	-1.663	.096
Terrorism		41.34	32.54	505.500	-1.832	.067

4.2.1.2. Perceived risk and holiday benefits sought

The analysis then focused on addressing RQ3. Specifically, it was examined whether differences in perceived risk were related to the importance that respondents assigned to different holiday benefits. This was based on the premise that individuals who score higher or lower on any of the distinct holiday benefit dimensions, also exhibit certain psychographic characteristics. In other words, information on holiday benefits sought was treated as complementary to the psychographic characteristics (and vice versa) in understanding holiday preferences, and how these may explain differences in tourists' perceived risk. With this point in mind, the analysis then focused on relating respondents' holiday benefit preferences to their SS and allocentric/psychocentric profiles.

Firstly, in regard of SS, it was estimated that the higher SS scores would be positively associated with the importance attached to adventure benefits when choosing a holiday. A highly significant and strong positive relationship was confirmed by a Spearman's RHO (sig. <0.01, r_s= .733). A similar result was obtained by Eachus (2004)

and Gilchrist et al. (1995) who found that SS scores were positively correlated with preferences for adventurous holidays. The findings of Eachus (2004) are comparable to this study as the latter variable was measured by statements indicative of an allocentric type, such as a preference for physical activity, novelty, and off-the-beaten-track destinations. In a similar vein, Pizam et al., (2002) found that individuals high in SS preferred leisure activities such as extreme sports rather than visiting cultural or natural attractions for example.

Secondly, with respect to the allocentrism/psychocentrism continuum, it was expected that the allocentric types would assign higher importance to cultural and adventure benefits rather than beach benefits in choosing a holiday. For instance, individuals who scored high on psychocentric items (e.g. enjoy resting and relaxation, prefer usual comforts and luxury), and low on allocentric items (e.g. stay away from popular tourist areas), would be expected to be more likely to assign importance to beach holiday benefits. A Kruskal-Wallis test was employed to examine whether tourist personality type was associated with different scores on the holiday benefit sought dimensions. This was confirmed by the significant results of the test (see table 4.14).

Table 4.14 Results of the Kruskal-Wallis test for holiday benefits sought and allo/mid/psychocentric types

Holiday benefits sought	Tourist Types			Chi-square	Asymp. sig
	Allo N=35	Mid N=79	Psycho N=32		
	Mean ranking Egypt				
Culture benefits	95.76	74.87	45.78	23.667	.000
Adventure benefits	87.90	77.25	48.48	15.965	.000
Beach benefits	43.39	75.30	102.00	32.965	.000
	India				
	Allo N=37	Mid N=76	Psycho N=40		
Culture benefits	103.28	75.14	56.23	22.162	.000
Adventure benefits	100.23	73.59	62.19	15.008	.001
Beach benefits	51.93	72.32	109.08	33.791	.000
	Turkey				
	Allo N=37	Mid N=72	Psycho N=36		
Culture benefits	95.51	71.39	50.46	21.254	.000
Adventure benefits	101.38	70.72	45.63	32.640	.000
Beach benefits	56.80	76.73	80.40	7.277	.026

To investigate this further, a follow-up Mann-Whitney test with Bonferroni correction (p<0.016) was employed (see table 4.15). The results revealed that the allocentrics regarded cultural and adventure benefits as more important than beach benefits, whereas the psychocentrics exhibited the opposite preferences. Differences between the extreme groups were clearer than between the extreme groups and midcentrics. These findings are partly supported by a study by Pizam et al., (2004), who found that the combined psychological characteristics of risk-taking and sensation-seeking (RSS - a construct related to allocentrism) influence tourists' travel behaviour and preferences. Specifically, respondents high in RSS preferred outdoor type activities (e.g. hiking, camping), as well as spontaneous, active, and less comfort oriented holidays. While this finding can be used to explain the association between allocentrism and a preference for adventure benefits, RSS does not predict preferences for cultural holidays. Pizam et al., (2004) did not find any differences between high and low RSS and a preference for visiting historical sites, museum/cultural exhibitions, arts/crafts fairs, cultural festivals etc., for example. Similarly, Eachus (2004) reported no association between a preference for cultural holidays and SS scores. On the contrary, Aschauer (2010) found that a higher SS had a strong influence on cultural openness and intercultural communication efforts. The current findings suggest that, while related, SS and allocentrism are distinct constructs. Importantly, allocentrism is better suited to capture preferences for novel and stimulating experiences, which as well as thrills offered by, for instance, extreme sports, includes experiences such as meeting unfamiliar cultures or intellectual enrichment. In this sense, it is useful for an understanding of how this group of tourists may respond to situations that are perceived as risky by other consumers, for instance, psychocentrics.

Table 4.15 Results of the Mann-Whitney post hoc test for benefits sought between allocentric and psychocentric types.

Benefit	Tourist types	Mean ranking		MUW	Z	Asympt. sig.
Cultural	Allo and Psycho	43.96	23.11	211.500	-4.387	.000
Adventure	(Egypt)	42.04	25.20	278.500	-3.548	.000
Beach		22.56	46.52	159.500	-5.038	.000
Cultural	Allo and Psycho	50.62	28.25	310.000	-4.398	.000
Adventure	(India)	48.78	29.95	378.000	-3.703	.000
Beach		24.55	52.36	205.500	-5.466	.000
Cultural	Allo and Psycho	46.96	25.44	260.500	-4.377	.000
Adventure	(Turkey)	48.61	23.70	199.500	-5.072	.000
Beach		30.78	42.54	436.000	-2.390	.017

Having found associations between respondents' preferences for holiday benefits and psychographic characteristics, the analysis then turned to RQ 3 i.e. the relationship between holiday benefits sought and perceived risk. Specifically, it was estimated that a greater importance attached to cultural and adventure holiday benefits would be associated with less risk concerns ('5'='not at all worried', hence a positive correlation). Seeing as the importance of beach holiday benefits was related to preferences captured by psychocentric, rather than allocentric items i.e. suggestive of individuals who may be more sensitive to risk, it was estimated that a greater importance assigned to beach holiday benefits would be associated with more risk concerns.

Table 4.16 The association between perceived risk and holiday benefits sought

Benefits sought	Perceived risk (N=444)							
	Crime		Health		PI		Terrorism	
	Corr.	Sig.	Corr.	Sig.	Corr.	Sig.	Corr.	Sig.
Cultural benefits	.199**	.000	.178**	.000	.139**	.003	.190**	.000
Adventure benefits	.183**	.000	.266**	.000	.249**	.000	.249**	.000
Beach benefits	-.216**	.000	-.175**	.000	-.181**	.000	-.260**	.000

** Correlation is significant at 0.01 level (1-tailed), *Correlation is significant at 0.05 level (1-tailed)

Corr. [a] - Spearman rho correlation coefficient

The results confirmed the assumption, with all correlations statistically significant in the expected direction (see table 4.16). Although most correlation coefficients are on the weaker end, the results provided some evidence that the importance attached to different holiday benefits is associated with perceived risk. The strongest association was observed between beach benefits and terrorism risk concern i.e. higher beach holiday preferences are associated with more concern. This may be because tourists who seek such holidays place greater value on relaxing and a hassle-free atmosphere, and so, show more concern over potential problems associated with the interaction with a foreign culture in volatile destinations. Moreover, a greater degree of preference for familiar environments, comforts or organised travel, as captured by psychocentric items is also symptomatic of a 'play it safe' attitude. Results of the association between the levels of perceived risk and the importance of cultural and adventure benefits, show that respondents who value such holiday attributes may show less concern over potential problems associated with the types of risk included in the study.

4.2.1.3. Perceived risk and demographic profile

Moving to RQ4, the data were analysed further to determine whether demographics (i.e. gender, age, travel group composition, and travel experience) influenced the magnitude of the respondents' risk concerns.

With respect to gender, the results of a Mann-Whitney test (see table 4.17) revealed that male respondents were less concerned about each of the risks measured in this study. The strongest and most statistically significant difference was found in the case of PI. In the context of Egypt, this finding may be related to the numerous sexual assaults against foreign and Egyptian women (over 100 between June and November 2013) in Cairo demonstrations (FCO, 2013) and the coverage of incidents by the British news media (BBC, 2013b). Similar incidents have been reported in India (BBC, 2014; NYTimes, 2013), however, no PI has accompanied the assaults, therefore in this case a high preoccupation with this hazard, rather than crime, is somewhat surprising. This suggests, as supported by a finding of Hunter-Jones et al. (2007), that tourists experience difficulties in distinguishing between PI, terrorism and crime.

Table 4.17 Results of the Mann-Whitney test for perceived risk and gender

Types of risk	Gender (N=444)		MUW	Z	Asymp.sig.
	Male	Female			
	Mean perceived risk				
Crime	240.07	208.61	20859.500	-2.679	.008
Health	239.19	209.31	21033.500	-2.559	.010
PI	249.57	201.11	18999.000	-4.101	.000
Terrorism	240.97	207.91	20684.500	-2.791	.005

Subsequently, a Kruskall-Wallis test was employed to examine whether there were any differences in the risk concerns between tourists with different travel party preferences. Results of this test revealed that the differences were non-significant. In this case, no post-hoc test were run concluding that for these data there is no difference in perceived risk between people who travel in different groups. This was a surprising result as it was expected that travel groups would influence tourists' perception of control they have over hazards (e.g. in avoiding PI) and consequently risk concern. Specifically, solo travellers (or drifters, akin to allocentrics) would be expected to be less sensitive to risk. However, for these data, the group composition itself does not play an important role in perceived risk. Similarly, no significant differences were found in perceived risk between the age groups included in the study. This finding is in contrary

to other studies (e.g. Lai and Tao, 2003; Floyd, 2004a) that demonstrate differences in perceived risk between age groups. These two results also support the thesis that psychographic characteristics may be more meaningful in understanding risk related consumer behaviour than demographic factors.

Next, tests were run to examine the influence of travel experience on perceived risk. For this purpose, a Mann-Whitney test was employed to examine whether having previously visited some regions of the world was associated with lower levels of perceived risk (see table 4.18).

Table 4.18 Results of the Mann-Whitney test for travel experience and perceived risk

	Mean ranking				
Types of risk	Yes	No	MUW	z	P<0.05
	Visited Middle East				
Crime	255.69	210.07	15525.000	-3.475	.001
Health	273.71	203.32	13345.500	-5.407	.000
PI	269.19	205.01	13892.000	-4.870	.000
Terrorism	261.99	207.71	14763.000	-4.110	.000
	Visited Africa				
Crime	251.82	205.66	18092.500	-3.801	.000
Health	253.68	204.59	17791.500	-4.077	.000
PI	254.44	204.15	17668.000	-4.126	.000
Terrorism	256.05	203.23	17406.500	-4.324	.000
	Visited Asia and the Pacific				
Crime	257.68	199.83	17369.500	-4.830	.000
Health	259.13	198.89	17116.500	-5.073	.000
PI	255.77	201.06	17701.500	-4.552	.000
Terrorism	258.77	199.13	17179.000	-4.951	.000
	Visited Americas				
Crime	241.37	194.30	18654.000	-3.946	.000
Health	240.01	196.33	19016.000	-3.693	.000
PI	240.72	195.27	18826.500	-3.797	.000
Terrorism	241.40	194.29	18646.500	-3.928	.000

Results clearly suggest that, with the exception of Europe (unsurprisingly visited by the vast majority), tourists who had visited each of the regions of the world were significantly less preoccupied with all the risks. This indicates that, while it should be expected that the nature of the experience (positive or negative) has an effect on its relationship with perceived risk, simply having visited the Middle East, or Asia and the Pacific translates into differences in the level of concern. To examine the role of travel experience further, it was tested whether the number of international trips in the past 3 years was associated with different levels of concern. The significant results of a Kruskall-Wallis show that differences exist between four travel experience

groups (see table 4.19). To follow-up on these findings a Mann-Whitney test with a Bonferroni correction (p<0.0167) was used.

Table 4.19 Results of the Kruskall-Wallis test for the number of holidays in the past three years and perceived risk

Types of risk	Number of int. holidays in the past 3 years	Mean ranking	Chi-square	Asymp.sig.
Crime	None (N=59)	223.57	15.193	.002
	Between 1 and 3 (N=202)	202.40		
	Between 4 and 6 (N=121)	231.21		
	7 and more (N=62)	269.97		
Health	None	203.00	14.718	.002
	Between 1 and 3	205.61		
	Between 4 and 6	238.94		
	7 and more	264.00		
Political instability	None	195.87	16.362	.001
	Between 1 and 3	206.37		
	Between 4 and 6	240.00		
	7 and more	266.25		
Terrorism	None	199.03	9.082	.028
	Between 1 and 3	212.96		
	Between 4 and 6	231.64		
	7 and more	258.08		

Results from the post-hoc Mann-Whitney tests (see table 4.20) reveal that the only significant differences were found between those who had not travelled and those who had travelled 7 times and more (with the exception of crime), and those who had travelled 1 to 3 times and 7 and more times. Therefore, this finding further underscores the pattern discussed in the previous section and supported by extant travel risk literature (e.g. Floyd et al., 2004b; Kozak et al., 2007; Larsen et al., 2007b). Specifically, more experienced people may be less concerned with risks and better prepared to manage them i.e. travel experience plays a significant role in determining the differences in the extent of risk concern.

Table 4.20 Results of the Mann-Whitney post hoc test for number of international holidays and perceived risk

Types of risk	Number of int. holidays in the past 3 years	Mean ranking		MUW	Z	Asympt.sig.
Crime	None, and 7 and more	54.84	66.86	1465.500	-1.941	.052
Health		52.58	69.02	1332.000	-2.680	.007
PI		51.03	70.49	1240.500	-3.196	.002
Terrorism		53.06	68.56	1360.500	-2.500	.012
Crime	Between 1 and 3, and 7 and more	122.91	163.76	4324.000	-3.877	.000
Health		124.38	159.97	4621.000	-3.298	.001
PI		124.01	160.15	4547.500	-3.395	.001
Terrorism		125.98	153.73	4945.500	-2.599	.009
Crime	Between 4 and 6, and 7 and more	86.70	102.35	3109.500	-1.955	.051
Health		88.40	99.02	3316.000	-1.340	.180
PI		88.62	98.60	3341.500	-1.245	.213
Terrorism		88.52	98.79	3330.000	-1.279	.201

4.2.2. Willingness to travel and tourists' characteristics

The first step to investigate the relationship between tourists' characteristics and their willingness to travel (RQ 5) was to correlate the scores of holiday benefits with the scores of willingness to travel (normally) to the three regions. A positive correlation was expected between the scores on a benefit dimension and the willingness to travel to a region which exhibits such benefits e.g. a cultural benefit dimension and the willingness to travel to a cultural region. The results of Spearman's RHO were statistically significant at the 0.01 level with positive scores: cultural .361, adventure .616, and beach .583. This indicates a strong connection (moderate in the cultural pair) between the importance people assigned to a benefit dimension in choosing a holiday region and their willingness to travel to a region which offered such benefits. Moreover, as noted before (section 4.1.5), the respondents' willingness to travel to regions which reflected the benefit dimensions they valued was reported despite the increased perceived risk.

Table 4.21 The association between sensation seeking and willingness to travel normally

	Willingness to travel normally					
	Cultural region		Adventure region		Beach region	
	Corr. [a]	Sig.	Corr.	Sig.	Corr.	Sig.
SS score	115*	.016	.572**	.000	.081	.090

** Correlation is significant at 0.01 level (1-tailed), *Correlation is significant at 0.05 level (1-tailed)

[a] Spearman rho correlation coefficient

Next, the analysis focused on the psychographic characteristics of the respondents and their relationships with the different levels of willingness to travel to the holiday regions within the countries included in the study. Firstly, the SS score was correlated with the willingness to travel to regions normally. Given the strong correlation between the SS score and adventure benefits score (see section 4.2.1.2), it was estimated that the higher levels of SS would be positively associated with the willingness to travel to an adventure region.

The results showed a highly significant and strong association (.572) between higher SS scores and the willingness to travel to an adventure region (table 4.21). Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. This result is consistent with the findings of other studies (e.g. Gilchrist et al., 1995; Pizam et al., 2002; Eachus, 2004). A statistically significant but weaker positive correlation (.115) was also found between the SS score and the willingness to travel to a cultural destination under both conditions. This result is more difficult to explain because the descriptions of the cultural regions in the questionnaire did not comprise of the typical attributes that may appeal to those high in the SS trait. Despite this, a holiday in Egypt, India, or Turkey may provide a range of novel and exciting sensory experiences that move beyond those offered by extreme physical activities and thrills.

Table 4.22 Results of the Kruskal-Wallis test for allo/mid/psychocentric types and willingness to travel

Willingness to travel normally	Tourist types			Chi-square	Asymp. sig
	Allo N=37	Mid N=72	Psycho N=36		
	Mean ranking Egypt				
Cultural region	86.78	101.51	55.32	11.7410	.003
Adventure region	74.76	72.94	43.81	36.399	.000
Beach region	55.32	43.81	88.72	17.762	.000
	India				
	Allo N=37	Mid N=76	Psycho N=40		
Cultural region	95.15	74.13	65.68	10.072	.007
Adventure region	106.47	73.81	55.80	27.019	.000
Beach region	56.20	74.58	100.84	21.919	.000
	Turkey				
	Allo N=35	Mid N=79	Psycho N=32		
Cultural region	97.63	70.75	53.89	20.859	.000
Adventure region	94.67	70.30	58.25	14.009	.001
Beach region	53.47	74.91	91.94	14.937	.001

Moving on to tourist allo/mid/psychocentric personality types, a Kruskall-Wallis test was employed to examine whether the differences in the willingness to travel to the three regions were determined by the tourists' personality type. This was confirmed by obtaining highly significant results (see table 4.22). Based on the links of psychographic characteristics with holiday benefits scores (see section 4.2.1.2.), it was hypothesised that the allocentric personality type would be more willing to travel to cultural and adventure destinations than the psychocentric type. Conversely, the psychocentric type would find a beach region more attractive than those that emphasise attributes related to a cultural and adventure holiday experience.

Results of a post-hoc Mann-Whitney test (table 4.23) revealed that, in all three cases, the allocentric and psychocentric groups were significantly different with respect to the regions they were most willing to visit. More specifically, the allocentric group was significantly more willing to travel to cultural and adventure regions, whereas the psychographic group expressed more willingness to travel to a beach region. These findings indicate that allocentric types (i.e. novelty seeking, intellectually curious, physically active etc.) show interest in different types of destination to psychocentric types, thus supporting the validity of Plog's model in predicting destination preferences.

Table 4.23 Results of the Mann-Whitney test for perceived risk between allocentric and psychocentric types

Willingness to travel normally	Tourist types	Mean ranking		MUW	z	Asymp. sig
Cultural region	Allo and Psycho (Egypt)	43.00	24.16	245.000	-4.239	.000
Adventure region		41.86	25.41	285.000	-3.534	.000
Beach region		26.47	42.23	296.500	-3.410	.001
Cultural region	Allo and Psycho (India)	46.69	31.89	455.500	-3.059	.002
Adventure region		51.28	27.64	285.500	-4.751	.000
Beach region		28.26	48.94	342.500	-4.225	.000
Cultural region	Allo and Psycho (Turkey)	44.70	29.08	381.000	-3.315	.001
Adventure region		50.34	23.29	172.500	-5.569	.000
Beach region		27.85	46.40	327.500	-3.861	.000

Moreover, as in the case of perceived risk, the same pattern of differences was found between allocentrics and midcentrics, and between midcentrics and psychocentrics. In other words, the larger the allocentric tendencies, the more willing tourists were to travel to cultural and adventure contexts while avoiding the beach region.

Overall, the higher levels of risk concerns reported by respondents did not constrain tourists' willingness to travel when regions in Egypt, India and Turkey were introduced under 'business as usual' conditions. To gain more insight into the relationship between risk and willingness to travel, the analysis focused on addressing RQ 6 i.e. the condition of the three countries subject to a recent terrorist attack. More specifically, this investigation sought to understand whether a lower or higher willingness to travel, after information about a terrorist attack, could be attributed to any of the above discussed tourists' characteristics. As discussed earlier, in line with the dominating view of risk-averse consumers, the willingness to travel to all three regions declined in the majority of the cases (see section 1.1.5). That is, for most tourists information about terrorism was a deterring factor regardless of region benefits or tourist characteristics. Specifically, the majority of the tourists (referred to henceforth as the 'avoidance group') reported that they would 'rather avoid' or 'definitely avoid' all regions (cultural= 63.7%, adventure= 67.3%, beach= 66.9%). However, the results (see table 4.24) also revealed that some respondents indicated a high willingness to travel to the three regions (cultural= 19%, adventure= 15.9%, beach= 14.1%) despite this information (referred to henceforth as the 'resilient group'). A Mann-Whitney test was employed to examine whether the differences between these two groups in the willingness to travel after a terrorist attack could be attributed to the tourists' characteristics.

Table 4.24 Resilient and avoidance groups

		Cultural region	Adventure region	Beach region
Egypt	Resilient group	30	25	20
	Avoidance group	96	104	100
India	Resilient group	32	26	27
	Avoidance group	94	97	99
Turkey	Resilient group	24	20	16
	Avoidance group	93	98	98

The results (see table 4.25) indicate that the characteristics of the 'resilient' and 'avoidance' groups were significantly different in all the destination region conditions. Notably, with reference to the cultural and adventure destinations, the 'resilient group' was significantly less worried about potential risks, sought more cultural and adventure

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benefits, was more allocentric, and was more willing to travel to destinations under normal conditions than the 'avoidance group'. Those who expressed a high willingness to travel to a beach region were not different from the 'avoidance group' in any characteristics other than being more willing to visit this region before the attack. This supports the findings concerning the importance of allo/mid/psychocentric tendencies in determining perceived risk, while also suggesting that individuals who were willing to travel to their preferred types of destination, despite information about a terrorist attack, were significantly different in their degree of allocentrism, in the associated benefits sought, and perceived less risk.

Table 4.25 Results of the Mann-Whitney test for differences in characteristics between the resilient group and the avoidance group

	Mean Ranking		MUW	z	p<0.05
	Resilient group	Avoidance group			
Cultural region	N=62	N=190			
Cultural benefits	158.96	115.96	3877.500	-4.053	.000
Adventure benefits	151.27	118.42	4354.000	-3.091	.000
Beach benefits	96.22	136.38	4012.500	-3.775	.000
Crime risk	176.81	110.08	2771.000	-6.579	.000
Health risk	172.33	111.54	3048.500	-6.035	.000
PI risk	177.38	109.90	2735.500	-6.636	.000
Terrorism risk	181.31	108.61	2491.500	-7.124	.000
Willingness to travel to cultural region normally	180.38	108.92	2549.500	-7.124	.000
Willingness to travel to adventure region normally	169.34	112.52	3234.000	-7.035	.000
Allocentrism score	165.71	113.71	3459.000	-4.888	.000
Adventure region	N=51	N=201			
Cultural benefits	145.51	121.68	4156.000	-2.093	.036
Adventure benefits	194.41	109.27	1662.000	-7.476	.000
Beach benefits	95.49	134.37	3544.000	-3.408	.001
Crime risk	180.78	112.73	2357.000	-6.250	.000
Health risk	172.16	114.92	2797.000	-5.334	.000
PI risk	179.33	113.09	2431.000	-6.077	.000
Terrorism risk	187.09	111.13	2035.500	-6.938	.000
Willingness to travel to cultural region normally	156.25	118.95	3605.500	-3.428	.001
Willingness to travel to adventure region normally	206.11	106.30	1065.500	-8.924	.000
Allocentrism score	179.62	113.02	2416.500	-5.838	.000
Beach region	N=47	N=199			
Beach benefits	148.55	117.58	3499.000	-2.689	.007
Willingness to travel to beach region normally	172.78	111.86	2360.500	-5.483	.000

4.3.   Questionnaire findings discussion

The data used to create the respondents' profiles and analyse the relationships between the key variables yielded a number of interesting findings. In regard of RQ1, low sensation seekers were found to be significantly more concerned with all the physical risks, included in the study, than high sensation seekers. The result is somewhat surprising as high sensation seekers would be expected to be less sensitive to hazards they can control, for instance extreme sports, fast driving etc., rather than man-induced risks, which represent a completely different type of trouble. This indicates that, in this case, it is possible that novel experiences associated with visiting Egypt, Turkey or India, represented for these individuals a reward worth the risk.

Similarly, the allo/mid/psychocentric aspect of the tourists' personality (RQ2) produced consistently clear differences in their perceived risk. Moreover, seeing as the construct was measured in three separate samples, the significant results of the relationships between tourists and risk concerns in association with Egypt, India, and Turkey, cross-validate one another. Beyond this, the psychographic types were also indicative of specific holiday benefit preferences, which provide a richer picture of the tourist profile.

Taking benefits sought into account, an association was found between a higher importance attached to cultural and adventure benefits (indicative of allocentrics) and less risk concern (RQ3). Conversely, a higher importance attached to beach benefits (indicative of psychocentrics) was associated with more risk concern. Therefore, the benefits sought are a complimentary dimension of allo/mid/psychocentric types and enhance the understanding of the differences in perceived destination risk among leisure tourists.

The demographic factors measured in this study produced mixed results concerning their relationship with perceived risk (RQ4). On the one hand, no association was found between perceived risk and travel group composition, and perceived risk and age groups, which may be due to a range of situational factors. On the other hand, males were significantly less concerned about all risks than females, with the latter group mostly concerned about PI. As discussed in sections 1.2.1.3, this finding may be related to a number of assaults on women in Egypt and India, and the significant media coverage these incidents received in the western news media. Apart from gender, perceived risk for these data was also significantly different between

tourists with different experience. Specifically, tourists who had travelled more in the past 3 years, as well as those who had visited Africa, Americas, Asia and the Pacific, and the Middle East were less concerned about all risks.

In respect of the relationship between tourists' characteristics and willingness to travel (RQ5), allo/mid/psychocentric types were clearly associated with the willingness to travel to the different destination regions in the three countries included in the study. Specifically, allocentric types were significantly more willing to travel to the cultural and adventure contexts within Egypt, India, and Turkey than psychocentrics who preferred the beach region. To expand on this relationship, the idea of whether preferences for these destinations among allocentrics and the previously found association with lower perceived risks, would translate into more resilience to information about a terrorist attack (RQ6) was examined. It was found that the tourists who were willing to visit the cultural and adventure regions, despite this information, had statistically significantly larger allocentric tendencies, greater interest in the benefits exhibited by these regions, and lower perceived risk.

The implications of the questionnaire-survey results for the second phase of the quantitative stage were twofold. Firstly, the sufficiently large sample of individuals who agreed to participate in the second stage meant that they could be contacted to participate in the survey-experiment. Secondly, the database of tourist profiles, created on the basis of the analysis of the questionnaire responses, could be used, as planned, to control for the characteristics that have the largest influence on tourists' risk judgments. Specifically, as informed by the analysis and discussion above, the characteristics taken into account in assigning subjects to experiment groups were: allo/mid/psychocentric types, gender, and age. While the latter factor did not produce significant results for these data, this factor has been used to confirm this finding and to seek to understand whether different age groups react differently to news articles about terrorism and PI.

4.4. Survey-experiment findings

A total of 124 online experiment surveys were returned electronically (29 non-responses) obtaining a response rate of (81%). The survey-experiment examined the effect of four fictitious news articles on two dependent variables of perceived risk and willingness to travel. Analyses of these dependent variables are presented separately below. Specifically, the analysis addressed the following research questions:

RQ7: What is the effect of media frames concerning the magnitude of risk of terrorism/ political instability (PI) on the perceived risk (PR) of leisure tourists?

RQ8: What is the effect of media frames concerning the event type (terrorism / PI) on PR of leisure tourists?

RQ9: What is the difference in the judgment of PR in response to information about terrorism/PI between allo/mid/psychocentric tourist types?

RQ10: What is the effect of media frames concerning the magnitude of risk of terrorism/ PI on the willingness to travel of leisure tourists?

RQ11: What is the effect of media frames concerning the event type on willingness to travel of leisure tourists?

4.4.1. Perceived risk and fictitious articles

The respondents were exposed to fictitious articles created for the purpose of the experiment. The number of responses to each of the article versions that the groups were exposed to, ranged from 28 to 34, providing sufficiently large samples to perform analyses. A visual check of the mean scores of perceived risk indicated an expected pattern of responses (see table 4.26 below).

Table 4.26 Mean scores of perceived risk by article type

Article Groups	N	Perceived risk mean
Terror A	30	1.77
Terror B	34	2.32
Political instability (PI) A	28	1.61
Political instability (PI) B	32	3.00

1=very worried, 2=somewhat worried, 3=unsure, 4=not very worried, 5=not at all worried

To address RQ7, a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was run to examine the differences in perceived risk between the groups of respondents exposed to different

article versions. The result of the Kruskal-Wallis was significant at p<.000 level. Therefore, to test for differences between article pairs A (risk amplifying) and B (risk attenuating), a post-hoc Mann Whitney test was employed with the confidence level set at p<.025. It was estimated that the tourists exposed to article version A would perceive more risk than those who had read version B.

Table 4.27 Results of the Mann-Whitney post-hoc test for perceived risk and magnitude of risk frames

	Perceived risk mean ranking		MUW	z	Asympt. Sig.
Article groups	Terrorism A N=30	Terrorism B N=34			
	26.90	37.44	342.000	-2.463	.014
	PI A N=28	PI B N=32			
	20.75	39.03	175.000	-4.267	.000

The results (table 4.27) were significant in both the terrorism and PI pairs, that is, version A of articles caused significantly higher risk concerns (lower mean ranking) than version B. This indicates that the null hypothesis can be rejected i.e. the variations in the presentation of the different components, or indicators, of risk, as discussed in the methodology chapter, produced an effect on the tourists' responses. The difference in tourists' perceived risk between the articles in the PI pair was larger (r= -.55) than in the terrorism pair (r= -.31). This smaller difference could be due to the lack of control people feel in association with terrorism, or the simple fact that a bomb explosion is intimidating, despite a variation in the event factors such as the perpetrators or targets. This explanation is contrary to the findings of the experimental research on terrorism of Woods (2011), which show that differences in the information concerning the perpetrators i.e. 'Islamic extremists' versus 'home-grown' terrorists, significantly influence perceived risk. However, notably, this research was conducted in a different context i.e. the risk of terrorism to US citizens, which may be completely different to assessing the risk to oneself in association with visiting a foreign country. In other words, as discussed before, tourists may be particularly sensitive to any information concerning terrorism. In the case of PI, the larger difference may be due to the fact that while information concerning large-scale unrest likely brings to mind a range of dramatic images (e.g. violent unrest in Egypt, Syria etc.) and scares people, the portrayal of an event as localised and under control reassures people of reasonably safe conditions. While it is difficult to explain, at this stage, which message elements

produced an effect, this aspect of interaction between news stories and audiences is explored in more depth in the interview findings section.

Table 4.28 Percentage of respondents who referred to the content of articles when making judgments of risk

Article type	Percentage of respondents that made reference to the content of article read
Terrorism A (N=30)	23.3%
Terrorism B (N=34)	17.6%
PI A (N=28)	28.6%
PI B (N=32)	50.0%

To examine the influence of news articles further, the respondents were also asked about what went through their minds when making a judgment of the risk involved in travelling to the country introduced in the scenario. The aim of this question was to observe whether the content of the different article versions, read by the respondents, appeared in comments they were invited to make. The open-ended responses were loaded into NVivo software and subsequently analysed. Responses that made references to the articles read were coded as 1, and responses that made comments unrelated to the article content were coded as 2. Next, the percentages of the respondents who referred to the content of the article (1) were used to gain a better understanding of the influence that the article had on tourists' judgments (see table 4.28).

These data confirmed the pattern of effect observed in table 4.26, that is, the larger difference in perceived risk observed between versions A and B in the PI pair of articles. This is reflected in the noticeably larger difference in the percentage of individuals who made comments related to the content of the article in the PI pair than in the terrorism pair. In other words, the suggested reasons of why scenario B involved less risk than scenario A resonated with the recipients of the PI articles more than with the recipients of the terrorism articles.

Subsequently, to address RQ8, a Mann-Whitney test was employed to examine the difference in the perceived risk between the frames concerning the event type i.e. PI versus terrorism.

The results (see table 4.29) indicate a statistically significant result between terrorism and PI in the B pair with a difference of a low to medium strength ($r= 0.337$). Although the tourists appeared to have perceived more risk associated with visiting the country after the PI A scenario after the Terrorism A scenario, the difference was not

statistically significant. The former result suggests that despite the information concerning an attack on police forces rather than tourists, the respondents of the Terrorism B article version perceived high destination risk, which was different from the perception of the audience of the PI B article (i.e. small scale unrest) who perceived a relatively low magnitude of risk. This further underscores the point made above i.e. a terrorist attack may be a much more deterring factor, at least in the short term, despite variations in its characteristics, than a case of PI which appears to be limited in scope. A reverse relationship was expected in the A version of the articles, where a severe version of PI, such as the recent events in Egypt or Syria, would be expected to be a lot more intimidating than a terrorist attack which specifically targets tourists or popular tourist areas. While this may also be complicated by other factors such as, for instance, weapon type, in general a terrorist attack, such as a bombing, shooting or kidnapping, represents a different degree of threat to a large scale event of PI, both in terms of the potential for physical harm, the geographical spread of vulnerable zones and the length of time in which a destination may be vulnerable to such actions. This, however, was not supported by the findings of this study. Having discussed the implications of manipulated media content on respondents' perceived risk, the analysis then focused on seeking to understand whether audiences' characteristics played a role in this process.

Table 4.29 Results of the Mann-Whitney post-hoc test for perceived risk and event type frames

	Perceived risk mean ranking		MUW	z	Asympt. Sig.
Article groups	Terrorism A N=30	PI A N=34			
	31.57	27.57	358.000	-1.066	.286
	Terrorism B N=28	PI B N=32			
	27.90	39.45	353.500	-2.612	.009
	Terrorism N=58	PI N=66			
	59.43	65.78	1723.500	-1.044	.297

4.4.1.1. Perceived risk and tourists' characteristics

Based on the differences in perceived risk between the allo/mid/psychocentric groups obtained from the questionnaire, it was estimated that similar differences would exist in the reception of articles manipulated in the experiment (RQ9). This was

confirmed by the significant result (p<.000) of a non-parametric Kruskall Wallis test between the three personality types across all four versions of the article.

Table 4.30 Results of the Mann-Whitney post-hoc test for perceived risk and allo/psychocentric audience types

Article groups	Perceived risk mean ranking		MUW	Z	Asympt sig
	Allo N=7	**Psycho N=5**			
Terrorism A	8.79	3.30	1.500	-2.715	.005
	N=7	**N=6**			
Terrorism B	8.00	5.83	14.00	-1.096	.366
	N=5	**N=6**			
PI A	7.25	4.50	7.500	-1.535	.177
	N=9	**N=5**			
PI B	8.83	5.10	10.500	-1.893	.058
	N=29	N=21			
All articles	904.00	371.00	140.00	-3.413	.001

To follow up on this result, a series of Mann Whitney tests were performed between the extreme groups of the psychocentrics and allocentrics in each article condition expecting the latter group to score higher (i.e. lower perceived risk). The results (see table 4.30) point to differences in the expected direction, however, the only significant result was noted with respect to the Terrorism A article (p<.005). The lack of significant results in the other groups may be due to the articles' content. For instance, the psychocentrics were less concerned about versions B of the articles - hence the gaps between the allocentric and psychocentric recipients were smaller. With respect to the PI A article, the lack of difference in perceived risk may have been due to the severity of the scenario i.e. it was equally intimidating to both allocentrics and psychocentrics. Interestingly, when the perceived risk of the allocentrics and psychocentrics was compared across all the article groups, a highly significant result (p<.001) was obtained. That is, regardless of the article read, the allocentrics perceived less risk (r= -.48) than their psychocentric counterparts. This result further supports the findings of the questionnaire and suggests that different tourist types also respond to information concerning destination risk in a specific pattern. Specifically, psychocentrics are more sensitive to message elements which suggest a deviation from an acceptable level of risk, than allocentrics. This finding is in line with a "cognitive-transactional" model of media effects (Perse, 2001, p. 51) which suggests that the effect of media content may be moderated by audience variables such as schema make-up and specific beliefs and attitudes.

4.4.2. Willingness to travel and fictitious articles

The respondents were asked about their willingness to travel to three different regions within the same country. These were Region A (seaside resort or beach region), Region B (remote natural area or adventure region), and Region C (cultural and historic heritage within a town/city or cultural region). The question was asked pre and post the reading of the article expecting the second rating to decline in response to the article. A Wilcoxon signed rank test was performed to test the differences between 'willingness pre' and 'willingness post' across all the article groups. As expected, the differences were found to be highly significant (p<.000) with regards to all three regions across the article groups.

The next step was to examine whether the decline in the willingness to travel was different across the article types and different regions. The raw mean scores of the willingness to travel pre and post the incident, and the percentage of decline are presented in table 4.31.

Table 4.31 The mean scores of willingness to travel pre and post incident

Region type	Article Groups	Willingness pre incident	Willingness post incident	Decline in willingness
		Mean		Percentage
Region A	Terrorism A	3.83	2.17	42%
	PI A	3.71	1.86	46%
	Terrorism B	3.68	2.65	26%
	PI B	3.84	3.25	15%
Region B	Terrorism A	3.70	2.67	27%
	PI A	3.61	2.25	37%
	Terrorism B	3.56	3.18	11%
	PI B	3.50	3.13	11%
Region C	Terrorism A	3.87	2.07	47%
	PI A	3.75	1.61	53%
	Terrorism B	3.79	2.32	38%
	PI B	3.88	2.84	26%

1= Definitely Avoid, 2= Rather Avoid, 3= Unsure, 4= Rather Visit, 5= Definitely Visit

While it has to be noted that, in some cases, the decline in willingness was smaller because the initial willingness to travel was lower, looking at the differences in decline between the article groups, per region, a pattern can be noticed (highlighted). Specifically, in respect of the influence of media frames concerning the magnitude of risk of terrorism/ PI in versions A of the article, as compared to versions B, there

appears to be consistently larger declines in the willingness to travel. Moreover, inspection of the scores indicates that this pattern also varies by region type. That is, some regions of the country were judged by respondents as more vulnerable than others. For instance, regions A and C appear to be judged as riskier than region B. This makes sense given that the articles were set in an urban setting i.e. a city square, rather than a rural area. In this sense, the 53% decline in the willingness to visit a cultural centre (region C) in a severe case of PI may be linked to vivid images of protests in Cairo which the article may have evoked. These findings indicate that the articles influence perceived risk and willingness to travel in different ways.

To follow up on this visual investigation of patterns in the data, a mixed model Anova was used to examine whether the differences between the article groups were statistically significant.

Table 4.32 Results of a mixed ANOVA for article groups and willingness to travel pre and post incident

Willingness to travel pre and post incident		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	P
Region A	Between groups	18.830	3	6.277	4.219	.007
Region B		7.723	3	2.135	1.068	.366
Region C		14.156	3	4.719	3.536	.017

The results (table 4.32) indicate that in regions A and C the difference between the willingness to travel pre and post the incident was significantly different between the article groups. Post-hoc tests were then employed to see which groups were different. In respect of whether the decline in the willingness to visit regions was contingent upon media frames concerning the magnitude of risk (RQ10), statistically significant differences were found between article PI A and PI B in region A (p<.003), and Region C (p<.004). Therefore, the hypothesis that the framing of the magnitude of risk influences the willingness to travel is only supported in the PI case. The decline in willingness was not dependent upon the different portrayals of risk in the terrorism pair, that is, it discouraged tourists regardless of changes in the characteristics of the event. In other words, while the respondents noted varying levels of risk in response to the articles (section 1.4.1), it appears that the manipulation of the content with regard to, for example, perpetrators, resident commentary etc., made little difference to their

willingness to visit a destination as the majority of the respondents felt intimidated by the potential harm. This further indicates that despite the negligible probability of becoming entangled in a terrorist attack, the mere possibility of it is enough to discourage many tourists from visiting a destination subject to such incidents.

In regards to the differences in the extent to which the PI articles influenced the decline in willingness to visit the regions included in the study (i.e. no effect in region B), the finding is consistent with the patterns observed in the mean scores (table 4.31). That is, regions A and C were possibly perceived as being more vulnerable to PI than region B, hence, the greater applicability of the article content to these settings would have determined the differences in the decline in willingness to visit these regions. In other words, given the perceived vulnerability of cities and tourists resorts to reported cases of PI, the schema of large scale unrest, activated by the media frame PI A, had a more deterring influence on the willingness to visit these regions than the schema of minor scale unrest activated by frame PI B. Consequently, no statistically significant difference in the decline in the willingness to visit region B between the article groups, may be due to the lower perceived vulnerability of this location to disturbances resulting from PI. While large scale unrest may undoubtedly affect rural areas (e.g. transport), it is possible that such images were less available in respondents' minds than frequently covered riots and social upheaval in urban areas.

To address RQ11, the tests were also run for the difference in the decline in willingness to travel between frames concerning event type i.e. terrorism versus PI. No statistical differences were found in this case. Therefore, it can be concluded that for these data, the willingness to travel to any region within the country decreased regardless of the event type. This further supports the thesis that while tourists recognise that PI and terrorism have different implications for personal risk, they avoid travel to destinations that may be unsafe regardless of differences in event portrayal.

4.5.   Survey-experiment findings discussion

With respect to RQ7, statistically significant differences in perceived risk were found between the readers of article versions A and B regarding both terrorism and PI. This finding confirms that the emphasis in salience on some aspects of a source of risk may result in different risk perceptions among message recipients. Moreover, it was also found that the difference in perceived risk between the readers of article A and B was larger in the PI scenario. The implications of this are twofold. Firstly, when judging

the risk involved in visiting a country subject to a terrorist attack, tourists may be less sensitive to information about the characteristics of the event and draw conclusions mainly on the fact that the event took place. In other words, destinations may be perceived as risky regardless of variance in the information about the perpetrators, location of the attack or the victims. This suggests that a range of others factors, such as a history of attacks or the ability of the destination authorities to manage the crisis, may have a bearing on tourists' post terrorist attack risk judgments. Secondly, the clear disparity in perceived risk between the readers of the Political Instability A article ('risk amplifying' PI) and the readers of PI B ('risk attenuating' PI), demonstrates that while tourists are relatively unconcerned about unrest portrayed as contained to small or non-tourist areas, its extreme expression is a source of grave concern.

With regards to RQ8, i.e. the influence of the event type on perceived risk, the only significant relationship was found between versions B of the articles. That is, the readers of Political Instability B perceived significantly less destination risk than the recipients of terrorism B article. This suggests that despite variations in event characteristics, a terrorist attack may be a much more deterring factor, at least in the short term, than a case of PI which appears to be limited in scope. A reverse relationship was expected in the A version of the articles, where the risk amplifying version of the PI article would be expected to be more intimidating than a terrorist attack, however this was not supported by these data.

The analysis then addressed RQ9 to determine whether the degree of allocentrism/psychocentrism, informed by the questionnaire-survey as a significant factor in determining perceived risk, translated into differences in reactions to the articles read by the respondents. Statistically significant differences were found only in the terrorism A article group, with allocentrics perceiving less risk than psychocentrics. Lack of significant differences in response to the other articles may be attributed to their content. That is, the risk attenuating article versions B meant that psychocentrics were less concerned, hence smaller gaps between psycho and allocentrics. Similarly, risk amplifying PI article resulted in more concerns among allocentrics, thus approximating the judgments of psychocentrics. This indicates that the influence of the personality type in responses to risk event news may be particularly strong when the information is neither overly severe nor negligible.

Having addressed the links between the news articles and perceived risk the analysis focused on the influence on their relationship with willingness to travel. With

respect to RQ10 i.e. the relationship between frames concerning the magnitude of risk and willingness to travel, a significant relationship was found only between the readers of the PI articles. Specifically, as a result of exposure to the article, the respondents assigned to article A were significantly more discouraged to visit the destination than those who read article B. Therefore, it can be argued that not only can framing news media result in significant differences in perceived destination risk; it can also determine the willingness to visit destinations subject to disturbances. No significant difference in the terrorism pair can be attributed to the reasoning discussed before i.e. terrorism is intimidating despite variations in event characteristics.

Finally, with respect to RQ11, no statistical differences in the willingness to travel were found between the frames concerning the event type i.e. terrorism and PI, irrespective of frames concerning the magnitude of risk.

Chapter 5: Interviews

The quantitative strand of research, reported in the previous chapter, demonstrated that variations in the content of the articles concerning terrorism and PI were associated with differences in perceived risk, and partly with willingness to travel. However, because the fictitious articles manipulated more than one aspect of the events (e.g. the perpetrators, victims, and location of the event), it was not known which element, or combination of elements, played a decisive role in influencing the tourists' judgments. Therefore, interviews were held with 12 of the previous respondents (three per article type) to obtain a richer understanding of the way in which the tourists interacted with the reports concerning the events studied, as well as to verify the quantitative findings. The specific research questions to be addressed were as follows:

RQ12: What message elements of media frames concerning the magnitude of risk of terrorism / PI are used by leisure tourists in making judgments of perceived risk?

RQ13: How are the message elements of media frames concerning the magnitude of risk of terrorism / PI used by leisure tourists in making judgments of PR and willingness to travel?

RQ14: What is the role of travel benefits associated with different destinations in the willingness to travel after a terrorist attack / event of PI?

The interviews followed the same structure as the experiment survey i.e. the respondents were placed in a holiday choice scenario involving a terrorism or PI news report. The participants were asked questions in reference to the answers they had provided in the survey experiment, concerning the dependent variables of perceived risk and their willingness to travel. In keeping with this structure, the following sections present findings regarding the relationship between news media articles and perceived risk (RQ12), followed by news media articles and willingness to travel (RQ13). The last section presents the findings in respect of the role of holiday benefits in the willingness to travel after crisis events of terrorism and PI (RQ14).

5.1. News media articles and perceived risk

5.1.1. Message elements noticed by respondents

To address RQ12 the respondents, having read the article, were asked to explain whether there was any particular part of the text that helped them in making the judgment of risk associated with visiting the country described in the article. The responses to this question were then coded for any reference by the respondents to the elements emphasised in the fictitious news articles they read. The graphs in the following sections show the frequency of the message elements, in the terrorism and PI news article pairs, being picked up by the respondents to explain the reasons underpinning their destination risk judgment. These data allowed the researcher to understand which elements of the message concerning the source of risk were considered to be the most salient by the recipients.

5.1.1.1. Terrorism A and B

In both article groups the dimensions of the 'targets' and 'perpetrators' constituted the majority of the references made by the respondents i.e. Terrorism A (72%) and Terrorism B (57%) (see figures 5.1 and 5.2). This finding is not surprising as perceived risk would be expected to be informed by the use of mechanisms such as the attribution of responsibility for the event to specific perpetrators or the representativeness of the victims of the perpetrators' motives. Such qualitative aspects of the hazard would consequently be expected to indicate to tourists the probability of being affected.

Beyond this, the proportion of references to the perpetrators was higher in Terrorism A article (46%), which could be explained by a clearer connection between al-Qaeda and terrorism in the respondents' minds. Conversely, separatist organisations (the perpetrators in Terrorism B article) may not be at the fore front of tourists' minds when thinking of international terrorism. The least references in both article cases were made to Vox Populi commentary concerning the event atmosphere and confidence level. This was surprising as respondents were expected to take into account the evaluation of events as perceived by other civilians; however, the relationship is possibly complicated by other variables. For instance, it is possible that information may be received differently (the level of trust in the commentary) depending on whether the sources cited are local civilians or tourists. While the latter element was not

employed in this thesis, it is not uncommon for news media to cover an event as portrayed by tourists, either victimised or residing in the vicinity of the incident.

Figure 5.1 Terrorism A news article – frequency of references to message elements
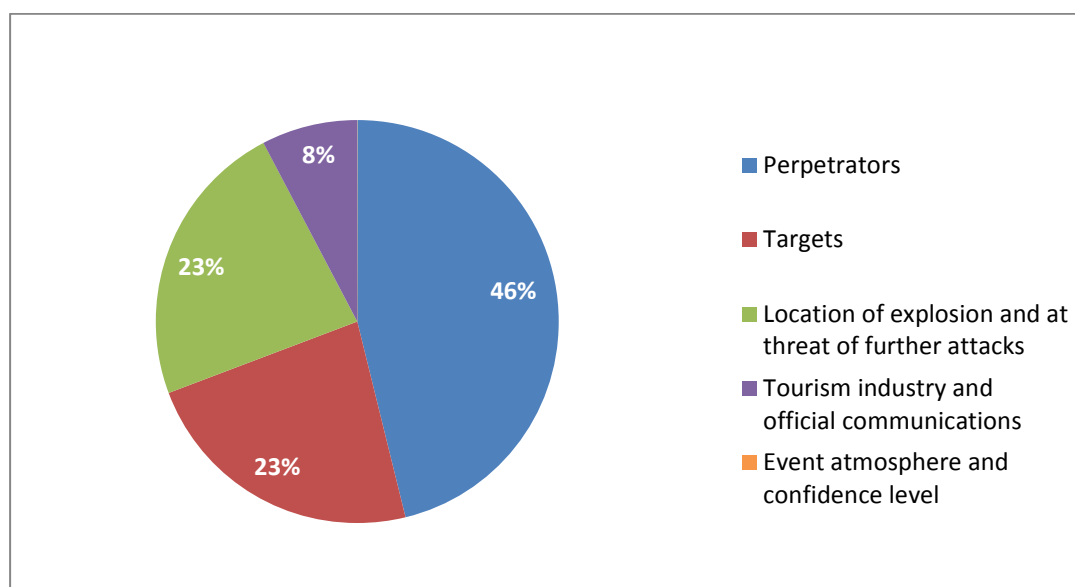
Figure 5.2 Terrorism B news article - frequency of references to message elements
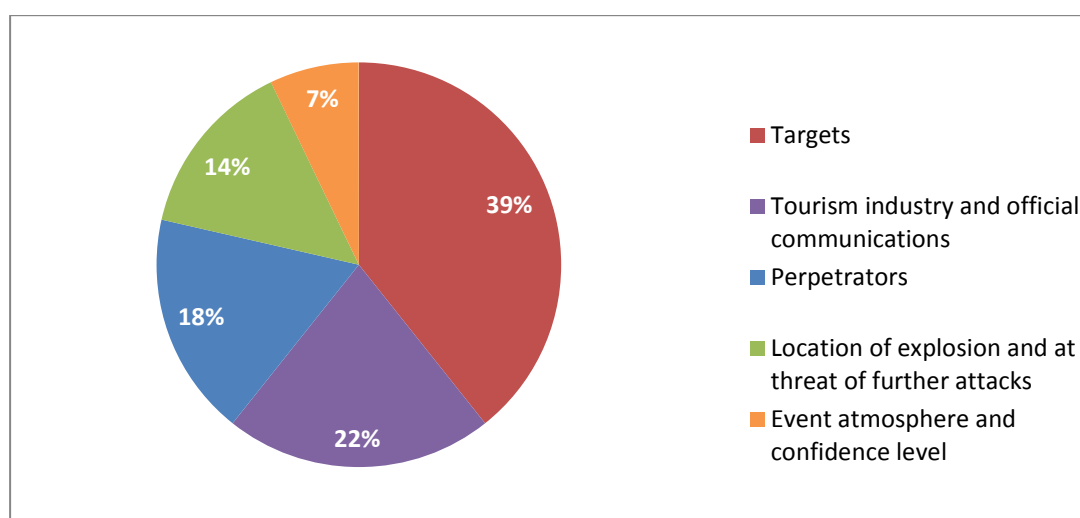
5.1.1.2. Political Instability A and B

Graphs were produced for the PI A and B articles. The elements which appear to have resonated with the receivers in both the PI A and B articles were 'Geographical spread and consequences', 'Tourism industry and official communications' as well as 'Disruptions to transport'. This suggests that, as hypothesised when creating fictitious articles, these aspects of PI events may be particularly important in tourists' judgments concerning destination risk.

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Figure 5.3 Political Instability A news article - frequency of references to message elements
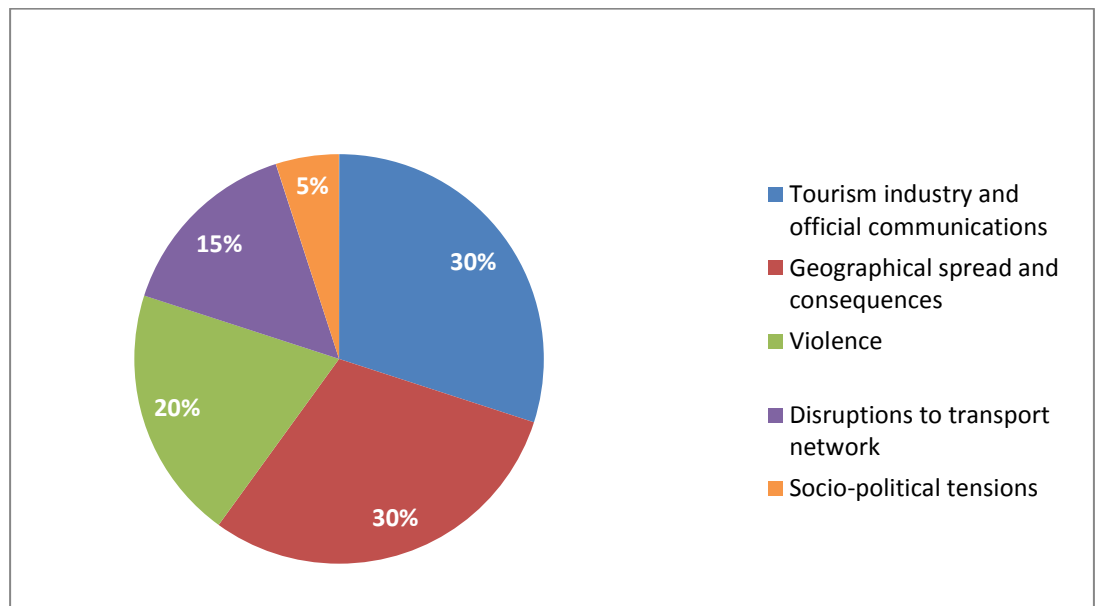
Figure 5.4 Political Instability B news article – frequency of references to message elements
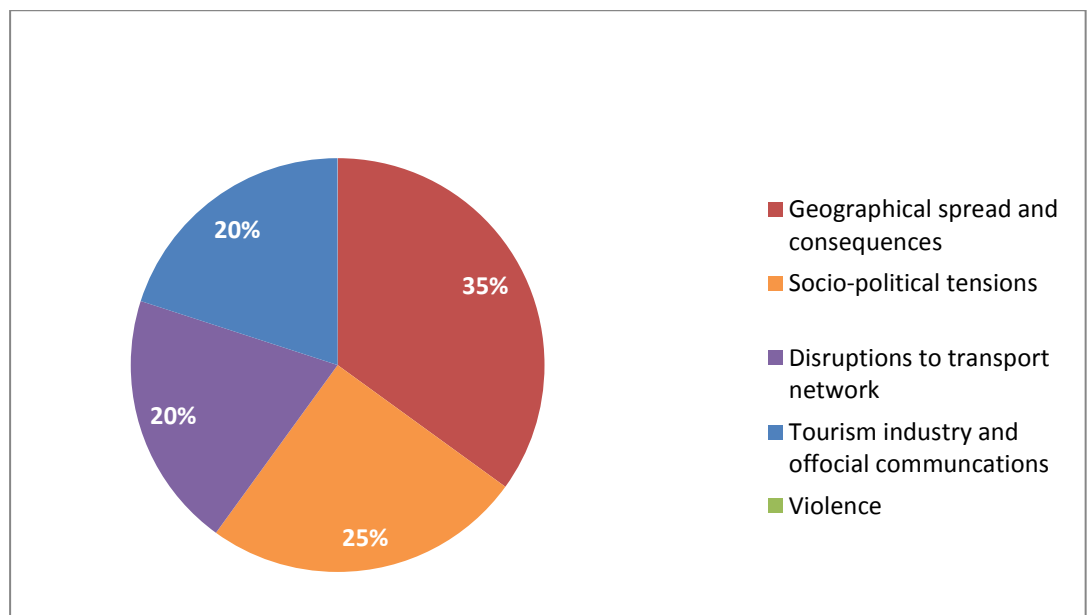
As expected, the emphasis on 'violence' in PI A news article resulted in this message element being picked up by its receivers (20%), while not mentioned at all by the respondents in the PI B news article group. Overall, the graphs, representing the frequency that the message elements were noticed by the recipients, are useful in understanding the potential differences in the effect on perceived risk of media frames employed in different articles. However, they tell nothing about the way that the tourists used these message elements to make risk judgments. With this point in mind the following sections are set out to address this gap.

5.1.2. Message elements – direction of use in risk judgments

To investigate the interaction between the message elements embedded in the news articles and the recipients in greater depth (RQ13), a model of the cognitive frame by Scheufele and Scheufele (2010) was used (see figure 5.5). The model is a simple depiction of the interplay between a recipient's network of cognitive schemas and a newspaper article. By emphasising certain aspects of a story (the white circles in the bottom level of the model), for instance, tourist targets and responsibility for the event linked to al-Qaeda, the newspaper article invites the recipient to interpret the story in a particular light (media frame) i.e. involving more or less risk. The extent to which this information has an effect on a recipient depends on her/his network of schemas, or, in this case, her/his schema of a terrorist act or an event of PI. Such schemas are a network of ideas and beliefs that helps people process subsequent information, for instance, news articles on a terrorist attack.

While the model proposed by Scheufele and Scheufele (2010) was not created for the purpose of studying the impact of risk communication on audiences, it is applicable to this context. In fact, it is closely related to the concept of the mental models of hazard which is a specific direction in risk communication (Bostrom et al., 1992; Morgan et al., 1992). As noted by Breakwell (2000), mental models of hazard are used to understand the beliefs people have of specific hazards (both accurate and inaccurate), in order to develop risk communication that will correct misunderstandings. However, the mental models approach can also be used to understand how individuals evaluate incoming risk messages to form risk judgments by using conceptual maps to represent the interaction between audiences' representations of risk (primed by the risk message) and the content of the risk message.

Referring back to the model (see figure 5.5), if the message elements emphasised by a newspaper article resonate with certain parts of a recipient's schema of an event (the white bulbs at the top level) more than others (the dark bulbs), they are made applicable to the issue at hand. That is, the media frame activates four of the recipient's terrorism related schemas by means of applicability and provides a lens (current mental model) through which to interpret the issue or event, in this case, a risk judgment.

Figure 5.5 Model of a cognitive frame
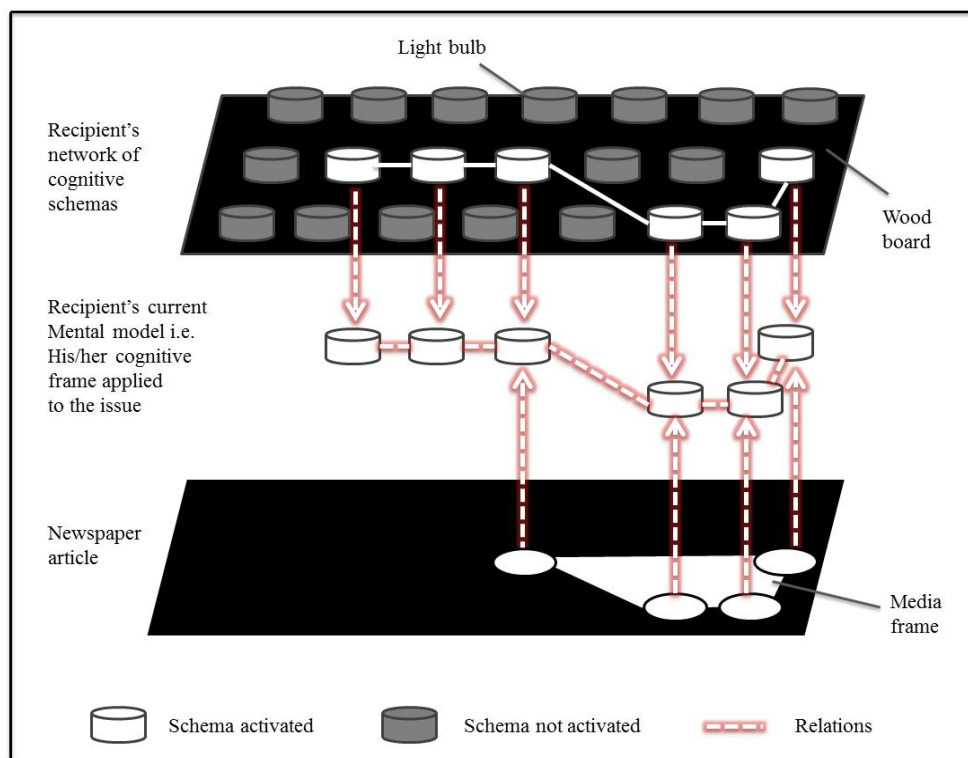
Adapted from: Scheufele and Scheufele (2010)

An individual may also evoke schemas which were not emphasised by the newspaper article, but are in line with the direction of the media frame, and judge them as applicable to the issue at hand as a result of spreading activation (the two white bulbs on the left at the top level). For instance, reading about an event perpetrated by al-Qaeda, an individual may think of a memorable incident such as the 9/11 attack on the World Trade Centre despite no information in the article that would suggest connectivity between the events. As a result, the images of a fearsome event motivated by Islamic extremism with multiple western casualties may amplify the receiver's perceived risk. Importantly, an individual may also oppose and negotiate the meaning of the article, and judge an issue through the lens of available thoughts and beliefs (schemas) which oppose an interpretation promoted by the media frame embedded within a particular media text. For instance, despite no connection between a terrorist attack and al-Qaeda made in the report, an individual may use the template of the Bali bombings to conclude what the event he/she is currently reading about might be like. Whichever strategy is employed by the audience members, in effect, a specific mental model of the event is a function of the media frame and its applicability to respondents' cognitive schemas.

Using Scheufele and Scheufele's model, a series of mind maps were created to reflect the depth of the interaction between each of the 12 interview participants and the article types to which they were exposed. The following paragraph explains in detail the meaning of the different parts of the mind maps (see below fig. 5.6 to 5.17).

Starting from the top of the diagram, at level 1 is the news article and its expected direction of influence on perceived risk. This is signified by the letters employed in the experiment (i.e. article versions A and B) as well as by different colours i.e. red (risk amplifying) or green (risk attenuating). At level 2 are the elements of the media frame embedded in the news article. The colours signify the direction of each of the message elements used on the perceived magnitude of risk involved in the scenario. Apart from the red and green colours which correspond with the article type (level 1), the blue colour signifies a message element which was not intended to promote any particular interpretation of the issue. At the time of constructing the fictitious article, these elements were treated as 'core fact', or 'frameless' elements (Van Gorp, 2010, p. 94), which were held constant across all articles. Specifically, these include the: 1) commentary from the FCO about no advice issued against travel to the country described in the scenario and event relevant guidelines, and 2) tourism commentary concerning no downturn in the number of visitors to the country (in the terrorism articles) and the limited impact on the transport network (in the PI articles).

Next is the recipient's current mental model (CMM) of perceived risk (level 3). The downward connectors between a level 2 message element and a CMM element at level 3 represents a situation where the recipient makes a reference during the interview to a message element included in the article read. The different colours of the elements at level 3 signify the direction in which the message element was used by the recipient i.e. risk amplifying (red colour), risk attenuating (green colour), or unsure/unspecified/opposed (blue colour). The latter category signifies situations in which the recipient mentioned a particular message element and A) was unsure as to the risk implications; B) did not specify the perceived risk implications; or C) opposed the risk implications suggested by the message element. The symmetrical connection between a message element (level 2) and a recipient schema (level 4) signifies an active role of recipient in his or her interaction with the message. That is, the recipient picks up a particular message element and seeks to find meaning by relating it to a pre-existing network of schemas or adopting it without verbalizing a connection with schematic structures. Level 4 represents all comments made by the recipient in

association with the event read about and the concept of risk in general. Finally, level 5 represents the recipient and his or her demographic and psychographic characteristics obtained from the questionnaire-survey.

5.1.2.1. Terrorism A news article version and risk judgments

The first three mind maps created with the use of NVivo software are representations of the interviews with three recipients of the terrorism A article with different characteristics (see table 5.1 below). The mind maps are presented in the order which mirrors this presented in table 5.1. As an example of the relationship between the mind maps and the transcripts, the transcript associated with John's mind map (Figure 5.6) is presented in appendix 12.

Table 5.1 Terrorism A news article – interview participants

Interviewee	Article Read	Perceived risk	Tourist personality type	Gender	Age group
John	Terrorism A	3	Allocentric	Male	55-64
Melissa		2	Midcentric	Female	18-24
Joshua		2	Psychocentric	Male	35-44

1 = Very worried; 2 = Somewhat worried; 3 = Neither worried nor unworried; 4 = Not very worried; 5 = Not at all worried

Figure 5.6 represents a case of the power of the recipient to reject and oppose a particular way of interpreting the event as suggested by a news text. Interestingly, this was despite John's awareness of events which closely correspond to the media frame promoted by the article to which he was exposed i.e. he recalled the Bali bombings with attention to detail (level 4). John consciously refused to apply this frame to the current situation as, in his view; neither event was an indicator of high personal risk. In a rational manner, he supported this judgment with arguments concerning the minimal chances of being involved in such an incident and the tighter security post an attack. The rest of John's network of schemas evoked during the interview (level 4) contradicted the elements of the news text and appear to have largely determined the CMM (level 3) he applied to interpret the situation. Specifically, John's comments on the bias inherent in media reporting, his trust in the tourism industry to keep him out of harm's way as well as the fact that he is single i.e. has no one to worry about, have clear implications for his perception of risk involved in visiting the destination he read about.

Figure 5.6 John's mind map.
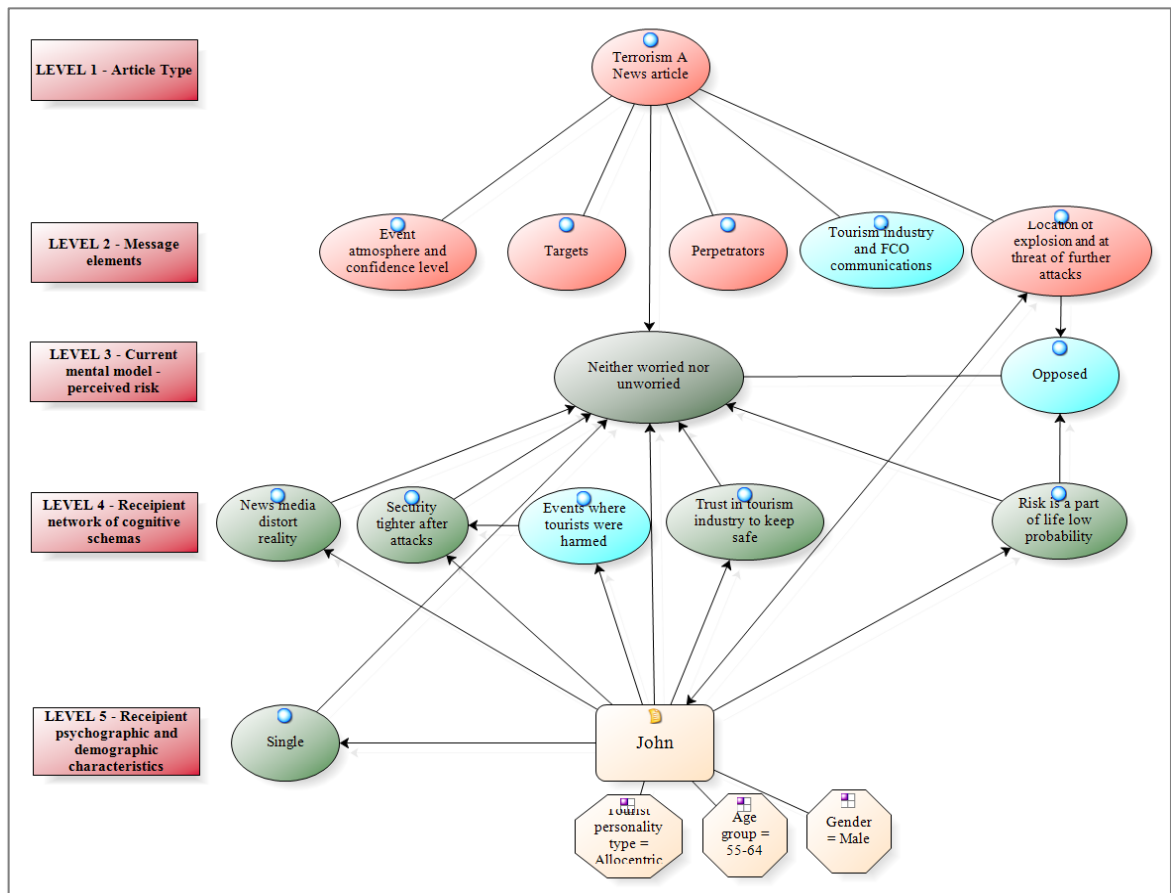
Figure 5.7 is a case of a much richer engagement of the recipient with the message content. Despite having made references to the majority of the manipulated news article elements (level 2), as in the case of John (Fig. 5.6), it is evident that Melissa's network of schemas (level 4) played a critical role in her final CMM (level 3). While Melissa perceived the location of the bombing as an indication of the lethal intentions of the perpetrators and the threat of indiscriminate attacks, other schemas activated in response to this information (level 4) clearly allayed these concerns. Specifically, the attribution of responsibility to al-Qaeda (perpetrators), the emphasis on tourist victims (targets) as well as the location of the bombing, were marginalised by Melissa due to the perceived speculative nature of the report. Moreover, much as in the case of John, the tourism industry and FCO communications resonated with her trust in the ability of the tourism industry to provide safe conditions. While the relative strength of each of Mellissa's CMM elements is unknown, the connection she made between the location of the explosion and the potential for further indiscriminate attacks appears to have had a bearing on her final judgment. Overall, Melissa took a negotiated position where the interpretation of the media content was a mixture of adapted and rejected elements

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which were only partially in accordance with the media frame promoted by the fictitious article.

Figure 5.7 Melissa's mind map
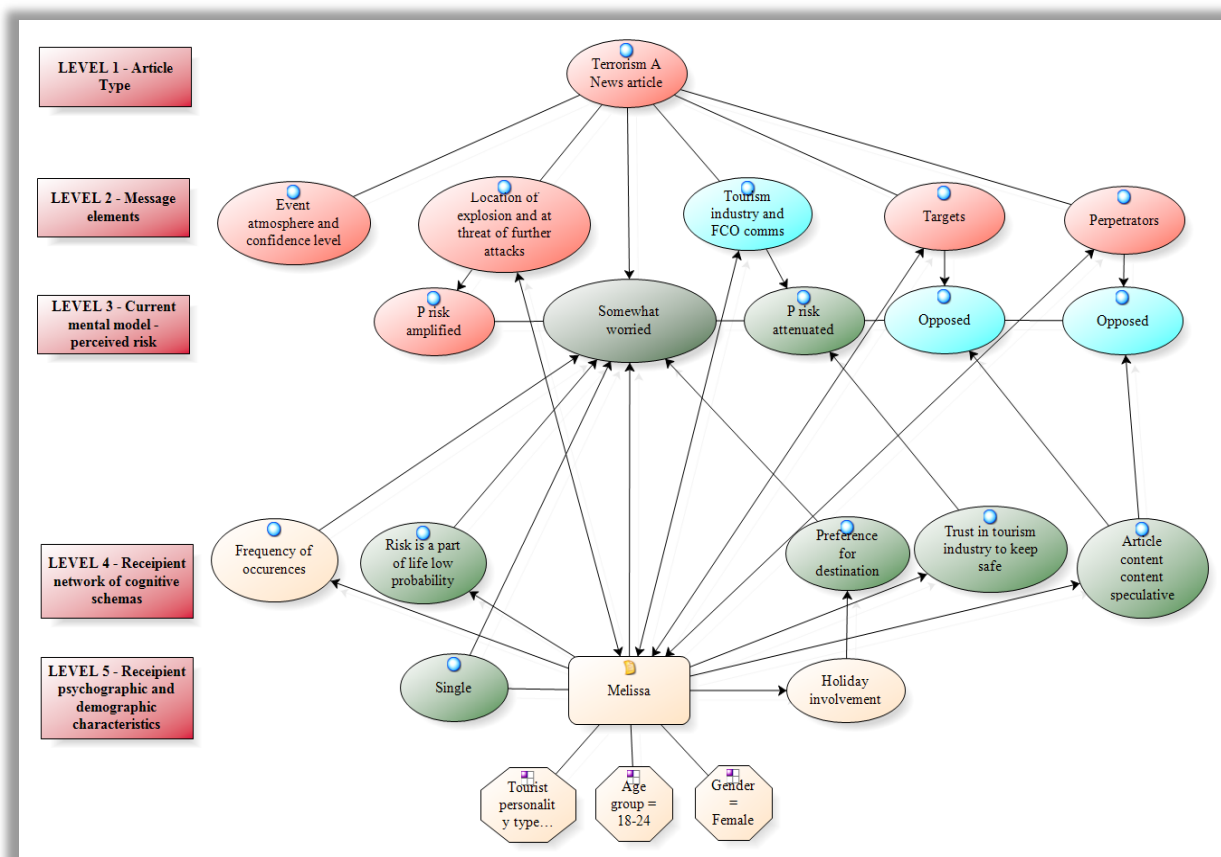
Joshua (fig. 5.8) represents a similar case of message interaction to Melissa (fig. 5.7). Although the 'targets' and 'perpetrators' elements found reflection in Joshua's knowledge of the issue (level 4), he did not perceive these to have any implications for his personal risk. Like John, he recalled the Bali bombings and concluded that he would not be anywhere near the places frequented by tourists who typically become victims of such attacks i.e. young backpackers. In both cases, this judgment is arguably a manifestation of the representativeness heuristic (Kahneman and Tversky, 1972) i.e. a judgment of the probability of being victimised made on the basis of the similarity of the event described in the article to other memorable attacks perpetrated by al-Qaeda (in this case purposive targeting of nightclubs and backpackers). However, rather than concluding that all tourists would be at risk, both interviewees perceived limited personal risk based on the event template employed. Interestingly, this could also imply a bias in judgment, as despite the Bali attacks of 2002 which targeted nightspots popular with young tourists and backpackers (Vaughn et al., 2009), many other events attributed

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to the group (including the Bali attacks in 2005) involved victims beyond the nightclub environment e.g. restaurants, modes of transport, heritage sites etc. This confirms the assertions of many researchers (e.g. Kahneman and Tversky, 1974; Gigerenzer and Selten, 2002; Shah and Oppenheimer, 2008), that is, while efficient, heuristics often lead to incorrect judgments of probability. Beyond this, what came through clearly in this case was the influence of Joshua's role as head of a young family (level 5) on what he initially perceived as no reason to worry. He found the location of the attack a possible source of anxiety for his wife, which essentially reduced the attractiveness of the country described in the scenario as a potential holiday destination.

Figure 5.8 Joshua's mind map
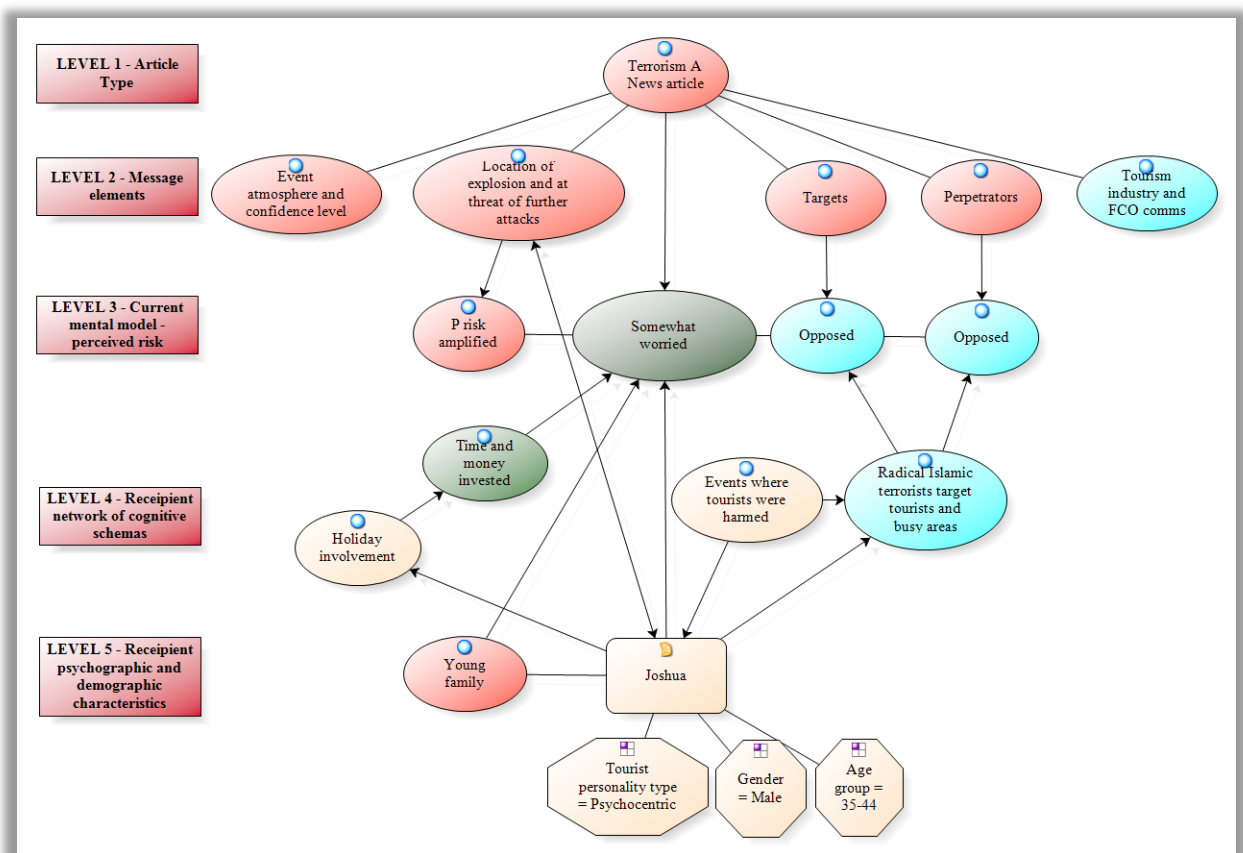
Overall, despite the statistically significant effect of the Terrorism A article on the perceived risk observed in the survey-experiment, the interviews with the first three participants of this group were a stronger case for limited effects. This indicates that a range of factors from levels 4 and 5 of the cognitive media frame model, play a role in the way people interact with a news message, which may limit the effect of a media frame (fig. 5.7 and 5.8) or reject it altogether (fig. 5.6). Interestingly, John (fig. 5.6) and Joshua (fig. 5.8) are a case of audience members who are clearly aware of the media frame that is suggested to them, yet consciously choose not to interpret the situation

through its lens. This indicates that while a media frame may be encountered and recognised by a member of an audience, the effect does not occur unless it is made applicable in her/his context (Scheufele, 2004). This confirms the finding by Price and Tewksbury (1997) who identified interpretative frames drawn on by readers of news stories, irrespective of the framing processes used by the media. They found that participant thoughts did not depend exclusively on the media coverage of an event or issue, rather "participants demonstrated a capacity to introduce their own thoughts, going beyond the information provided and drawing out some basic implications on their own" (Price and Tewksbury, 1997, p. 496).

5.1.2.2. Terrorism B news article version and risk judgments

Subsequently, the analysis focused on the three interviews with the respondents of the survey-experiment with the characteristics shown in table 5.2. While the survey-experiment findings demonstrated statistically significant differences in the perceived risk between the readers of terrorism article versions A and B, the gap between the scores on the dependent variable was smaller than in the case of PI. The data were then analysed to examine the potential differences in how the article content was used by the interviewees to reach conclusions.

Table 5.2 Terrorism B news article – interview participants

Interviewee	Article Read	Perceived risk	Tourist personality type	Gender	Age group
Alex	Terrorism B	3	Allocentric	Male	25-34
Valerie		2	Midcentric	Female	55-64
Brian		2	Psychocentric	Male	35-44

1 = Very worried; 2 = Somewhat worried; 3 = Neither worried nor unworried; 4 = Not very worried; 5 = Not at all worried

Figure 5.9 depicts a case of an effect of news text on a respondent's risk perceptions. Specifically, Alex made references to the non-civilian 'Targets' element of the message (level 2) which found reflection in his schema of ETA attacks in Spain on government and military targets (level 4). Alex made a number of statements which indicated that he considers that a link between separatist groups and tourist targets is unlikely, hence less probable to affect him personally (level 3). It is clear that rather than relying on concrete statistics concerning the number of attacks on non-civilians, Alex took a mental short-cut in making this judgment. While he has also drawn

conclusions contradictory to the interpretation suggested by the media frame (red ellipse at level 3) i.e. the mere fact that separatists exist in the country means danger, his trust in accurate advice from the FCO appears to have alleviated his concern. Beyond this, the emphasis on the resilience of locals to the incident ('Event atmosphere and confidence level' vox pop at level 2) resonated with Alex's experience of a trip to Madrid post the 2004 bombings, where, from his perspective, life went on undisturbed. Following the same train of thought, the link between the lower judgment of risk and the behaviour of other people was also evident in the interviewee's comment concerning fellow tourists i.e. limited cancellations in response to the incident.

Figure 5.9 Alex's mind map
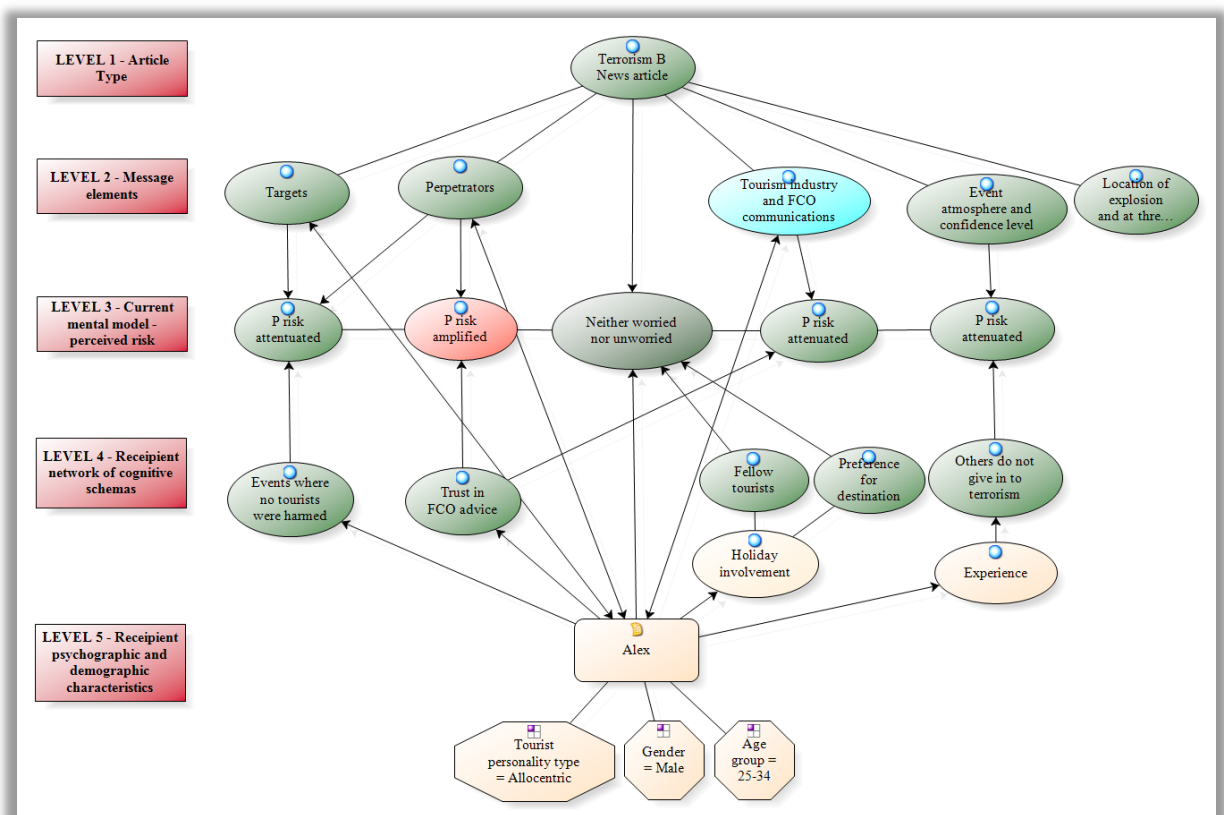
Valerie's mind map (fig. 5.10) shows that her interpretation of the event (level 3) was in close correspondence with the meaning promoted by the fictitious article (level 2), therefore an equally strong case for a media effect. While Valerie paid no attention to the people responsible for the attack ('perpetrators' at level 2), she used the remaining elements of the message in the expected direction to arrive at a coherent picture of the situation. As depicted at level 3, a series of statements that Valerie made in reference to elements of the promoted frame (level 2) to explain her strategy for arriving at a risk judgment, clearly connect and reinforce each other. While the diagram

indicates that some of the message elements resonated with Valerie's beliefs (ellipses on the right at level 4) others (on the left at level 2) appear to be directly adopted into her CMM (level 3). Specifically, the non-civilian targets, the bomb explosion near to a police vehicle, FCO advice, as well as the refusal of locals to change their lifestyle in response to the incident, suggested to Valerie a relatively safe situation.

Figure 5.10 Valerie's mind map
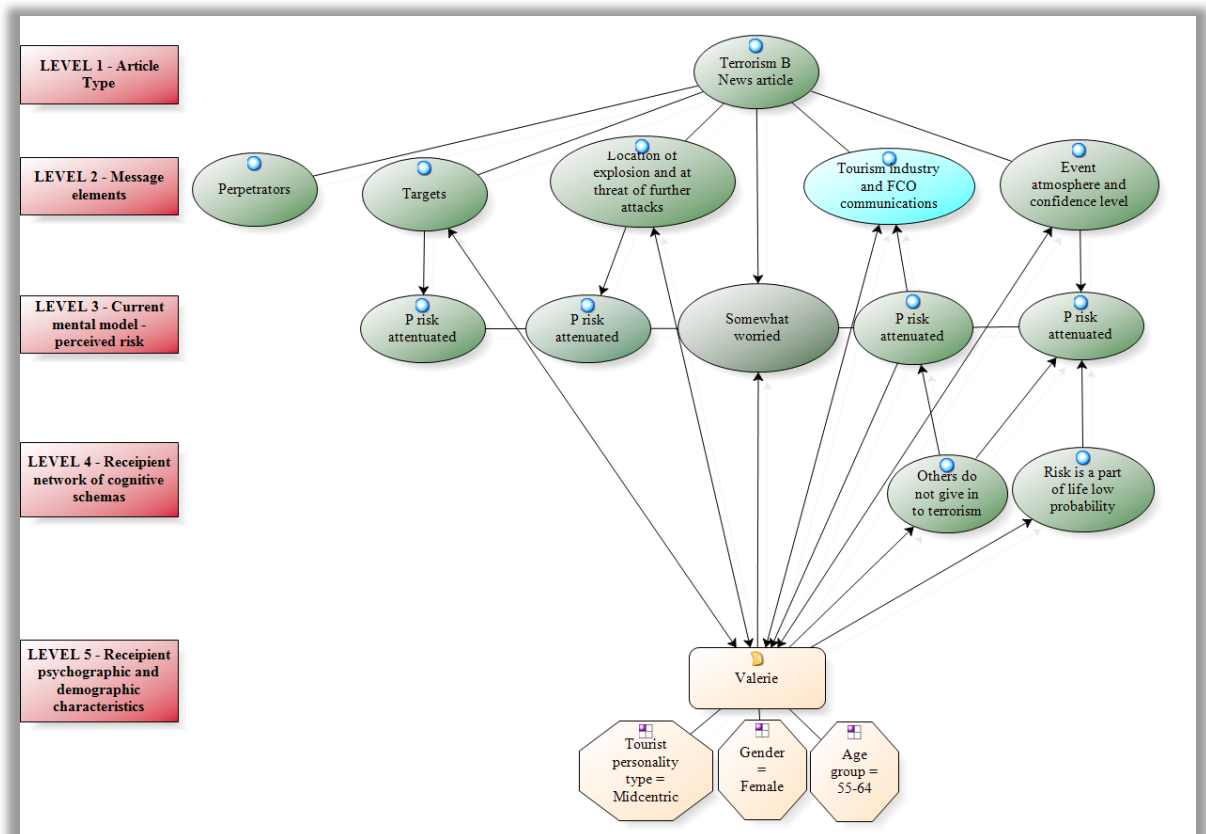
Interestingly, the conclusion Valerie reached through explaining her thoughts does not correspond with the risk judgment she made during the survey-experiment. This indicates that the strategy she employed in making risk judgment at these two different points in time may have been different. Possible reasons for the heightened risk judgment made in the survey-experiment may be related to less elaboration, hence a quicker risk judgment made with the use of affect heuristic (Slovic et al., 2007). Although not treated as an element of manipulation here, the word terrorism itself may be treated as a powerful cue (e.g. Breckenridge et al., 2010; Woods, 2011) on which to draw conclusions concerning the magnitude of risk. Conversely, the opportunity to explain her thoughts during the interview and rationalise the judgment, potentially resulted in her attributing to the situation less risk than she had previously judged.

Moreover, a change in Valerie's reaction to the article content during the interview may have also been due to the impact of the interviewer on Valerie's desire to resist overreaction and appear more reasonable in the face of a 'media scare'. From this perspective, Valerie's mindmap represents an interesting case of duality of conscious thinking in action (Evans, 2008; Van Gelder et al., 2009; Glockner and Witteman, 2010; Martin and Woodside, 2011). That is, information processing and judgments guided by system 1 (rapid, intuitive and automatic) versus system 2 (slow, logical and rational). While efficient and effortless, the use of system 1 has its drawbacks in that judgments made via this route may be based on stereotyped thinking and superstitious beliefs (Norris and Epstein, 2011), for instance, drawing conclusions on media speculation and simplified accounts of issues and events that may deviate from reality.

Similar to the three respondents who read terrorism A article, the next diagram (see fig. 5.11) is a case of the receiver using a schema (level 4) to adapt the article content in a way that leads to an interpretation (level 3) contrary to that promoted by the article (level 2). However, unlike John (fig. 5.6), Brian perceived the message elements (level 2) through the lens of his schema network (level 4) in a way that led him to interpret the situation as particularly threatening. His comment "It's because, maybe I read the history where the terrorist acts happened" indicates that his diagram may be a case of a media effect created by prior media coverage, as suggested by Scheufele and Scheufele (2010). Specifically, in contrast to Alex (fig. 5.9) and Valerie (fig. 5.10), he rejected the suggestions made with regards to non-tourist targets and vividly recalled a number of high profile terrorist attacks which involved multiple tourist casualties (e.g. the Bali and Casablanca bombings, and the Luxor shootings) to help him arrive at a heightened perception of risk. Thus, despite the differences in the characteristics of the event he read about in the fictitious article as compared to those he recalled, the latter were used as a media template (Kitzinger, 2000) to help him arrive at a meaning. This train of thought is also evident in Brian's distrust of the advice made by the FCO, revealed by the following statement "they are just trying to downplay this". Therefore, this case of the perceived risk judgment can be interpreted as another demonstration of the representativeness heuristic. Beyond these internal factors, as in the case of Joshua (fig. 5.8), Brian's young family (level 5) appears to have a particularly strong influence on the way he interacts with the message.

Figure 5.11 Brian's mind map
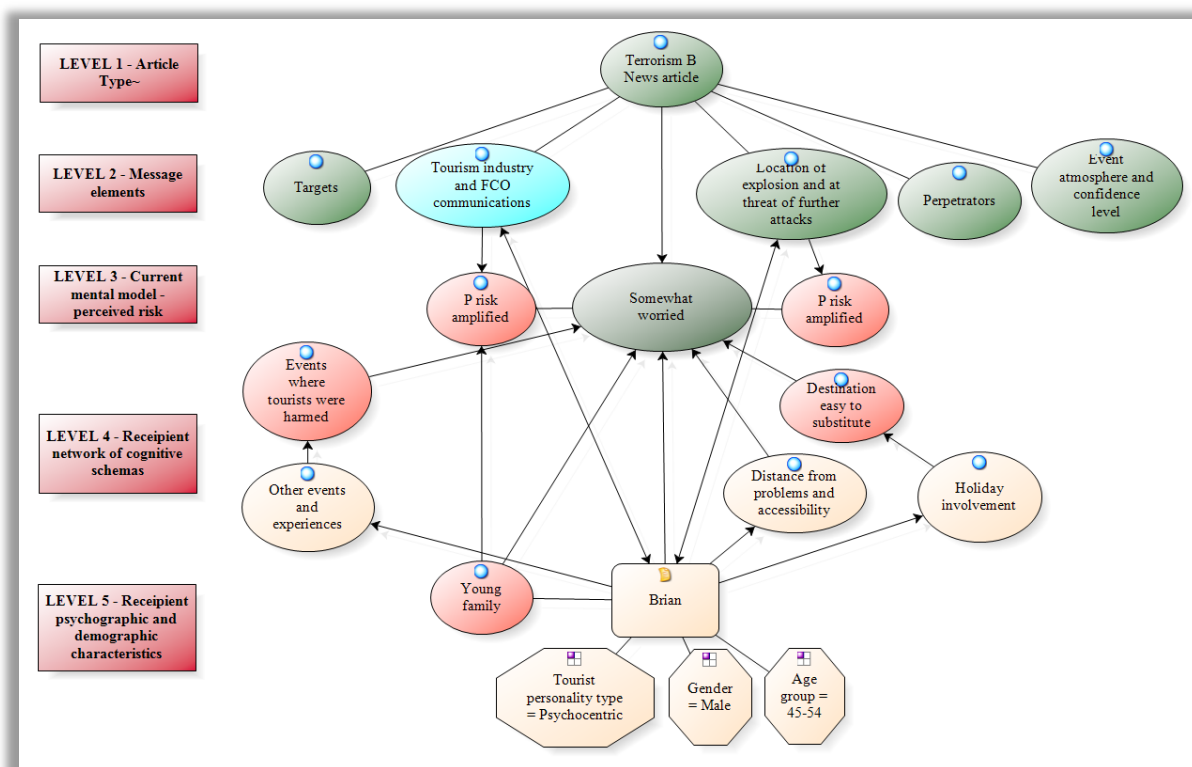
In comparison to the three interviews with receivers of the terrorism A article, group B is a case for a media effect. Alex and Melanie clearly used the media content to arrive at their CMM's which were consistent with the promoted media frame. Moreover, despite Brian's rejection of the terrorism B frame, he used a schema which corresponded more closely with the terrorism A frame (a possible effect of previous media coverage) and produced its intended effect. The latter indicates that the media content may cause effects that are hard to predict and control (Scheufele, 2000). While the risk judgments of the interviewed readers of article versions A and B are not as different as the experiment suggests, the six mind maps provide an in-depth view of the news article and tourist interaction. Interestingly, underpinned by previously discussed theories, these cases demonstrate a range of outcomes of tourists' exposure to media texts, and underscore the complexity involved in the process of their reception and interpretation.

5.1.2.3. Political Instability A news article version and perceived risk

The same approach was used to represent the interaction between the news articles of PI A and their readers. Unfortunately, no psychocentric respondents agreed to

participate in the interview. Instead, an additional interview with an allocentric interviewee was arranged (see table 5.3).

Table 5.3 Political instability A news article – interview participants

Interviewee	Article Read	Perceived risk	Tourist personality type	Gender	Age group
Paige	PI A	4	Allocentric	Female	25-34
Lucy		2	Allocentric	Female	25-34
Omar		1	Psychocentric	Male	35-44

1 = Very worried; 2 = Somewhat worried; 3 = Neither worried nor unworried; 4 = Not very worried; 5 = Not at all worried

Paige (see fig. 5.12) is one of the few participants from the PI A survey-experiment sample who perceived a limited amount of risk in response to the article. Much like John, she used her trust in the FCO advice and tourism industry (level 4) to oppose the media frame and arrive at an alternative CMM (level 3). However, unlike John, Paige spoke of her trip to Egypt after demonstrations sparked by President Morsi's decree in 2012 giving him extensive new powers (BBC, 2012). In doing so she referred to several situations during her holiday where she felt protected by the Egyptian security forces and the tourism industry (level 4). For instance, in explaining her point of view she said:

> "from my experience to go into such country … you are with a guide all the time, they do not just let you wonder around town … and all the bits that you go … you are with the guide, and tourists are looked after and protected"

This first-hand experience also appeared to reinforce her trust in the accuracy of the FCO travel advice and had a decisive influence on her interpretation of the situation (level 3). The confidence in judgment, made on the basis of this schema of PI, was also evident in the way Paige dismissed the information about the violent nature and fears among the local population.

Figure 5.12 Paige's mind map
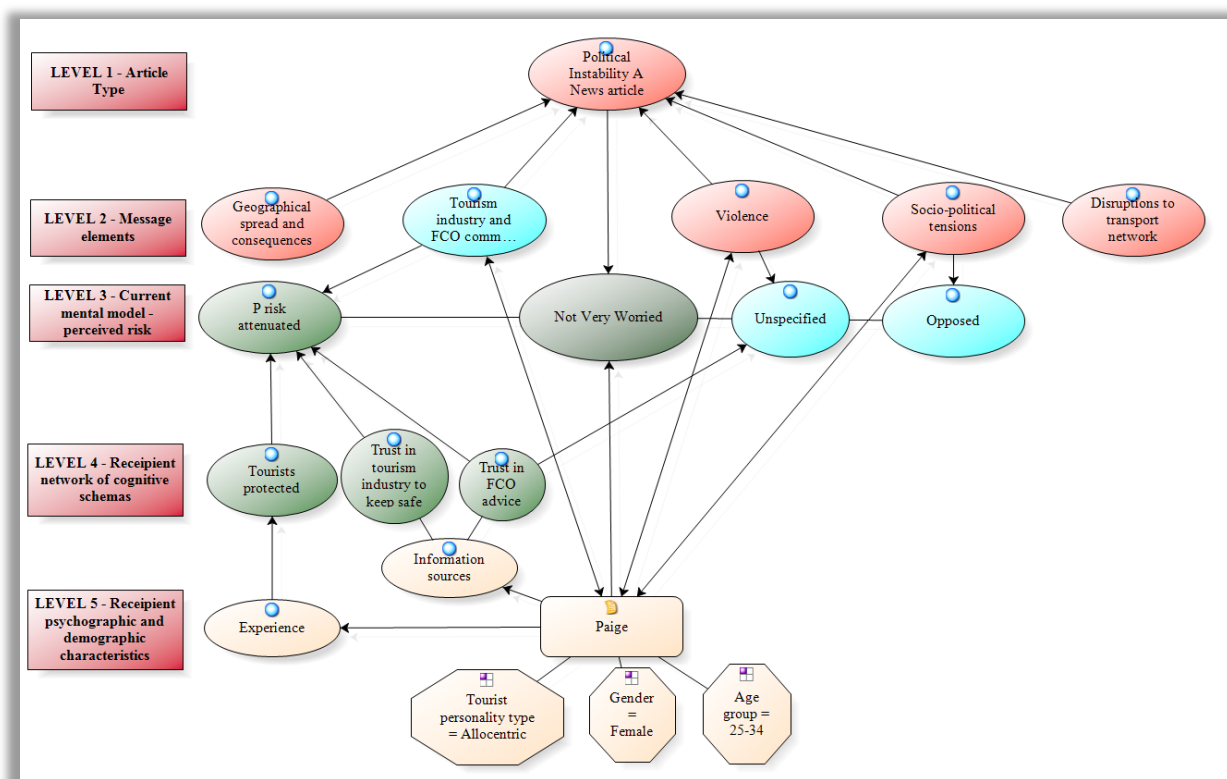
A mind map of Lucy's interaction with the news text (see fig. 5.13) is a case of a moderate media effect. In explaining her thoughts, it become apparent that the emphasis on the violent nature of the protests (level 2) activated Lucy's schema of large-scale unrest events in Libya and Egypt (level 4) and alarmed her (level 3). The effect this had on other elements of her CMM (level 3) was evident when she made the following statement in reference to the FCO advice:

> "They could either just say that because they don't want to make anyone really upset and worried and freaked out, or they could just say that because it's really not that bad. I couldn't really judge how serious it is".

A degree of cognitive dissonance was also evident in the way Lucy sought to find a solution by comparing the information to her schema of risk on holidays. Her experience indicated that representations of high risk concerning the places she had travelled to (backpacking in South Africa and cycling solo across New Zealand) which she had been exposed to via word-of-mouth and news media were a distortion of reality. Despite the possibility that the event she read about was a similar case, the information

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she picked up from the text (level 2) clearly aided her interpretation of the situation as unsettling (level 3).

Figure 5.13 Lucy's mind map
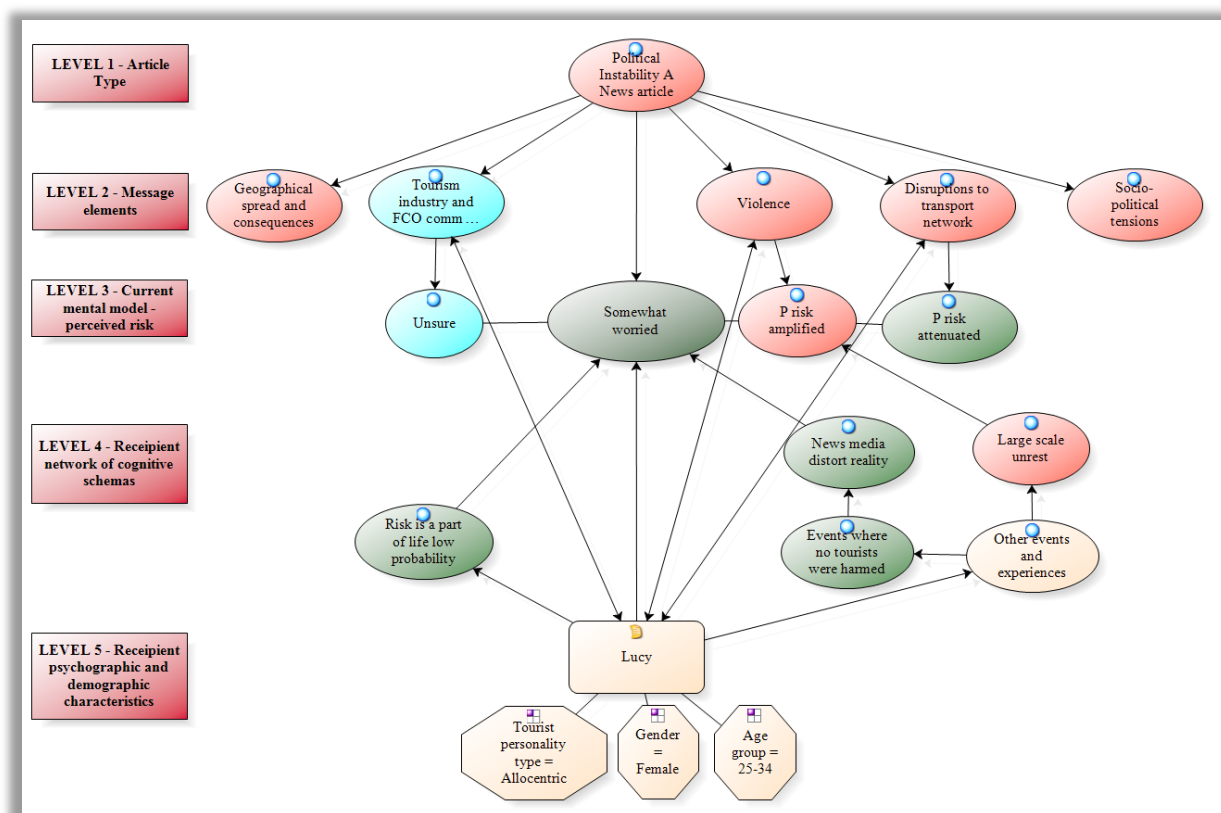
Omar (see fig. 5.14) represents a strong case for a media effect which resembles the diagram of Valerie (fig. 5.10). He made several references to the message elements and used these in the direction promoted by the article (level 3). Interestingly, the emphasis on the extent of the geographical spread and the consequences of unrest for public safety and order (level 2) contradicted his views on the usual level of control one has in avoiding riots (two green ellipses on the right in level 4). As a result, the information encountered by Omar about the event took priority in Omar's judgment to an extent where it clearly affected the way he viewed other information embedded in the text (i.e. elements at level 2). For instance, in respect of the FCO advice he said: "I am quite sure if it's just a local … one off event I don't think there would be a warning, asking tourists to stay clear of gatherings". On a theoretical level, Scheufele and Scheufele (2010) and Chong and Druckman (2007b) argue that, if a media frame reorients a receiver's schema (as in Omar's case) consistently over a period of time, this leads to media framing altering audience schema (i.e. transformation effect). In this

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sense, what became an element of Omar's CMM (level 3) at the time of discussing the article could potentially become part of his stable schema (level 4).

Figure 5.14 Omar's mind map
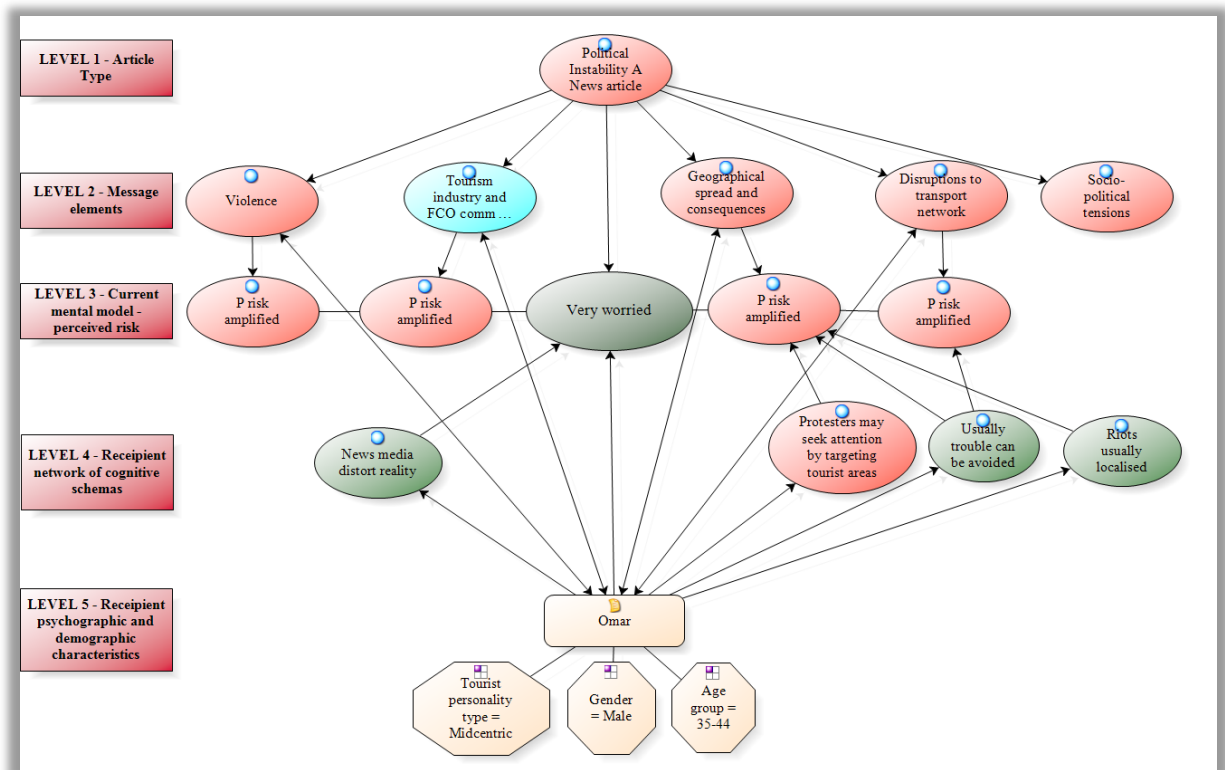
Much like the mind maps of the Terrorism A and B recipients, the three interviews with the PI A article readers point to the cognitive-transactional model of media effects (Perse, 2001). That is, cognitive and affective effects of salient media content (via the emphasis of certain aspects of a story) which largely depend on audiences' schema make-up (Scheufele and Tewksbury, 2007).

5.1.2.4. Political instability B article version and perceived risk

The last three interviews were conducted with the participants of the PI B news article group (see table 5.4).

Table 5.4 Political instability B news article – interview participants

Interviewee	Article Read	Perceived risk	Tourist personality type	Gender	Age group
Beth	PI B	4	Allocentric	Female	18-24
Claire		4	Midcentric	Female	55-64
Adam		2	Psychocentric	Male	35-44

1 = Very worried; 2 = Somewhat worried; 3 = Neither worried nor unworried; 4 = Not very worried; 5 = Not at all worried

Figure 5.15 depicts Beth's thoughts on the article and represents another case of a media effect. While she made no connections between the media text elements (level 2) and her network of schemas related to the event she read about (level 4), the conclusions she has drawn to arrive at her CMM (level 3) clearly correspond with the meaning promoted by the article. After she had made a series of statements which explain how she arrived at her perception of risk, she concluded: "those kind of things gave me reassurance that it's still ok. So it wouldn't worry me too much".

Figure 5.15 Beth's mind map
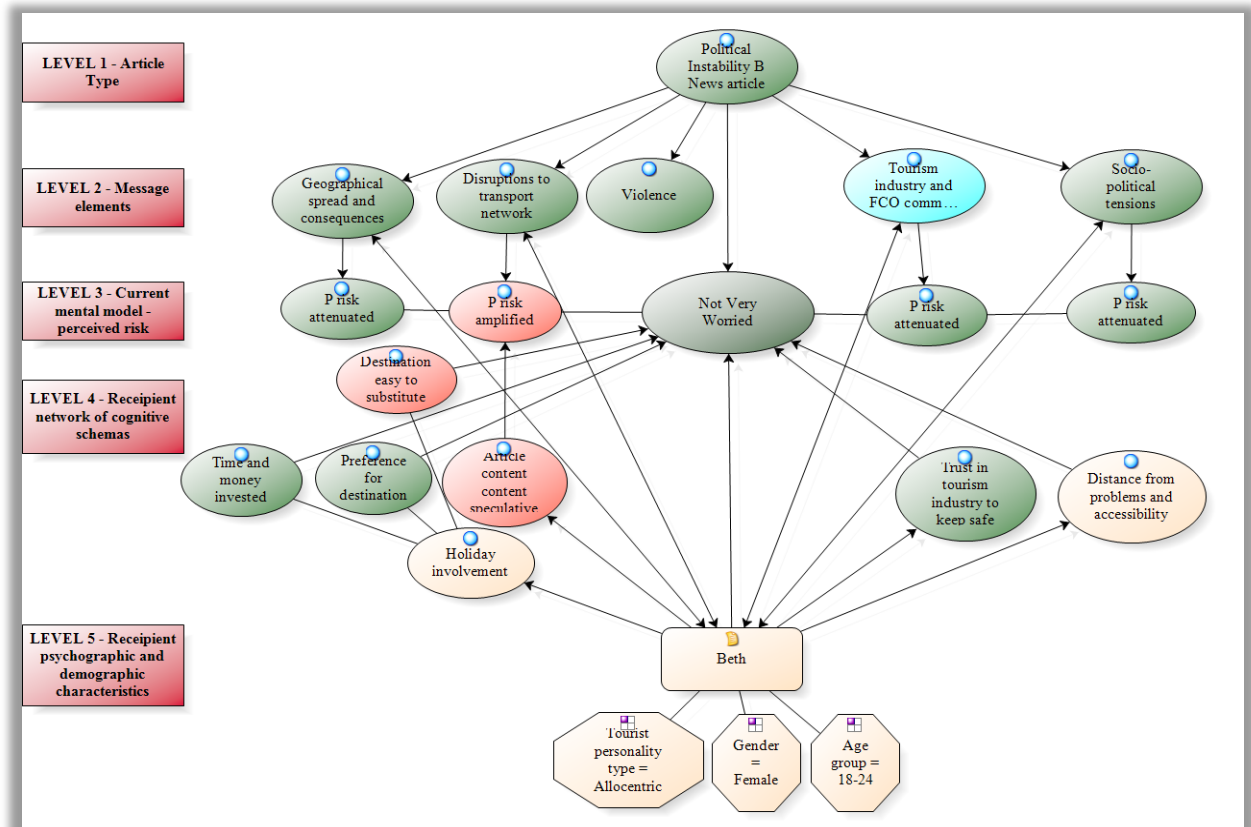
Much like Beth (fig. 5.15), Claire (see below, fig. 5.16) perceived a limited amount of risk associated with visiting the destination she read about. In her case, the emphasis on the limited geographical spread of the protests (level 2) appeared to have been decisive in how she perceived the situation (level 3). As in the case of Beth, Claire's adoption of the media frame in the direction promoted by the news article, also translated into a lower perception of risk. Importantly, this supports the statistically significant difference between the perceived risk of the PI A and PI B article groups obtained from the experiment, while capturing the complexity of the interaction between the news article and receivers.

Figure 5.16 Claire's mind map
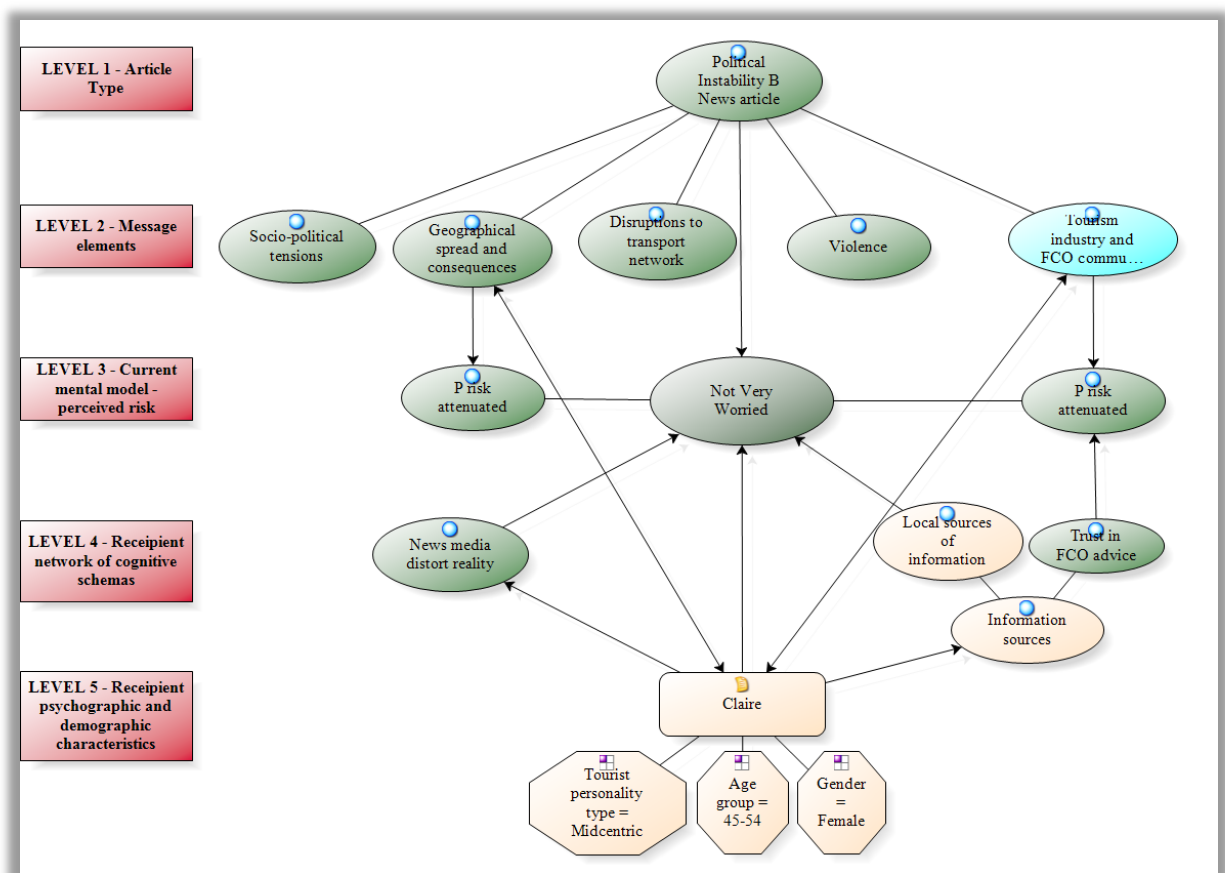
Lastly, the diagram representing Adam's thoughts on the article (see fig. 5.17) resembles the case of Brian (fig. 5.11). He opposed the interpretation of the event promoted by the elements embedded within the article (level 2) to adapt the content to his network of schemas (level 4) in a manner which amplified his risk perception. Specifically, he used a schema of large scale unrest in Egypt (level 4) to reject the emphasis on the contained character of the protests (level 2), and concluded "these small or large gatherings can at some point get out of hand really quickly, so that was

one thing that affected my decision". As in the case of Brian, Adam's statements indicate that the conclusion he reached is arguably an effect created by prior media coverage. Specifically, he said "I am not the type of person that really keeps up with the world affairs, but these things you hear them, as soon as you read them they come to you and you think … what if … might sound a bit overcautious but hey".

Figure 5.17 Adam's mind map
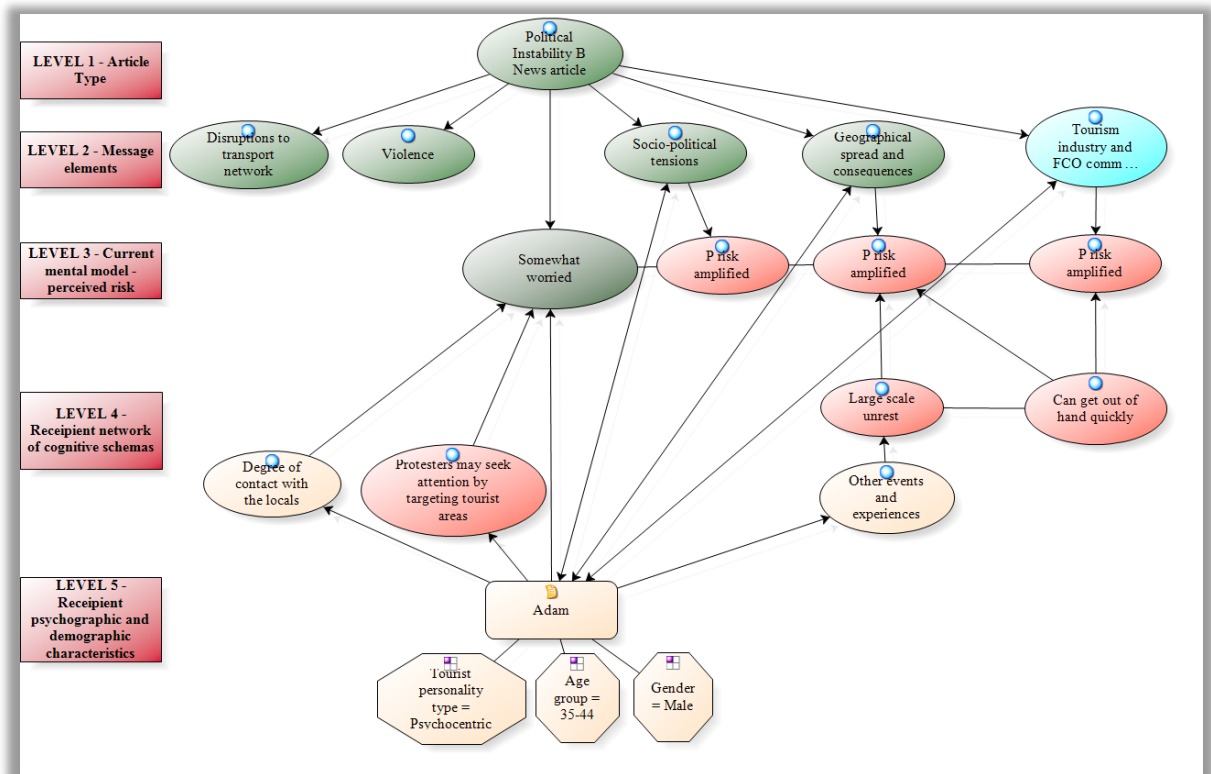
Despite uneven groups of A and B article receivers (psychocentric missing in PI A), the differences in influence on perceived risk of the article type were much clearer than in the terrorism condition. This relative clarity of pattern reflects and further supports the statistically significant effect obtained from the survey-experiment.

5.1.3. News media articles and perceived risk findings discussion

In summary, the above 12 mind maps demonstrate the complexity and dynamics involved in the interaction between news texts and their receivers, and the implications of this process for risk judgments. With respect to the patterns of effect obtained in the experiment-survey, the interview findings support this result. That is, the difference in the respondents' destination perceived risk between readers of article versions A and B is clearer in the case of PI than terrorism. This suggests that for these data, as proposed

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in the survey-experiment, tourists have a tendency to draw conclusions regarding perceived risk on the fact that an attack occurred (i.e. the mere possibility of another attack) rather than variations in the characteristics of the event (e.g. the perpetrators or victims). For this reason, the respondents' ratings of risk post reading of the terrorism article are similar in both versions A (risk amplifying) and B (risk attenuating), as opposed to the PI article where differences are much clearer. Moreover, while it is evident that, much like humans, each of the mind maps is a unique construct, certain commonalities between them can be observed. Specifically, the following three points summarise the possible outcomes of this process:

1. A media frame can be rejected altogether if it is not compatible with a receiver's schema. Schemas considered by the receiver as applicable to the situation at hand are used to arrive at an alternative interpretation of an issue or event. This includes schemas created by previous media coverage that may be conflicting with the media frame encountered (e.g. Adam and Brian).

2. A media frame is partially accepted: while some parts resonate with receivers, others are rejected (e.g. Melissa, Joshua, Lucy). CMM may depend upon the weight attached to elements picked up from the message. Schemas compatible with the media frame encountered may be available and accessible (i.e. the memory of similar events is easily recalled) but not applicable to the personal context of receivers (e.g. Joshua, John).

3. A media frame is accepted: A) without previously existing schemas (or evidence verbalised) (e.g. Valerie, Beth); B) existing schemas are reinforced (Alex); C) existing schemas are transformed (e.g. Omar).

In respect of RQ13, as evidenced by the mind maps, the ways in which the respondents used the specific message elements employed in the article they were exposed to (versions A and B) were largely complicated by the receivers' schema make-up and so clear patterns were difficult to observe. That is, as with the effect of media frames overall that was observed in the survey-experiment, the effects of each of the message elements within versions A and B were not uniform. While some readers of versions B used the manipulated content in the expected direction (i.e. Beth, Claire, and Alex) to judge the situation as less risky, others (i.e. Adam and Brian) found the scenarios indicative of high risk. Likewise, some readers of versions A interpreted the situation as involving high risk (i.e. Omar), while others completely rejected the

meaning promoted (i.e. John and Paige) or negotiated its meaning with the use of their schemas of events (i.e. Melissa, Joshua, and Lucy).

The cases discussed in this chapter point towards a cognitive-transactional model of media effects (Perse, 2001). The effects are not uniform and are largely complicated by the receivers' schema make-up. Therefore, while the effects can take place, as demonstrated in a few cases (e.g. Valerie, Alex), they are very difficult to control or predict. In other words, it can be argued that for these data, the extent to which a media effect on perceived risk takes place also largely depends on: 1) the availability of schemas in the decision-maker's mind which resonate with message elements he or she encounters, and 2) the applicability or appropriateness of the activated parts of the schemas as a basis for making a risk judgment. For instance, just because a receiver recalls a terrorist attack perpetrated by al-Qaeda or a severe event of PI which corresponds with the media frame promoted, it does not mean that he or she considers this an indication of personal risk. An individual may, for example, conclude that he or she would not be anywhere near 'trouble spots' such as nightclubs.

5.2.   News media articles and willingness to travel

Having addressed the relationship between media frames concerning the magnitude of risk and perceived risk, the analysis focused on its link with tourists' willingness to travel (RQ13). The experiment-survey indicated that post reading of the article the recipients responded with varying levels of decline in the willingness to travel to the three regions in the country described in the scenario. The findings can be summarised as follows:

- The difference in the decline in the willingness between readers of article A and B was larger in the case of PI than terrorism.

- The influence of the article upon willingness to travel was not uniform. That is, certain regions were avoided more than others.

The interview sought to verify these findings and obtain a richer account of the reasons behind the judgments. To achieve this, each of the interviewees was asked to explain the reasons behind their judgments made in the experiment-survey. The following sections are structured in a way that first discusses the key themes concerning willingness to travel to regions A, B, and C in response to the fictitious news articles Terrorism A and B.

5.2.1. Terrorism article versions A and B

5.2.1.1. Region A

The tourists' judgments of willingness to travel to region A (i.e. beach resort) pre and post exposure to the article made in the experiment-survey are presented in table 5.5. As can be seen by looking at the scores reported, three of the interviewees reported low initial willingness to visit region A. This meant that the declines in willingness to travel were smaller and consequently more difficult to visibly attribute to the fictitious article's content.

Table 5.5 Willingness to travel to region A pre and post exposure to the terrorism news article

Interviewee	Article Read	Willingness to travel to region A		Tourist personality type	Gender	Age group
		Pre article exposure	Post article exposure			
John	Terrorism A	3	3	Allocentric	Male	55-64
Melissa		4	4	Midcentric	Female	18-24
Joshua		2	1	Psychocentric	Male	35-44
Alex	Terrorism B	3	2	Allocentric	Male	25-34
Valerie		4	1	Midcentric	Female	55-64
Brian		4	1	Psychocentric	Male	35-44

1 = Would definitely avoid; 2 = Would rather avoid; 3 = Neither; 4 = Would rather visit; 5 = Would definitely visit

Regardless of the article version read, the interviewees perceived region A as a valuable target, hence vulnerable to potential further terrorist attacks. This perception was attributed by readers of both article versions mainly to mass tourism and nightlife intensive character of the region. For instance, in explaining this point of view Joshua said "a nightclub might be an obvious target for Islamic fundamentalists because they would be so opposed to the behaviours exhibited in a nightclub". This pattern was also evident in Brian's comments, who, despite having read version B of the article, recalled and made applicable to the situation the coverage of events which correspond with version A of the article (e.g. the Bali bombings). His conclusion was that he would definitely avoid this region due to the clear implications for the safety of his family. This connection between a beach resort and an increased risk of terrorism in the interviewees' minds can be interpreted as the direct or indirect influence of news reports

concerning terrorist incidents such as Bali. In addition, the readers of Terrorism B article version were alarmed by the presence of security forces (the emphasis of article B on police targets). While this indicates that in the making of the judgment, the receivers took into account the content of fictitious news texts and/or exposure to news in the past, it needs to be noted that a lack of willingness to visit this region was also attributed by respondents of no initial preference for this type of holiday (see table 5.5). For instance, despite indicating in the experiment-survey that she 'would rather visit' (i.e. '4') the region, Valerie said "it's not that I would avoid it because of the terrorism threat, it's just not somewhere I would go".

Overall, for these data no clear patterns of the difference in the decline in willingness to travel between readers of article A and B were observed. This, as discussed above, was partly due to no initial preference for this region among some of the interviewees, and partly because terrorism appears to be a deterring factor despite variations in event characteristics.

5.2.1.2. Region B

In contrast to region A, and regardless of the article version, region B was perceived as relatively safe due to the perceived lack of its value as a target of further terrorist attacks. This was attributed by respondents to risk indicators specific to this region such as: less people (including security officers) and secluded location. To illustrate this, for instance, John said "I don't think anybody is going to start bombing a few hikers going into the hillsides". This suggests in the case of region B, the decline in the willingness to travel post the attack was smaller because the article content was not considered by the recipients to be applicable to this region. This meant that, as in the case of region A, no clear differences of the decline in the willingness to travel between readers of article versions A and B could be observed.

This said, the articles read by the interviewees clearly resonated with their schema of urban location bombings which lead them to dismiss the possibility of other terrorist tactics such as kidnappings or shootings, and resulted in a minor decline in the willingness to travel to this region (see table 5.6). In other words, the articles promoted a certain view of interpreting the situation to the exclusion of others, which is the function of framing. Arguably, a scenario such as the 2013 assassination of adventure tourists in a mountainous region of Pakistan (Telegraph, 2013) would have created an opposite effect. This suggests that while no clear differences in response to articles A

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and B were observed, tourists evaluate the content of incoming information with the use of their knowledge of hazards, and in response, they may choose to avoid or travel to regions they perceive to be at more or less risk rather than lose interest in travelling to a country altogether.

Table 5.6 Willingness to travel to region B pre and post exposure to the terrorism news article

Interviewee	Article Read	Willingness to travel to region B		Tourist personality type	Gender	Age group
		Pre article exposure	Post article exposure			
John	Terrorism A	4	3	Allocentric	Male	55-64
Melissa		5	5	Midcentric	Female	18-24
Joshua		4	5	Psychocentric	Male	35-44
Alex	Terrorism B	5	4	Allocentric	Male	25-34
Valerie		5	4	Midcentric	Female	55-64
Brian		5	3	Psychocentric	Male	35-44

1 = Would definitely avoid; 2 = Would rather avoid; 3 = Neither; 4 = Would rather visit; 5 = Would definitely visit

5.2.1.3. Region C

In keeping with region A, regardless of the article version read, region C was perceived by interviewees as particularly vulnerable to further attacks. This makes sense given that the scenario described in the article was set in an urban environment which resembled the description of region C. Its vulnerability was attributed by the interviewees to the following aspects: larger population (including more security), key landmarks, and points of higher density e.g. markets, shopping centres, restaurants etc.

Notably, unlike region A, region C was perceived by interviewees as an attractive destination pre reading of the article, which meant that the declines in response to the article content were clearer (see table 5.7). However, the pattern of differences in the willingness to travel to this region between readers of article A and B was contrary to the one expected. That is, the decline in response to the terrorism B article (risk attenuating) was greater than in response to the terrorism A article (risk amplifying). This result can be explained by the applicability of the content of both articles to region C, insofar as a bomb in a city square puts potential tourists at risk regardless of suspected targets (police vs. civilian targets) or perpetrators (al-Qaeda vs. separatists).

Furthermore, it underscores the complexity involved in communicating risk to the public and the dependence of the process upon message recipients' schemas.

Table 5.7 Willingness to travel to region C pre and post exposure to the terrorism news article

Interviewee	Article Read	Willingness to travel to region C		Tourist personality type	Gender	Age group
		Pre article exposure	Post article exposure			
John	Terrorism A	4	4	Allocentric	Male	55-64
Melissa		5	3	Midcentric	Female	18-24
Joshua		5	3	Psychocentric	Male	35-44
Alex	Terrorism B	4	3	Allocentric	Male	25-34
Valerie		5	1	Midcentric	Female	55-64
Brian		4	1	Psychocentric	Male	35-44

1 = Would definitely avoid; 2 = Would rather avoid; 3 = Neither; 4 = Would rather visit; 5 = Would definitely visit

5.2.2.   Political Instability article versions A and B

5.2.2.1. Region A

Having discussed the respondents' willingness to travel to the three regions in response to the terrorism news articles, the analysis focused on the case of PI. In this respect, an investigation of the respondents' judgments (see table 5.8) showed that only one of the respondents (Omar) reported a notable decline in the initial willingness to travel to region A due to the article PI A content. In this case, while realising that region A was not in the same region where the unrest he read about was, the interviewee indicated that he would definitely avoid the region and attributed this judgment to the message elements manipulated in the fictitious article i.e. the potential for the escalation of conflict. To explain his decision Omar said "there is a possibility that further violent protest could spread to other locations across the country and … sometimes the best way for protesters to be noticed is to go to tourist areas".

While the decline in the willingness to travel was clear only in this case it could be argued that in the case of Lucy and Paige (both readers of the PI A article), no change was related to an overall lack of preference for this region. In this sense, it can be argued that this data supports the findings of the experiment-survey concerning the

statistically significant difference in the decline in willingness between the readers of article A and B (i.e. as hypothesised, a larger decline in version A).

Table 5.8 Willingness to travel to region A pre and post exposure to the political instability news article

Interviewee	Article Read	Willingness to travel to region A		Tourist personality type	Gender	Age group
		Pre article exposure	Post article exposure			
Paige	PI A	2	2	Allocentric	Female	25-34
Lucy		2	3	Allocentric	Female	25-34
Omar		5	1	Midcentric	Male	35-44
Beth	PI B	5	5	Allocentric	Female	18-24
Claire		5	5	Midcentric	Female	55-64
Adam		5	4	Psychocentric	Male	35-44

1 = Would definitely avoid; 2 = Would rather avoid; 3 = Neither; 4 = Would rather visit; 5 = Would definitely visit

A limited decline in the willingness to travel to the region among the readers of article version B was evident (apart from the scores reported in table 5.8) in the interviewees' comments that were largely unconcerned about the capital city bound protests. Moreover, they perceived region A as offering a level of control in avoiding protests i.e. in case of an escalation stay within hotel grounds which offer protection. For instance, according to Beth, "If in close surroundings there were riots, or protest happening, then I would, you know, just not leave the hotel, that's about it, so there wouldn't be any change of plans". This further indicates that despite the applicability of the news article to recipients' schemas of unrest (e.g. in Egypt), this frame of mind was not applicable to the beach resort region.

5.2.2.2. Region B

The case of region B resembles that of region A in so far as the majority of tourists believed that this region would not be affected by the incident reported in the news article. For instance, according to Lucy, "region B, for example sounds like its more out in the country side, and not in the cities, where I would expect less effect of those riots". In this sense, apart from the decline in Omar's willingness to travel due to the perceived geographical spread of unrest, there was little to suggest that the article

versions had different magnitudes of influence on the respondents' willingness to visit region B.

Table 5.9 Willingness to travel to region B pre and post exposure to the political instability news article

Interviewee	Article Read	Willingness to travel to region B		Tourist personality type	Gender	Age group
		Pre article exposure	Post article exposure			
Paige	PI A	5	5	Allocentric	Female	25-34
Lucy		5	5	Allocentric	Female	25-34
Omar		4	1	Midcentric	Male	35-44
Beth	PI B	5	5	Allocentric	Female	18-24
Claire		1	2	Midcentric	Female	55-64
Adam		3	2	Psychocentric	Male	35-44

1 = Would definitely avoid; 2 = Would rather avoid; 3 = Neither; 4 = Would rather visit; 5 = Would definitely visit

5.2.2.3. Region C

With respect to region C and PI, much as in the case of terrorism, the content of the article resonated with the audiences' schemas of large city unrest, which was also largely applicable to the area of the country considered by the readers. For instance, Adam recalled the Cairo protests and explained his concerns in the following way: "highly populated areas of some significance with lots of tourists would be vulnerable I think in times of turmoil". As a result, the majority of the respondents indicated they would avoid this area in light of the news. This meant that there were no observable differences in the decline to visit this region between the readers of the two article versions.

Overall, apart from region A, no clear differences in the decline of the willingness to travel to the country between the readers of the two article versions were observed. This is despite a statistically significant effect observed in the experiment-survey. While interviewees made a range of comments regarding the articles and their implications for willingness to travel, the main theme was related to the applicability of its content to the particular regions considered. That is, despite the article version read, the interviewees mostly agreed that they would not avoid region B due to no large implications for safety, and avoid region C due to its vulnerability to urban protests.

Table 5.10 Willingness to travel to region C pre and post exposure to the political instability news article

Interviewee	Article Read	Willingness to travel to region C		Tourist personality type	Gender	Age group
		Pre article exposure	Post article exposure			
Paige	PI A	5	5	Allocentric	Female	25-34
Lucy		4	3	Allocentric	Female	25-34
Omar		4	1	Midcentric	Male	35-44
Beth	PI B	5	2	Allocentric	Female	18-24
Claire		4	3	Midcentric	Female	55-64
Adam		4	2	Psychocentric	Male	35-44

1 = Would definitely avoid; 2 = Would rather avoid; 3 = Neither; 4 = Would rather visit; 5 = Would definitely visit

5.2.3. News media articles and willingness to travel findings discussion

Overall, while evidence exists to demonstrate that both the terrorism and PI article versions A had a different effect on perceived risk than the article versions B, a clear pattern was not found with regards to the willingness to travel to the three regions. As discussed, this was partly obstructed by no initial tourists' willingness to travel to some regions.

In respect of the trend observed in the survey-experiment concerning a non-uniform effect of news texts upon the willingness to visit the three regions, this was confirmed in the interviews. Specifically, the qualitative data suggested that the effect on the willingness to travel depends on the extent to which the article content resonates with recipients' schemas of terrorist attacks, and, in turn, its applicability to the holiday regions considered. That is, not all regions were equally affected as, despite the applicability of the article to recipients' schemas of a terrorist attack, the same schemas were not applicable to a holiday region e.g. as evidenced, a bomb attack in an urban environment causes limited concern to tourists who seek adventure in the remote areas of the country. In respect of this, it would be reasonable to expect that the extent to which tourists choose to travel, despite information concerning risks in the country, depends upon the benefits they expect to obtain from the holiday. With this point in mind, the following section focuses on addressing RQ14 i.e. the role of holiday benefits in willingness to travel after a terrorist attack / event of PI.

5.3. Responses to news media articles and holiday benefits

The analysis then focused on addressing RQ14 i.e. the role of holiday benefits in determining the willingness to travel after a terrorist attack / event of PI. This was based on the premise that in the aftermath of a crisis event, destinations that can be easily substituted may be particularly challenged in their ability to recover (Mansfeld, 1999; Neumayer, 2004; Frey et al., 2007) insofar as their lack of unique benefits makes it difficult to offset tourists' destination perceived risk. Moreover, in respect of the media coverage of these events, it is possible that the lack of unique benefits may also result in less motivation of tourists to question the content of the news reports and look for reasons that suggest that the holiday is worth the risk.

With this point in mind, the interviews sought to understand whether the desire to experience benefits associated with certain holiday regions, and so a greater involvement with the jeopardised object, can lead to different ways in which audiences interact with news texts, a greater tolerance of risk and willingness to travel.

In this respect, analysis of the interviews led to the identification of themes related to the above discussed process. Specifically, in consideration of the content of the news texts and holiday regions, the interviewees made references to the holiday benefits and their role in their risk and willingness to travel judgments. For instance, in explaining her reactions to the Terrorism A article, Melissa said: "I am not too affected by the article if I was going here, I would consider it, it would be at the back of my mind. But I wouldn't really instantly think ok I am not going to go. This is somewhere I would choose anyway". Another comment was made by Beth in reference to her Bali holiday during which she decided to avoid the Kuta region i.e. the target of the 2002 bombing (BBC, 2003). She stated:

> "there was nothing so peculiar about this place that I had to go there,
> no major attraction. But of course if it was London, and I wanted to
> see Big Ben, and I wanted to see it for 20 years then of course I would
> still go there".

Both comments indicate that holiday benefits, whether expressed as a type of holiday by Melissa (a beach resort) or a unique tourist attraction by Beth, appeared to have somewhat alleviated the hesitation caused by the risk concerns and prompted the tourists to visit areas that may involve man-made physical risk. The role of the preferred

holiday settings in determining the degree of tolerable risk was also evident in Alex's case. He stated: "well it's strange really … because taking the article into account, region C is probably more dangerous than region A … but I guess I would just be inclined to travel to C rather than A because I prefer it … and that story is … well something that I think I would be able to live with If I wanted to travel somewhere I really liked". To reinforce this judgment further, Alex then went on to explain his experience of sightseeing and enjoying the lifestyle of Madrid and Barcelona, which in his view would be worth the risk involved in the news report he read about in the experiment-survey. Another comment which supports this pattern was made by Adam who said:

> "region A suits me much more … maybe it's the words like warm sunny climate, stress free and fun … which sort of encourages me to maybe pay less attention to the possibility of something going wrong … and if the threat isn't as severe … then umm there is a chance that the things I like would win me over".

Consistent with this trend, other respondents (Brian and Joshua) voiced their views on the role that the level of preference for a destination and the ease of substitution of plans play in how they approach holiday decisions involving risk.

Overall, based on the comments made by the interviewees, it can be argued that the way tourists approach information about risk and evaluate whether or not it is below the tolerable personal risk threshold, depends upon the content of the message, the preference of tourists for the type of holiday considered (therefore greater involvement with the object at risk), and the benefits it has to offer. This trend can be related to the study of Bonaiuto et al. (1996), who found that when judging the level of risk associated with local and national beaches, people with greater personal involvement with the jeopardised object tend to rate the risk as lower. In a similar vein, Rittichainuwat (2006) found that the tsunami did not deter tourists from travelling to Thailand because of the personal involvement i.e. the relationships they formed with people at the destination. Therefore, in the context of this study, it can be argued that the tourists' involvement with a destination, created on the basis of holiday benefits which cannot be easily substituted, may increase tourists' motivation to negotiate the hazard messages they are exposed to and find reasons to interpret the situation as involving an acceptable level of risk.

Chapter 6: Conclusions

This study set out to augment the understanding of news media effects on leisure tourists' perceived risk of terrorism and political instability, and their willingness to travel. Despite the agreement among tourist scholars on the significant role that the news media play in influencing tourists' perceived risk and behaviour, few studies have investigated this phenomenon. This study attempted to address this gap by applying the framing theory of media effects. The research undertaken created a basis for drawing multiple conclusions concerning this research area. This final chapter is a synthesis and critical evaluation of the outcomes of this research journey. The first section focuses on the synthesis of the key empirical findings concerning the research objectives set for this study and their evaluation in light of extant research. The chapter then proceeds to the discussion of the theoretical, empirical and practical contributions to the existing body of knowledge on this subject. This is followed by sections on the scope and limitations of the thesis as well as recommendations for future research.

6.1. Summary of key findings – research objectives

In respect of the importance of the relationship between perceived risk, the news media, tourism consumer behaviour, and man-made crises of terrorism and political instability, this research created a number of valuable insights. Firstly, on the conceptual level, the critical evaluation of existing research pertaining to the above phenomena, provided a framework that encapsulates the key concepts and relationships between them. Using the conceptual framework as a guide, the specific research objectives and research questions were identified and addressed via the empirical study. The next paragraphs summarise the key findings in the order of research objectives 1 to 6 and evaluate this new knowledge in the context of existing research output. The last objective of the study was to build a theoretical framework concerning the effects of news media frames of terrorism and political instability risk on leisure tourists' risk perception and willingness to travel. Seeing as the framework was an outcome of the findings from the previous research objectives, it is presented at the end of this section.

Objective 1: To determine the factors that influence destination risk perception and willingness to travel

In respect of research objective 1, the answers to research questions (RQ) 1 to 6 allowed the identification of consumers that may respond to information about terrorism and PI hazards in different ways. Moreover, the database of respondents' profiles created this way, served as a filtering tool for the survey-experiment which exposed the same respondents to fictitious articles concerning hazardous events.

RQ1: What is the difference in perceived risk between leisure tourists with different levels of sensation seeking?

With regards to RQ1, tourists high in the sensation seeking (SS) trait are less concerned about the physical risks included in the study, associated with visiting Egypt, Turkey and India than tourists with low SS. This is supported by a study of Sharifpour et al. (2013) who found that individuals with a higher propensity for SS perceive less physical risk (including terrorism and PI) associated with visiting Arabia. Seeing as SS may increase individuals' tolerance of risk associated with activities that involve novel and exciting experiences (Trimpop et al., 1999), it can be argued that the tourists with a higher propensity for SS were less preoccupied with the risks because the destinations included in this study were sufficiently rewarding in this respect. Therefore, rather than predisposing individuals to be lenient towards risk per se, SS may be a function of an increased ability of tourists to rationalise personal risk, even of terrorism and PI, provided the benefit preferences associated with pleasure travel are satisfied.

At the same time, however, the result is somewhat surprising taking into consideration the findings of the psychometric paradigm of risk (Slovic et al., 1984) concerning the qualitative aspects of the hazard which individuals would be expected to take into account when forming risk judgments. Specifically, given the relatively low level of control an individual may have over minimising the potential for physical harm resulting from terrorist attacks or political instability, as opposed to extreme sports for example, it could be argued that SS should play little role in determining the perceived risk associated with such events. Although not attributed to individual levels of control, the lack of association between the SS score and perceived risk was found by Lepp and Gibson (2008) and Aschauer (2010). This indicates that the relationship between SS and destination perceived risk is a complex one and requires further attention from tourism scholars.

RQ2: What is the difference in PR between allo/mid/psychocentric tourist types?

The second psychographic construct measured in this study and related to perceived destination risk, i.e. the degree of allo/psychocentrism, produced consistently clear results. Specifically, the analysis of the profiles of allo/mid/psychocentrics, created on the basis of items developed by Jackson (2006), demonstrated that the allocentrics were significantly less alarmed about the risks included in the study than the psychocentrics. This pattern was found in respect of the perceived risk ratings associated with three destinations (India, Egypt and Turkey) in the questionnaire survey. Although not considered by Jackson (2006), the items account for differences in the magnitude of leisure tourists' perceived risk. The finding supports a study by Lepp and Gibson (2003) who found that novelty seeking (a dimension of the allocentric personality type) is associated with a lower perception of risk. Directly in support of Plog's theory, Sonmez and Graefe (1998a) adopted a 4 item measure of allocentrism in their study of perceived risk, however, they never reported the findings. This study demonstrates that the degree of allocentrism/psychocentrism is an important factor in explaining differences in the magnitude of leisure tourists' perceived destination risk.

RQ3: What is the relationship between holiday benefits sought and perceived risk among leisure tourists?

Based on the premise that the benefits sought are indicative of the psychographic characteristics which determine perceived risk, it was estimated that this factor may also play a role in the process. To this end, allocentrics were found to attach greater importance to cultural and adventure benefits than beach benefits, whereas psychocentrics exhibited the opposite preferences. Taking this aspect of tourist profiles into account, an association was found between the higher importance attached to cultural and adventure benefits (indicative of allocentrics) and less risk concern (RQ3). Conversely, a higher importance attached to beach benefits (indicative of psychocentrics) was associated with more risk concern. Therefore, the benefits sought are a complementary dimension of allo/mid/psychocentric types and enhance the understanding of differences in perceived destination risk among leisure tourists.

RQ4: What is the difference in PR between tourists with different demographic characteristics?

In respect of the demographic factors measured in this study, the relationship with perceived risk produced mixed results. On the one hand, no association was found between perceived risk and travel group composition, and perceived risk and age groups (e.g. Hellesoy et al. 1998), which may be due to a range of situational factors. On the other hand, males were significantly less concerned about all risks than females, which is supported by a number of researchers (Carr, 2001; Lepp and Gibson, 2003; Morakabati, 2007; Reichel et al., 2007; Park and Reisinger, 2010). Specifically, the latter group was mostly concerned about PI, which in the context of this study is potentially due to the numerous media reports concerning assaults on women in Egypt and India that tourists may have been exposed to. In this sense the study also supports the findings of Carr (2001), who found that women may be more concerned about certain risks such as crime.

Beyond this, perceived risk was also significantly different between tourists with different levels of experience. Specifically, tourists who had travelled more in the past 3 years, as well as those who had visited Africa, the Americas, Asia and the Pacific, and the Middle East were less concerned about all risks. While it would also be expected that the relationship between travel experience and perceived risk would be complicated by the nature of the experiences (i.e. positive versus negative), it can also be argued that since all holidays involve a degree of risk, greater travel experience leads to a redefinition of what constitutes an acceptable level of risk, hence lower risk estimates. The notion that travel experience can reduce perceived risk is supported by findings of other researchers (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a; Larsen et al., 2007a; Fuchs and Reichel, 2011; Liu et al., 2013; Chew and Jahari, 2014). Therefore, first-time visitors may be particularly sensitive to information about security crises.

RQ5: What is the relationship between willingness to travel and tourists' psychographic characteristics?

Taking psychographic characteristics into account, clear differences in the willingness to travel to the holiday regions were observed between the allo/mid/psychocentrics. Specifically, under the 'business as usual' condition, the allocentric types were significantly more willing to travel to the cultural and the adventure regions within Egypt, India, and Turkey, than the psychocentrics who

preferred the beach region. Moreover, tourists with high SS were more willing to visit the adventure region, which is supported by other researchers who find that the trait is associated with seeking adventurous tourist experiences (Gilchrist et al., 1995; Galloway, 2002; Eachus, 2004).

With respect to the relationship between holiday benefits sought and willingness to travel, the tourists who attached a greater importance to the underlying holiday benefit dimensions (culture, adventure or beach) were more willing to travel to regions that exhibited these benefits. Interestingly, the high willingness to visit these regions (i.e. 'would rather visit' or 'would definitely visit' the cultural region '72.5%', adventure '41%', and beach '49%') was noted despite an increased risk awareness associated with these countries. While it was also found that the willingness to travel to any region was greater among tourists that perceived less risk than those that perceived more risk, this factor did not hamper the latter group's desire to visit their preferred regions to a large extent.

RQ6: What is the difference in willingness to visit a destination after a terrorist attack between tourists with different psychographic and demographic characteristics?

While the majority of the respondents' willingness to travel declined in the 'post terrorist attack' condition, those that responded 'would rather visit' or 'would definitely visit' cultural and adventure regions, despite this information, had allocentric tendencies, higher SS, lower perceived risk, and an interest in the benefits exhibited by these regions. Therefore a combination of psychographic characteristics, as well as the benefits exhibited by a destination, may increase the resilience of tourists to man-made shocks. This result supports the investigations of other researchers (e.g. Uriely et al., 2007; Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty, 2009; Fuchs et al., 2013), who found that terrorism does not always deter tourists from travelling.

Objective 2: To determine the influence of news media frames regarding events of terrorism and political instability on destination risk perception and tourists' willingness to travel.

RQ7: What is the effect of media frames concerning the magnitude of risk of terrorism/ political instability (PI) on PR of leisure tourists?

An effect on leisure tourists' perceived destination risk was observed as a result of the exposure of audiences to different frames concerning the magnitude of terrorism /political instability risk. Statistically significant differences in perceived risk were found between the readers of article versions A (risk amplifying) and B (risk attenuating), regarding both terrorism and PI, albeit the differences were larger in the PI group. Specifically, the result demonstrates that the emphasis in salience on some aspects of a source of risk, to the exclusion of others, may result in different risk perceptions associated with visiting a destination among the message recipients. This finding supports the results of framing effects studies carried out outside the tourism consumer behaviour context (e.g. Schuck and de Vreese, 2006; Woods, 2011), and further supports the validity of framing as a theory of media effects (Scheufele, 1999; Scheufele and Tewksbury, 2007). Moreover, it addresses the calls among tourism academics (e.g. Sonmez and Graefe, 1998a; Liu et al., 2013; Schroeder et al., 2013) for research on the relationship between the media coverage of hazards and destination perceived risk.

The smaller differences in perceived risk between the readers of the terrorism article versions can be attributed to the context in which the risk judgments are made. In judging the risk associated with visiting foreign countries for leisure purposes, tourists may be particularly sensitive to any information about terrorism due to the discretionary nature of holiday activity and a limited knowledge of the country. In this sense, they may be less motivated to consider event characteristics, such as the perpetrators and the targets, and instead make a risk judgment on the basis of the fact that an attack has occurred and another one is possible. Beyond the implications of the context in which tourists judge risk (i.e. leisure) on their involvement in the activity being judged and their information processing strategy, the situation is complicated by the characteristics of tourists and the attractiveness of destinations.

In respect of the differences in response to the PI articles, the experiment demonstrated that the emphasis on some aspects of the risk source, such as the geographical spread of turmoil, can result in different interpretations of risk associated with visiting a country.

RQ8: What is the effect of media frames concerning the event type (terrorism / PI) on PR of leisure tourists?

In respect of the influence of media frames concerning event type (terrorism versus PI) on perceived risk, the only significant relationship was found between versions B (risk attenuating) of the articles. That is, the readers of the PI article perceived significantly less destination risk than the recipients of the terrorism article. This indicates that a case of PI that is limited in scope, can be less intimidating than a terrorist attack, which implies high personal risk due to its inherent randomness and lack of geographical boundaries. A reverse relationship was expected in the A (risk amplifying) version of articles, where the PI article would be expected to be more intimidating than a terrorist attack, however, this was not supported by these data.

RQ9: What is the difference in judgment of PR in response to information about terrorism/PI between allo/mid/psychocentric tourist types?

In support of the pattern found in the questionnaire concerning differences in the perceived risk associated with Egypt, Turkey and India, between allo/mid/psychocentric tourist types (RQ2), the allocentric recipients were significantly less concerned about travelling post reading of the article versions than the psychocentrics. This supports the notion that the impact of risk communication depends not only upon the content of the message but also the characteristics of the audience, in this case, the tourist personality profile.

RQ10: What is the effect of media frames concerning the magnitude of risk of terrorism/ PI on the willingness to travel of leisure tourists?

An effect was noted between the readers of the PI articles. Specifically, as a result of exposure to article version A, respondents were more discouraged to visit the country than those who read article version B. Therefore, not only can framing the magnitude of risk result in significant differences in perceived destination risk; it can also determine different levels of willingness to visit destinations subject to disturbances. Importantly, however, the effect was not uniform across the three regions included in the study i.e.

differences in the decline in willingness were found between region A (adventure) and region C (culture). This notion is supported by Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty (2009), who found that in response to terrorist attacks in Thailand, tourists chose regions that were less vulnerable rather than stop travelling there altogether. No significant difference in the terrorism article pair can be attributed to the reasoning discussed above i.e. despite the negligible probability of harm, the mere possibility of being entangled in a terrorist attack deters tourists from travel, regardless of variation in the event characteristics.

RQ11: What is the effect of media frames concerning the event type on the willingness to travel of leisure tourists?

No statistical differences in the willingness to travel were found between the frames concerning event type i.e. terrorism and PI, irrespective of the frames concerning magnitude of risk. This supports the thesis that while tourists recognise that terrorism and PI have different implications for personal risk, the possibility of physical harm and the emotional charge this carries, deters them from travel despite the qualitative differences between the events.

To validate as well as enhance the quantitative findings concerning the effects of the fictitious articles on the tourists' responses (RQ 7 - RQ 11), interviews with the same participants were used. The results were key in addressing RQ's 12 to 14.

RQ12: What message elements of media frames concerning the magnitude of risk of terrorism / PI are used by leisure tourists in making judgments of PR?

The most salient message elements taken into account by the interviewees in judging the level of risk involved in terrorist attack scenarios, were the 'targets' and the 'perpetrators' i.e. Terrorism A (72%) and Terrorism B (57%). A larger proportion of references made by the readers of TA to the 'perpetrators' can be explained by the clearer connection of al-Qaeda and terrorism (i.e. available and accessible – possibly due to the ease of recall and intensive coverage) in the respondents' minds than separatist movements. Surprisingly, none of the interviewees made references to vox populi concerning the event atmosphere and confidence level. This can be attributed to the role of the source of the risk message and the level of trust audiences have in the source (Breakwell, 2000). In the context of this research, it is possible that the advice from local citizens employed in the fictitious article was mistrusted by tourists, for

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instance, due to the locals' motivation to portray the risk as insignificant to minimise the negative impact of hazards on tourist arrivals.

In the PI articles, the main message elements were the 'geographical spread and consequences', the 'disruptions to transport' and the 'tourism industry and official communications'. These indicate that the elements were noticed by the respondents, but it doesn't say how they were used.

RQ13: How are the message elements of media frames concerning the magnitude of risk of terrorism / PI used by leisure tourist in making judgments of PR and willingness to travel?

Based on the knowledge of the most salient message elements of the articles, the analysis focused on the way that the tourists used the content to make their judgments. The 12 mind maps, created with the use of the cognitive frame model (Scheufele and Scheufele, 2010), confirmed the survey-experiment findings i.e. the difference in perceived risk between the readers of article versions A and B was clearer in PI than in terrorism. Beyond this, the qualitative data demonstrated the complexity inherent in the process of interaction between news frames and audiences. The outcomes of this process can be summarised in the following points:

- Media frame resonates with receiver's schemas - accepted as a frame of mind and applied to make risk judgment

- Media frame partially accepted e.g. schemas available but not applicable to the situation

- Media frame rejected e.g. incompatible with schemas of the message recipient. Risk judgment made on the basis of tourist's schemas of hazard and travel experience.

These findings underscore the active role of audiences in shaping the way the message is received (Devereux, 2007). The cases discussed in the chapter point towards a cognitive-transactional model of media effects (Perse, 2001). That is, the effects are not uniform and are largely complicated by the receivers' schema make-up of a hazard (also determined by tourists' characteristics as discussed above). Therefore, while the effects can take place, as demonstrated by the quantitative experiment results (RQ7-8) and the in-depth accounts of individual tourist's cognitions (e.g. Valerie, Alex), they are

very difficult to control or predict. In other words, it can be argued that for these data, the extent to which a media effect on perceived risk takes place also largely depends on: 1) the availability and accessibility of schemas in decision-maker's mind which resonate with the message element he or she encounters; and 2) the applicability of the activated schemas to the decision-maker's personal context. For instance, a tourist may recognise that an attack by al-Qaeda has implications for physical risk, however, he or she may also decide that this does not result in an increase of personal risk due to, for example, a belief in tighter security after attacks.

The in-depth investigation of the article content processing, was also performed to understand its impact on the willingness to travel. No clear pattern was found to support the quantitative findings with respect to the difference in the influence of articles A and B on the willingness to travel (RQ10). This was largely obstructed by the differences of the interviewees in their preferences for the three regions introduced in the scenario.

However, with respect to RQ10, the analysis of the interviews confirmed the trend observed in the survey-experiment concerning a non-uniform effect of news texts upon the willingness to visit the three regions. Specifically, the analysis of data suggested that the effect on willingness to travel depends on the extent to which the article content resonates with 1) the recipients' schemas of terrorist attacks or PI and, in turn, 2) its applicability to the geographical context of the holiday region considered. That is, not all regions were equally affected, as despite the activation of the audiences' schemas of a terrorist attack or PI by the article content, the same schema was not applicable to the holiday region considered. Therefore, it can be concluded that the characteristics of the jeopardised object, in this case a destination, play a role in the extent to which news content concerning a hazard influences the willingness to engage in an activity.

Objective 3: To understand the role of benefits associated with travelling to different destination regions in the relationship between tourists' risk perception and willingness to travel.

RQ14: What is the role of travel benefits associated with different destinations in the willingness to travel after a terrorist attack / event of PI?

In respect of the last research question, it was found that holiday benefits, understood as the determinant of personal importance attached by a tourist to an object which is jeopardised (i.e. a destination), can influence the extent to which tourists

perceive risk associated with visiting a destination. This finding supports the suggestions of researchers who maintain that the uniqueness of a destination's attributes may determine its resilience and ability to recover from tourism security crises (Mansfeld, 1999; Neumayer, 2004; Frey et al., 2007).

In respect of the media coverage concerning a destination specific hazard, it is possible that a lack of unique benefits may also result in less motivation of tourists to question the content of the news reports and to look for reasons that suggest that the holiday is worth the risk. Therefore, apart from the influence of the geographical context of a destination's regions on tourists' perception of risk associated with these regions, the uniqueness and diversity of the holiday benefits exhibited by this country also plays an important role in the way tourists interact with a risk message to make a judgment of risk and willingness to travel.

Objective 4: To build a theoretical framework concerning the effects of news media frames of terrorism and political instability risk on leisure tourists' risk perception and willingness to travel

Based on the findings of the research objectives 1 to 3, a theoretical framework of the media influence on leisure tourists' destination perceived risk and willingness to travel is proposed (see figure 6.1).

Perceived risk and willingness to travel post exposure to risk information is a product of the interaction between the three parts of the framework. The impact of risk communication depends on the characteristics of the risk message (emphasis framing), the audience's characteristics (demographic, psychographic and schemas of hazards), and the characteristics of the jeopardised object (i.e. destination). Therefore, while effects can take place they are very difficult to predict and control.

In respect of the audience's characteristics, a tourist's schema of hazard plays a significant role in the process. The mere ability of the message recipient to recall an example of an issue that resonates with the media frame to which she/he is exposed, does not necessarily lead her/him to consider this information of relevance to personal risk judgments. The suggested way of interpreting the situation (i.e. the media frame) is filtered through schemas concerning personal preferences and experiences (i.e. the extent to which the hazard could affect them in their travel plans) and geographical knowledge (i.e. the extent to which the information about the hazard is relevant to the destination they are considering).

The extent to which this judgment influences the willingness to travel also depends on the characteristics of the destination. After the initial risk judgment is made, tourists engage in the weighing of the magnitude of risk and holiday benefits to conclude whether the risk is tolerable. Unique destination benefits are critical in this process as they create a greater involvement with the jeopardised object, and, in consequence, a greater propensity to question the information and rationalise risk.

Figure 6.1 Media influence on destination perceived risk and willingness to travel framework
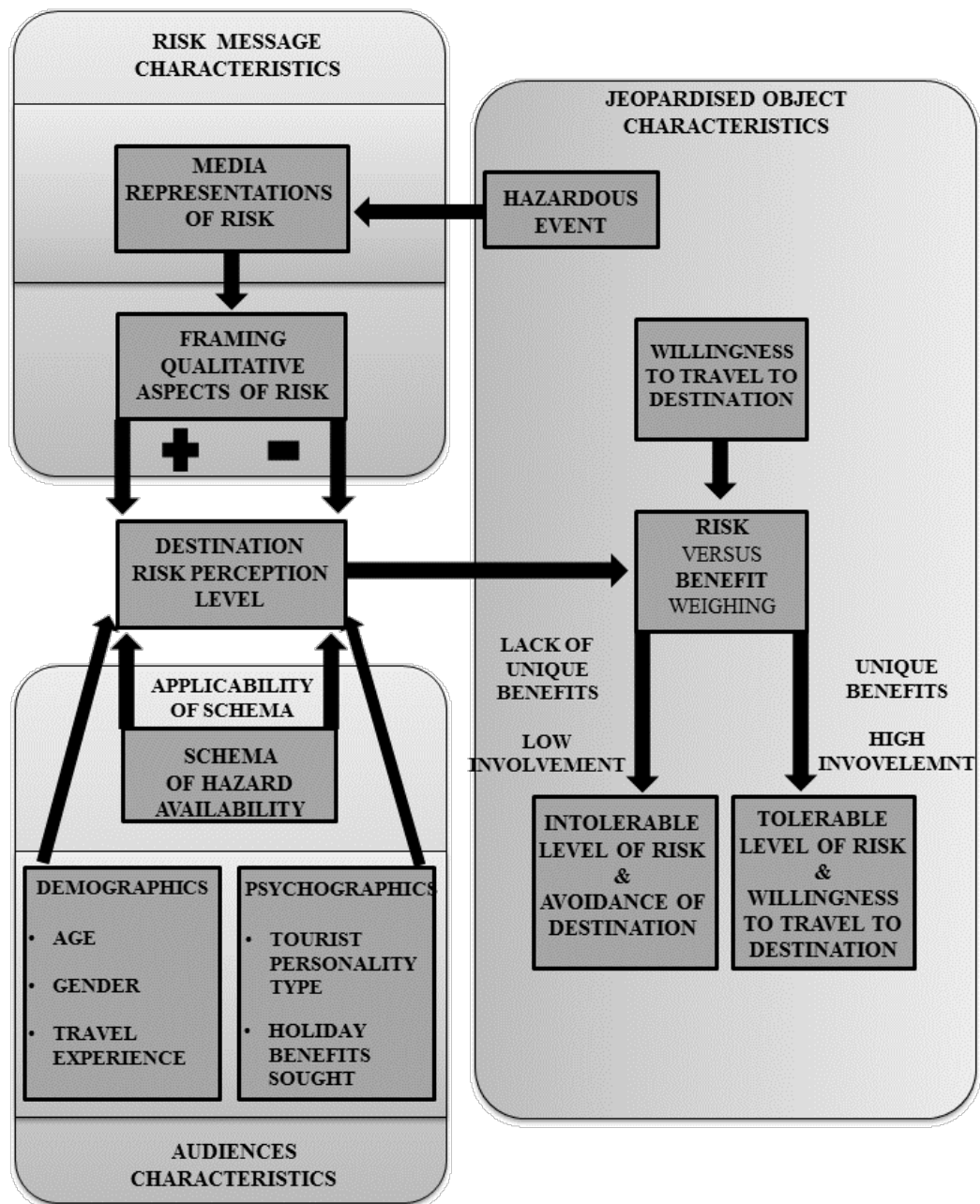
6.2. Contributions to knowledge

This study investigating the effects of news media on leisure tourists' perception of risk and willingness to travel has resulted in a number of important contributions to the knowledge on this subject. The following sections outline and discuss the main contributions to theory and practice.

6.3. Theoretical contribution

This research makes a theoretical contribution to the study of the tourist decision-making process. The study enhances the understanding of the relationship between perceived risk, the media, and tourist consumer behaviour by empirically supporting the validity of the framing theory of media effects. Consistent with findings in studies outside the tourism research context (Schuck and de Vreese, 2006; Woods, 2011), this research revealed that variations in the content of messages, concerning the risk associated with an issue or an event can result in different perceptions of risk. Moreover, it was discovered that the effect was not uniform across recipients and dependent on audience characteristics, most notably tourist personality type, and tourists' schemas of hazards. Importantly, this aspect of the media and perceived risk interaction points toward a two directional relationship, which recognises both the power of the media to influence message recipients and the power of audiences to oppose and negotiate the messages. This notion is reflected in the model proposed (see figure 6.1), which contributes to the research on the relationship between perceived risk and the media by revising Sonmez and Graefe's (1998) one-directional depiction of the process (see figure 2.3).

The study also makes a contribution to theories concerning the cognitive mechanisms underlying framing effects. Taking the information processing perspective, the use of Scheufele and Scheufele's cognitive frame model (2010) allowed for an in-depth investigation of the ways in which recipients process the content of a risk message they are exposed to and arrive at perceived risk judgments. The output of the analysis supports the applicability model of framing effects (Price and Tewksbury, 1997; Price et al., 1997; Scheufele, 2006; Tewksbury and Scheufele, 2009). The effects in this model are based on the media message embedded frame that invites recipients to apply their existing schemas to interpret an issue or an event in the direction promoted by the frame. For instance, the news frame may invite the audience to interpret the news

about a terrorist attack as particularly threatening due to a suggested connection between the location of the attack and supposed involvement of al-Qaeda.

Therefore, the extent to which an applicability effect takes place largely depends on the characteristics of the audiences, which influence the process at different stages. First, the effects are dependent on the availability and accessibility of audiences' schemas. That is, the schema related to the issue or event covered by the media, has to be available to an individual (i.e. stored in memory for use) and it is more likely to be activated by communication frames when it is accessible (i.e. easily recalled for use). Once parts of the pre-existing knowledge are activated by the attended features of the message (i.e. accessible), framing effects occur when the active concepts are consciously considered by the recipient to be applicable to the judgment of the issue at hand (e.g. Nelson et al., 1997; Chong and Druckman, 2007b). In other words, "it is the underlying interpretative schemas that have been made applicable to the issue that are the central effect of a frame" (Scheufele and Tewksbury, 2007, p. 14).

Beyond the importance to framing effects of these audience characteristics, this research also found support for the role in this process of audiences' involvement with the jeopardised object. This notion is supported by communication scholars (Lecheler et al., 2009; Chong and Druckman, 2013) who argue that people are affected by information differently if they care about an issue. This is also of relevance in the context of risk communication as the involvement of an individual with a jeopardised object has been found to result in lower risk estimates (Bonaiuto et al., 1996). Against this background, the findings of this thesis suggest that the level of tourists' involvement with a destination, brought by unique holiday benefits, influences the way they attend to risk information. It is argued that tourists who are involved with the jeopardised destination, are more likely to evaluate the applicability of ideas, suggested by a news article, to the risk judgment in a manner that satisfies their goal of a holiday. In other words, they may be more inclined to question the content of risk messages to find reasons that the holiday is worth the risk.

Finally, the theoretical contributions of this study support the cognitive-transactional model of media effects (Perse, 2001) which recognises the active role of audiences in determining effects.

6.4. Contributions to practice

The findings of this research have a number of implications for tourism marketing practice. Firstly, the complexity of the psychological mechanisms underlying media effects and the difficulty involved in the control of the outcomes of tourists' information processing can be understood in two ways. On the one hand, this poses challenges to tourism marketers who wish to minimise the negative effect of media coverage of hazards such as terrorism and PI. On the other, this indicates that the media may at times be limited in exerting an effect on audiences due to the power of audiences to oppose and negotiate the meanings suggested. In this sense, this research proposes that marketers can influence the way tourists attend to risk messages and evaluate tolerability of risk involved in holidays.

In respect of the importance to the process of tourists' involvement with an object at risk, a unique offer of holiday benefits and experiences is vital. Given that some destinations may be limited in pull factors related to natural resources and tangible attractions of the tourism sector, the creation of innovative experiences and new ways of communicating with consumers that engage them on a multi-sensory level may be particularly important in this context. An example of such an initiative is the Remote Control Tourist (RCT) campaign (RemoteControlTourist, 2014) which closed the distance between Melbourne and its potential visitors with the use of social media communication and tourists in the destination wearing helmets fitted with video cameras (i.e. the RCT's). This way the customers around the world could experience the destination from their homes by suggesting the RCT's via Facebook or Twitter experiences to engage in and receiving a real-time stream of these exploits on the screens of their computers, mobile phones or tablets.

Moreover, in recognition of tourist characteristics that determine differences in perceived risk, catering for experienced tourists with allocentric and sensation seeking tendencies may be particularly useful for destinations in the post security crisis phase. To this end, destination marketers can tailor their offers to match the needs of this segment by providing novel, active, culturally stimulating and exciting experiences that increase the propensity to rationalise risk.

With regards to the important role that tourists' knowledge of hazards plays in determining the effects of risk messages on their responses, it is proposed that destination managers can isolate problematic regions from national promotional

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campaigns to minimise the applicability of undesirable news to tourists' risk judgments of these places and avoid ripple effects for the whole country.

6.5.   Limitations

All research is a product of compromises made in response to the limitations imposed by time, data availability and the research methods employed. In consideration of these factors, the findings of this research project are associated with a number of limitations that have a bearing on the applicability of the results to a wider context. Firstly, the sample in the questionnaire-survey was overrepresented by the 65+ age group and female respondents, thus affecting the ability of the researcher to generalise results on the basis of a more balanced sample.

Secondly, in the measuring of the constructs, such as the degree of allocentrism versus psychocentrism, and the responses to information about hazards, a researcher needs to consider the potential social desirability bias associated with self-report. Despite cross-validating the results with the use of three data collection points, it cannot be excluded that some of the responses were motivated by a wish of the respondents to appear more adventurous and risk tolerant than they are in reality.

Moreover, to control for the potential confounding effects in the experiment that tourists' ideas and feelings about a destination may have on the perceived risk and willingness to travel, the relationship between the news reports and perceived risk was investigated in a scenario of a hypothetical destination. Whereas a destination that tourists recognise would have been ideal, arguably the choice made by the researcher represents a common scenario where tourists make holiday decisions with imperfect knowledge of destinations. Furthermore, while allowing for the studying of responses of a diverse sample of respondents, the online survey-experiment was also associated with limited control over the participants, which is typically overcome by a laboratory approach.

6.6.   Directions for future research

The research undertaken has identified a number of areas that would be valuable to pursue. Firstly, the application of the framing theory of media effects to the study of the relationship between tourists and media texts and the potential outcomes of this process on perceived risk and travel decisions should be investigated further. In doing so, future studies may employ the mixed-methods employed in this study. In particular,

recognising that few of the existing studies on destination perceived risk employ experimental methods, it is hoped that the use of this method in subsequent studies will produce new insights into tourists' responses to travel risks.

Secondly, using the framework developed in this research (see figure 6.1), future studies can focus on other factors that may play a role in the media and tourists' perceived risk relationship. That is, factors related to any of the three main areas of the framework proposed. For instance, factors concerning the characteristics of the jeopardised object (e.g. the ability of the destination to manage crisis), the characteristics of tourists (e.g. knowledge of the destination) or the content of media messages (e.g. risk of other hazards).

In respect to the characteristics of the destination and the role of this factor in influencing the extent to which consumers tolerate risk, future studies should focus on following-up on this finding. In particular, employing experimental methods to hold the news coverage of hazards constant, while manipulating the different variables related to holiday experiences, may determine the most suitable formats of communicating destination pull-factors to potential tourists to mitigate the potential negative consequences of news coverage of crises.

With regards to the characteristics of tourists and the relevance of the construct of allocentricity to tourists' perceived risk, future studies should expand on this finding by considering responses to risk of allo/mid/psychocentrics from different cultures. Past research has established that risk perceptions may vary according to tourists' cultural backgrounds (e.g. Seddighi et al., 2002; Kozak et al., 2007), however, the extent to which, for instance, resilience of allocentrics to risk is consistent across different cultures remains unexplored.

Subsequent studies could also research the potential effects of news frames in a more dynamic context i.e. with the use of images and audio. Such studies are needed to understand how audiences respond to complex messages they are exposed to, for instance, when using social media platforms to gather information. Moreover, future research could consider the role played in influencing tourists' perceived risk by specific sources of information such as, for instance, the personal recommendation concerning level of risk from travel agents or other tourists. Lastly, a further area for research would be to adopt a longitudinal approach to studying media effects, rather than a one-shot media exposure approach.

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Appendices

Content of the Appendices

Appendix 1: Example of the questionnaire-survey

Appendix 2: Questionnaire-survey cover letter

Appendix 3: Fictitious articles about terrorism and political instability

Appendix 4: Survey-embedded experiment – e-mail to respondents

Appendix 5: Example of the survey embedded experiment

Appendix 6: Interview – e-mail to respondents

Appendix 7: Interview participant information sheet

Appendix 8: Allo/mid/psychocentric correlation matrix

Appendix 9: Allo/mid/psychocentric types per questionnaire version

Appendix 10: PCA – correlation matrix

Appendix 11: Mann-Whitney post hoc for perceived risk between allocentric and midcentric types, and midcentric and psychocentric types

Appendix 12: Transcript of the interview with John

Appendix 1: Example of the questionnaire-survey

Holiday Choices

My name is Greg and as a part of my doctoral studies at Bournemouth University I am researching how tourists choose to go on holiday. Please take a few minutes to complete this questionnaire (this should take approximately 10 minutes). I would also like to emphasise that all the answers you provide will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Q1 Have you ever travelled overseas for your vacation or might you consider doing so in the future? This means travel outside of UK and includes main holidays, short breaks, and visits to family and friends. If the answer to this question is 'No' please finish here. Thank you for your interest in filling in this questionnaire.

Yes .... ☐ Go to Q2   No .... ☐ Go to End

Your news media use

Q2 Using the scale provided please indicate the importance to you of the following as a source of news about current events and issues.

	Not at all Important	Not very Important	Neither	Some what Important	Very Important
Television	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Printed newspaper	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Radio	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Online sources	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q3a Which media sources do you use to obtain news about current issues and events? From the following options please indicate your preferred source(s) of news in each section 3a, 3b and 3c. Tick as many as apply.

News Channels (TV and online)

BBC News.. ☐   Sky News .... ☐

ITV... ☐   Al Jazeera English .... ☐

Channel 4.. ☐   Other (Please specify) .... ☐

Channel Five .... ☐   None .... ☐

CNN International... ☐

Other   [   ]

Q3b Newspaper (print and online)

Express .... ☐   The Independent.. ☐

Financial Times .... ☐   The Sun... ☐

Guardian/Observer .... ☐   The Telegraph... ☐

Mail.. ☐   The Times .... ☐

Mirror .... ☐   Other (Please specify) .... ☐

Star.. ☐   None .... ☐

Other   [   ]

Q3c Radio

BBC 1.. ☐   BBC World Service .... ☐

BBC 2.. ☐   Sky News .... ☐

BBC 3.. ☐   Local radio stations .... ☐

BBC 4.. ☐   Other (Please specify) .... ☐

BBC 5 Live .... ☐   None .... ☐

Other   [   ]

Q4 Please tick the category that best describes your frequency of use of these social media.

	Do not use	Less than once a month	Once or twice a month	Once or twice a week	Three times a week or more
Facebook or any other social networking sites	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Twitter or any other microblogging sites	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Blogs	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
TripAdvisor or any other internet forums	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
YouTube or any other content sharing sites	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Wikipedia or any other Wikis	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other (please specify)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Other

Q5 How big a role do the following information sources play in your choice of a holiday destination? Please indicate using the scale provided.

	Not at all Important	Not very Important	Neither	Some what Important	Very Important
Recommendations of friends and/or relatives	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Recommendations of a travel agent	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Previous experience with the same destination	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Advertisements in papers, magazines, radio, TV, or Internet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Articles in newspapers or magazines	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Search on the Internet	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
TV documentary or news	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Your holiday preferences

Q6 Using the scale provided please indicate to what extent the following statements describe you and your holiday preferences.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am usually reserved	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am usually outgoing and sociable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I prefer tourist package vacations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I prefer to travel to destinations that are familiar to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
On holiday I stay away from popular tourist areas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
On holiday I enjoy a sense of discovery and having new experiences	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
On holiday I prefer my usual comforts and luxury	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
On holiday I am curious to learn new things and seek intellectual enrichment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
On holiday I enjoy resting and relaxation more than lots of activities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
On holiday I prefer socialising with people from the same or similar culture	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would like to take off on a trip with no pre-planned routes or timetables	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I get restless when I spend too much time at home	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would like to try an exciting sport e.g. rafting, bungee jumping or car racing.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I would love to have new and exciting experiences, even if they are illegal	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q7 Using the scale provided please indicate importance of the following attributes in your choice of a holiday destination.

	Not at all Important	Not very Important	Neither	Some what Important	Very Important
Unique culture	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Historic sites, architecture, monuments etc.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Arts/cultural events (e.g. concert, theatre, opera)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Heritage/artistic exhibits (e.g. museums, art galleries)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Traditional lifestyle (e.g. local food, folklore, fairs)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Scenic beauty (e.g. mountains, lakes)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Physical challenge e.g. hiking, bicycling, climbing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Abundant wildlife (e.g. safari, fishing)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Remote/wilderness environment (e.g. jungles, deserts)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Camping sites	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Warm climate/sunbathing	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Nightlife and entertainment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Amusement or theme parks (e.g. roller coaster, water)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Beach and water activities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Shopping facilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Risk and your holidays

Q8 The following are types of risk associated with holidays. Using the scale provided, please indicate the extent to which you would worry about these risks if you were travelling to Egypt.

	Very worried	Some what worried	Neither	Not very worried	Not at all worried
Crime risk (e.g. mugging, assault)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Health risk (e.g. food/water safety, poisoning, sickness, diseases)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Political unrest risk (e.g. war, riots, demonstrations)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Terrorism risk	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q9a The following are descriptions of holidays at three different destinations in Egypt. Using the scale provided, please indicate your willingness to visit these destinations.

A. Experience the cultural wealth of Egypt by visiting the Great Pyramids, the Sphinx, mystifying tombs, temples and many other ancient heritage sites.

Would definitely avoid	Would rather avoid	Unsure	Would rather visit	Would definitely visit
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q9b B. Explore the beauty of the underwater life, world famous coral reefs of the Red Sea, and Mount Sinai by engaging in adventurous activities such as diving, kayaking, climbing and trekking.

Would definitely avoid	Would rather avoid	Unsure	Would rather visit	Would definitely visit
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q9c C. Enjoy the white sandy beaches of Egyptian coast, warm and sunny climate in the surrounding of relaxing hotel facilities, good cuisine and a vibrant nightlife.

Would definitely avoid	Would rather avoid	Unsure	Would rather visit	Would definitely visit
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Q10 Referring to three destinations above (A, B, C) please indicate how willing would you be to visit each of them if you came across news reports that Egypt has been subject to a terrorist attack in the past three months.

	Would definitely avoid	Would rather avoid	Unsure	Would rather visit	Would definitely visit
Egypt A	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Egypt B	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Egypt C	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

This final section contains a few of questions about yourself in order to help classify your answers statistically. The answers you provide will remain confidential.

Q11 Have you previously spent holidays in any of the following regions? (Please tick all that you have visited).

Africa .... ☐

Americas .... ☐

Asia and the Pacific .... ☐

Europe .... ☐

Middle East .... ☐

Q12 How many overseas holidays have you taken in the past 3 years?

☐

Q13 Who do you usually spend your holiday with? Please tick one only.

On my own .... ☐

With friend(s) .... ☐

With partner / spouse .... ☐

With family (incl. children under 18 years of age) .... ☐

Q14 Are you?

Male .... ☐

Female .... ☐

Q15 In which age group are you?

18-24 .... ☐

25-34 .... ☐

35-44 .... ☐

45-54 .... ☐

55-64 .... ☐

65 + ... ☐

This questionnaire is a part of a larger project. Would you be interested in answering a few more questions about holiday experiences? Those who participate in a further questionnaire will be eligible to enter a prize draw (£50 shopping vouchers). If you are interested please could I have your e-mail address for contact: _____

If you have any questions in regards to any of the above please do not hesitate to contact me on this e-mail address: i7910821@bournemouth.ac.uk

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Your participation has been most valuable.

Appendix 2: Questionnaire-survey cover letter

Dear Sir/ Madam,

My name is Greg, I am a researcher at Bournemouth University, and currently we are conducting a comprehensive and detailed research project into tourists' holiday decision-making. This involves asking members of UK population to express their views about different aspects of being a tourist by completing a short questionnaire (approximately 10 minutes). Therefore, your address has been randomly selected to receive this survey.

For this research to be accurate and of value, we would really appreciate if someone within your household (18 years of age and over) would complete this questionnaire. You can participate by post or online:

> **Post**: complete and return enclosed questionnaire (a postage paid envelope is included for you convenience).

> **Online**: visit the following link and enter the ID number, which you can find on the printed questionnaire (top right hand side).

> https://mrg.bournemouth.ac.uk/surveys/Greg3/egypt1.htm

All responses will be treated with complete confidentiality. If you would like any further information on the research we are conducting, my contact details are provided at the end of the questionnaire and I would be very happy to discuss the project with you.

Many thanks in advance for your assistance with this research.

Sincerely,

John Kent Institute in Tourism
Bournemouth University
www.bournemouth.ac.uk/johnkent

Appendix 3: Fictitious articles about terrorism and political instability

<u>POLITICAL INSTABILITY A</u>

Violent clashes in popular tourist destination: Is it safe?

Tens of thousands of people gathered in the **heart of the** capital to protest **against recent government decisions**.

Some of the demonstrations led to **violent clashes** with the security forces resulting in a number of arrests and injuries. **Although the situation was brought under control, a threatening atmosphere of high tension remained.**

"I have never seen anything like this, it was complete chaos. We all feel nervous because the problem will not just go away overnight", a resident said.

There is a possibility that further violent protests could spread to other locations across the country, including areas popular with tourists, **which would likely have serious consequences for public safety and order**.

The Foreign Office advise expatriates and tourists to stay clear of large gatherings of people and follow the advice from local authorities, hotels and tour operators. No advice against travel to the country has been issued.

According to the tourist office, demonstrations "had limited impact on transport network in the country". **However, in the event of conflict escalation, delays and cancelations cannot be ruled out**.

Protests in capital city

Tens of thousands of people gathered in the capital to protest.

Some of the demonstrations led to **clashes** with the security forces resulting in a number of arrests and injuries. **Despite these isolated acts of frustration the situation appeared to be largely under control.**

"It was loud at the square but outside life went on as usual. I do not think there will much trouble, people are just venting anger", a resident said.

Any further protests are likely to be confined to city squares. Other locations across the country, including areas popular with tourists, **are predicted to remain calm and not affected in any way**.

The Foreign Office advise expatriates and tourists to stay clear of large gatherings of people and follow the advice from local authorities, hotels and tour operators. No advice against travel to the country has been issued.

According to the tourist office, demonstrations "had limited impact on the transport network in the country".

Bomb explosion in **popular tourist destination: Is it safe?**

Security forces are on high alert **at airports, train stations and markets** across the country following last week's bomb explosion in the capital city.

The bomb went off next to police vehicles. They were parked in a city square **situated on the edge of a district full of restaurants, cafes and shops**. At least 22 people, **including British tourists**, were injured in the blast.

"I have never seen anything like this and I cannot believe it happened right here. Now people will not have peace of mind", a resident said.

It was not immediately apparent who was behind the attack. Unofficial sources revealed that a link **to al-Qaeda and associated radical Islamic groups** is suspected; however a police spokesman said there were no firm leads.

If the suspicion is true, there are fears of further attacks on **city centre locations**.

The Foreign Office advises expatriates and tourists to remain vigilant in all public areas across the country and to report anything suspicious to the authorities. No advice against travel to the country has been issued.

Keith Johns, of the Federation of Tour Operators, said: "There has been no noticeable downturn due to terrorism." **Nonetheless, further indiscriminate attacks in areas popular with tourists cannot be ruled out**.

Bomb explosion in **city square**

Security forces are on high alert across the country following last week's bomb explosion in the capital city.

The bomb went off next to police vehicles parked in a city square. At least 22 people**, mainly police officers**, were injured in the blast.

"Yes it was a terrorist attack but we refuse to be terrorised. Life here goes on as usual", a resident said.

It was not immediately apparent who was behind the attack. Unofficial sources revealed that a link **to domestic rebel separatist group** is suspected; however a police spokesman said there were no firm leads.

If the suspicion is true, there are fears of further attacks on **security forces**.

The Foreign Office advises expatriates and tourists to remain vigilant in all public areas across the country and report anything suspicious to the authorities. No advice against travel to the country has been issued.

Keith Johns, of the Association of the Federation of Tour Operators, said: "There has been no noticeable downturn due to terrorism."

Appendix 4: Survey-embedded experiment – e-mail to respondents

Dear Respondent,

I would like to take this opportunity to thank you for your participation in the Tourist Holiday Choices research project that is currently being undertaken at the John Kent Institute in Tourism at Bournemouth University. We really appreciate the time you took to express your views on the topic

As briefly explained in the pack you received by post, the questionnaire you filled in is part of a larger project. We are currently undertaking a number of research steps with an end goal of producing another short questionnaire by no later than March 2013. As you kindly agreed to answer a few more questions, we would be very grateful if you could assist us with completing this follow-up questionnaire. Once ready, an electronic copy will be sent to your e-mail address.

Once again I would like to emphasise that all responses will be treated with complete confidentiality. Moreover, as promised in the letter you received, you will be automatically entered into a prize draw with the chance of winning £50 shopping vouchers. This is conditional of your response to this second questionnaire.

If you have any questions in regards to any of the above please do not hesitate to contact me on this e-mail address.

Many thanks once again for your assistance with this research.

Appendix 5: Example of the survey embedded experiment

Holiday Choices

Thank you for your interest in filling in this questionnaire. This will take approximately 10 minutes to complete.

On the following page you will find an introduction to a short exercise on holiday choices. Of course all the answers you provide will be treated with complete confidentiality and in case you have any further questions about this study, please do not hesitate in contacting me on this e-mail address gkapuscinski@bournemouth.ac.uk

ID number (please enter the ID number you received in the e-mail to proceed)

ID Number

Reset   Next

Holiday Choices

Please imagine you are planning an overseas holiday. The country of your choice offers a large variety of different activities and attractions. These are available in different regions of the country and range from beach resorts, to historic attractions and outdoor activities.

The following are descriptions of three different regions within this country of your choice. Using the scale provided, please indicate your willingness to visit these regions.

Q1   Region A is famous for being situated on a beautiful coastline with white sand beaches and calm turquoise water. You will have an opportunity to enjoy the warm sunny climate in the surrounding of relaxing hotel facilities, good cuisine as well as vibrant nightlife and entertainment. Whether on palm-fringed beaches, by the swimming pool with a tropical drink, out shopping or on an excursion, you will have a stress free and fun holiday.

1 - Would definitely avoid	2 - Would rather avoid	3 - Unsure	4 - Would rather visit	5 - Would definitley visit
☑	○	○	○	○

Q2   Region B is known for the unspoilt beauty of its natural resources and great potential for a variety of outdoor activities. You will have an opportunity to spend your time actively while exploring the natural environment, enjoying scenic beauty and watching wildlife. The available activities range from softer forms of adventure such as fishing, trekking or wildlife photography, to more challenging and exciting ones, for instance, rock climbing or white water rafting.

1 - Would definitely avoid	2 - Would rather avoid	3 - Unsure	4 - Would rather visit	5 - Would definitley visit
○	○	○	○	○

Q3   Region C is widely recognised for the richness of its cultural resources which range from ancient history to modern architecture and performing arts events. You will have an opportunity to visit many places of historical significance such as famous cathedrals, temples and monuments. With an abundance of world famous museums, arts exhibitions, as well as locally staged festivals and colourful markets, there will be plenty to see and learn.

1 - Would definitely avoid	2 - Would rather avoid	3 - Unsure	4 - Would rather visit	5 - Would definitley visit
○	○	○	○	○

Back   Reset   Next

Holiday Choices

You are now ready to plan your itinerary, when you come across a news article about this country.

You will find this news article on the following page. Please take as much time as you need and read the article carefully.

☐☐☐☐■☐☐☐☐☐☐

| Back | Reset | Next |

Holiday Choices

Protests in capital city

Tens of thousands of people gathered in the capital city to protest.

Some of the demonstrations led to clashes with the security forces resulting in a number of arrests and injuries. Despite these isolated acts of frustration the situation appeared to be largely under control.

"It was loud at the square but outside life went on as usual. I do not think there will much trouble, people are just venting anger", a resident said.

Any further protests are likely to be confined to city squares. Other locations across the country, including areas popular with tourists, are predicted to remain calm and not affected in any way.

The Foreign Office advise expatriates and tourists to stay clear of large gatherings of people and follow the advice from local authorities, hotels and tour operators. No advice against travel to the country has been issued.

According to the tourist office, demonstrations "had limited impact on the transport network in the country".

Back   **Reset**   **Next**

Holiday Choices

Q4   **Using the scale provided, please indicate to what extent you would worry about travelling to this country?**

Very worried	Somewhat worried	Neither	Not very worried	Not worried at all
☐	○	○	○	○

In your own words, please can you describe what went through your mind when making this judgment?

[text box]

Back   Reset   Next

<center><h2>Holiday Choices</h2></center>

Q5 The following are descriptions of the same three regions you read about previously. <mark>Assuming you have not made any travel arrangements yet</mark>, please indicate your willingness to visit these regions under the circumstances described in the news report you read.

Region A is famous for being situated on a beautiful coastline with white sand beaches and calm turquoise water. You will have an opportunity to enjoy the warm sunny climate in the surrounding of relaxing hotel facilities, good cuisine as well as vibrant nightlife and entertainment. Whether on palm-fringed beaches, by the swimming pool with a tropical drink, out shopping or on an excursion, you will have a stress free and fun holiday.

Would definitely avoid	Would rather avoid	Unsure	Would rather visit	Would definitely visit
☑	○	○	○	○

In your own words, please can you describe what went through your mind when making this judgment?

_____

Q6

Region B is known for the unspoilt beauty of its natural resources and great potential for a variety of outdoor activities. You will have an opportunity to spend your time actively while exploring the natural environment, enjoying scenic beauty and watching wildlife. The available activities range from softer forms of adventure such as fishing, trekking or wildlife photography, to more challenging and exciting ones, for instance, rock climbing or white water rafting.

Would definitely avoid	Would rather avoid	Unsure	Would rather visit	Would definitely visit
○	○	○	○	○

In your own words, please can you describe what went through your mind when making this judgment?

_____

Q7

Region C is widely recognised for the richness of its cultural resources which range from ancient history to modern architecture and performing arts events. You will have an opportunity to visit many places of historical significance such as famous cathedrals, temples and monuments. With an abundance of world famous museums, arts exhibitions, as well as locally staged festivals and colourful markets, there will be plenty to see and learn.

Would definitely avoid	Would rather avoid	Unsure	Would rather visit	Would definitely visit
○	○	○	○	○

In your own words, please can you describe what went through your mind when making this judgment?

_____

<center>Back   Reset   Next</center>

Holiday Choices

Thank you very much for your time. Please now click the Submit button below.

Back   Reset   Submit

Appendix 6: Interview – e-mail to respondents

Dear respondent,

Thank you kindly for your time and participation in the recent questionnaire you received on this e-mail address. The data collection phase has now finished and as promised all respondents have been entered into a prize draw. The winner has been chosen at random, and I regret to inform you that you have not been successful on this occasion.

Once again, I would like to thank you for your responses. To complete the last phase of this research project we are looking for 12 participants to take part in short interviews regarding their experience with holiday choices and news media use. We would be very interested to hear about your experiences.

Each interview will last approximately 20 - 30 minutes and you will receive a £10 gift voucher of your choice for your time. Interviews will be conducted over the telephone or a communication tool such as Skype or telephone.

If you are interested in participating please contact me on this e-mail address. Also, please find attached the participant information sheet which explains in more detail your role as the participant and what the research will involve. If you have any questions in regards to any of this information please do not hesitate to contact me.

Many thanks once again for your assistance with this research.

Appendix 7: Interview participant information sheet

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Bournemouth University Research Project: Tourist Holiday Choices
Dear participant, thank you for your continued interest in this research project.

Purpose of the interview
This in-depth interview aims to explore how tourists use news concerning holiday destinations in making their travel choices. You have been identified as a key informant based on your interest in filling in previous questionnaires. I will ask you about your thoughts and feelings related to the short article you read previously, and how you choose your holidays in response to such news. What you tell me could help contribute to better understanding of tourist experiences and the role that news play in this.

Dissemination of the research
The research is part of PhD research at Bournemouth University. The findings gathered from the study will be disseminated for academic purposes.

Anonymity of the interviewee
You will remain completely anonymous and your name will be immediately substituted with a pseudonym.

Format, length and recording of the interview
Your participation would involve a semi-structured, open-ended interview around holiday choices and news media use. The interview is anticipated to last for approximately 20 minutes. Subject to your permission, the interview will be audio recorded for later analysis.

Consent
Strict ethical standards are being maintained throughout the project. Any material you provide will be treated confidentially and published in a format that does not identify individuals. The digitally recorded interview data and any contact information will be stored securely and destroyed after completion of this study. You can withdraw your consent at any stage before, during or after the interview.

Thank you in advance for your help with this research project. If you would like to know more about the research project or have any questions, please contact me on the address provided below.

Grzegorz Kapuscinski
PhD Researcher
John Kent Institute in Tourism, Bournemouth University
Email: gkapuscinski@bournemouth.ac.uk

Appendix 8: Allo/mid/psychocentric correlation matrix

Spearman's rho Correlations

		(Self-Reliance) Prefer tourist package	(Novelty) Prefer familiar destinations	(Novelty/Off-the beaten track) Stay away from popular tourist areas	(Institutionalisation) Prefer usual comforts	(Intellectual curiosity) Willing to learn	(Physical activity) Enjoy resting and relaxing	(Open to otherness) Prefer to socialise with same culture
(Self-Reliance) Prefer tourist package	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.291**	.355**	.309**	.276**	.298**	.327**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	444	444	444	444	444	444	444
(Novelty) Prefer familiar destinations	Correlation Coefficient	.291**	1.000	.209**	.410**	.322**	.349**	.357**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	444	444	444	444	444	444	444
(Novelty/Off-the beaten track) Stay away from popular tourist areas	Correlation Coefficient	.355**	.209**	1.000	.291**	.295**	.242**	.248**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	444	444	444	444	444	444	444
(Institutionalisation) Prefer usual comforts	Correlation Coefficient	.309**	.410**	.291**	1.000	.266**	.416**	.399**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
	N	444	444	444	444	444	444	444
(Intellectual curiosity) Willing to learn	Correlation Coefficient	.276**	.322**	.295**	.266**	1.000	.310**	.300**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
	N	444	444	444	444	444	444	444
(Physical activity) Enjoy resting and relaxing	Correlation Coefficient	.298**	.349**	.242**	.416**	.310**	1.000	.299**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
	N	444	444	444	444	444	444	444
(Open to otherness) Prefer to socialise with same culture	Correlation Coefficient	.327**	.357**	.248**	.399**	.300**	.299**	1.000
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
	N	444	444	444	444	444	444	444

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Psychographic items (Egypt)	Overall	Allo N=35	Mid N=87	Psycho N=32	Gap between Allo-Psycho
1) Prefer tourist package [a]	3.39	4.40	3.41	2.06	2.34
2) Prefer familiar destinations [a]	3.10	3.97	3.17	1.96	2.01
3) Stay away from popular tourist areas	3.22	3.94	3.25	2.34	1.60
4) Prefer usual comforts and luxury [a]	2.67	3.83	2.48	1.93	1.90
5) Intellectually curious and willing to learn	3.65	4.23	3.82	2.59	1.64
6) Prefer resting and relaxing [a]	2.77	3.82	2.67	1.87	1.95
7) Prefer to socialize with the same culture [a]	3.23	4.17	3.11	2.50	1.67
Scale total	3.14	4.05	3.13	2.17	1.87
Cronbach's alpha = .764 [a] Allocentric items worded negatively (scores reversed)					

Psychographic items (India)	Overall	Allo N=37	Mid N=76	Psycho N=40	Gap between Allo-Psycho
1) Prefer tourist package [a]	3.39	4.35	3.47	2.35	2.00
2) Prefer familiar destinations [a]	2.98	3.86	3.07	2.00	1.86
3) Stay away from popular tourist areas	3.23	4.08	3.15	2.60	1.48
4) Prefer usual comforts and luxury [a]	2.58	3.72	2.51	1.67	2.05
5) Intellectually curious and willing to learn	3.66	4.40	3.70	2.82	1.58
6) Prefer resting and relaxing [a]	2.68	3.62	2.67	1.85	1.80
7) Prefer to socialize with the same culture [a]	3.08	4.02	3.02	2.32	1.70
Scale total	3.07	4.00	3.08	2.23	1.78
Cronbach's alpha = .773					

Psychographic items (Turkey)	Overall	Allo N=37	Mid N=72	Psycho N=36	Gap between Allo-Psycho
1) Prefer tourist package [a]	3.28	4.27	3.43	2.00	2.27
2) Prefer familiar destinations [a]	3.14	4.00	3.13	2.27	1.73
3) Stay away from popular tourist areas	3.15	3.83	3.11	2.55	1.28
4) Prefer usual comforts and luxury [a]	2.64	3.83	2.41	1.88	1.95
5) Intellectually curious and willing to learn	3.66	4.24	3.82	2.77	1.47
6) Prefer resting and relaxing [a]	2.77	3.59	2.75	1.97	1.62
7) Prefer to socialize with the same culture [a]	3.18	3.91	3.22	2.36	1.55
Scale total	3.21	3.95	3.12	2.25	1.69
Cronbach's alpha = .749					

Appendix 10: PCA – correlation matrix

Correlations

		Unique culture	Historic sites	Art/cultural events	Heritage and arts exhibitions	Traditional lifestyle	Scenic beauty	Physical challenge activities	Abundant wildlife	Remote and wilderness environment	Camp sites	Warm climate and sun	Nightlife and entertainment	Amusement or theme parks	Beach and water activities	Good shopping facilities
Spearman's rho																
Unique culture	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.563**	.418**	.495**	.517**	.204**	.155**	.209**	.296**	.169**	-.181**	-.075	-.125**	-.090*	-.199**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.057	.004	.029	.000
Historic sites	Correlation Coefficient	.563**	1.000	.515**	.705**	.425**	.237**	.026	.091*	.154**	.072	-.283**	-.139**	-.167**	-.214**	-.128**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.289	.065	.001	.065	.000	.002	.000	.000	.003
Art/cultural events	Correlation Coefficient	.418**	.515**	1.000	.643**	.395**	.148**	.040	.053	.099*	.056	-.202**	-.014	-.102*	-.164**	-.003
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.001	.202	.132	.019	.118	.000	.387	.016	.000	.477
Heritage and arts exhibitions	Correlation Coefficient	.495**	.705**	.643**	1.000	.435**	.179**	.068	.077	.157**	.109*	-.257**	-.107*	-.147**	-.162**	-.113**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.076	.053	.000	.011	.000	.012	.001	.000	.009
Traditional lifestyle	Correlation Coefficient	.517**	.425**	.395**	.435**	1.000	.240**	.072	.101*	.146**	.132**	-.111**	-.017	-.150**	-.044	-.058
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.064	.016	.001	.003	.010	.357	.001	.175	.110
Scenic beauty	Correlation Coefficient	.204**	.237**	.148**	.179**	.240**	1.000	.173**	.263**	.195**	.138**	-.145**	-.074	-.144**	-.013	-.083*
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.002	.001	.059	.001	.389	.040
Physical challenge activities	Correlation Coefficient	.155**	.026	.040	.068	.072	.173**	1.000	.578**	.627**	.525**	-.066	.057	.161**	.106*	-.176**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.001	.289	.202	.076	.064	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.082	.115	.000	.013	.000
Abundant wildlife	Correlation Coefficient	.209**	.091*	.053	.077	.101*	.263**	.578**	1.000	.686**	.414**	-.092*	.055	.125**	.082*	-.171**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.053	.132	.053	.016	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.027	.122	.004	.043	.000
Remote and wilderness environment	Correlation Coefficient	.296**	.154**	.099*	.157**	.146**	.195**	.627**	.686**	1.000	.567**	-.035	.047	.135**	.109*	-.173**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.001	.019	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.232	.161	.002	.011	.000
Camp sites	Correlation Coefficient	.169**	.072	.056	.109*	.132**	.138**	.525**	.414**	.567**	1.000	.044	.053	.164**	.179**	-.092*
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.072	.118	.011	.003	.002	.000	.000	.000	.	.178	.132	.000	.000	.026
Warm climate and sun	Correlation Coefficient	-.181**	-.283**	-.202**	-.257**	-.111**	-.145**	-.066	-.092*	-.035	.044	1.000	.428**	.434**	.594**	.435**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.010	.001	.082	.027	.232	.178	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
Nightlife and entertainment	Correlation Coefficient	-.075	-.139**	-.014	-.107*	-.017	-.074	.057	.055	.047	.053	.428**	1.000	.503**	.406**	.444**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.057	.002	.387	.012	.357	.059	.115	.122	.161	.132	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
Amusement or theme parks	Correlation Coefficient	-.125**	-.167**	-.102*	-.147**	-.150**	-.144**	.161**	.125**	.135**	.164**	.434**	.503**	1.000	.536**	.411**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.004	.000	.016	.001	.001	.001	.000	.004	.002	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
Beach and water activities	Correlation Coefficient	-.090*	-.214**	-.164**	-.162**	-.044	-.013	.106*	.082*	.109*	.179**	.594**	.406**	.536**	1.000	.423**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.029	.000	.000	.000	.175	.389	.013	.043	.011	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
Good shopping facilities	Correlation Coefficient	-.199**	-.128**	-.003	-.113**	-.058	-.083*	-.176**	-.171**	-.173**	-.092*	.435**	.444**	.411**	.423**	1.000
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.000	.003	.477	.009	.110	.040	.000	.000	.000	.026	.000	.000	.000	.000	.

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Appendix 11: Mann-Whitney post hoc for perceived risk between allocentric and midcentric types, and midcentric and psychocentric types

Types of risk	Tourist types	Mean ranking		MUW	z	Asympt. sig.
Crime	Allo and Mid	68.50	52.63	997.500	-2.491	.013
Health	(Egypt)	76.64	49.02	712.500	-4.314	.000
PI		70.60	51.70	924.000	-3.000	.003
Terrorism		71.34	51.37	898.000	.3.105	.002
Crime	Allo and Mid	68.24	51.53	990.000	-2.641	.008
Health	(India)	68.62	51.34	976.000	-2.795	.005
PI		69.89	50.72	929.000	-3.012	.003
Terrorism		68.72	51.30	972.500	-2.734	.006
Crime	Mid and Psycho	61.78	41.72	807.000	-3.166	.002
Health	(Egypt)	62.47	40.02	752.500	-3.579	.000
PI		62.62	39.66	741.000	-3.702	.000
Terrorism		64.26	35.61	611.500	-4.517	.000

Appendix 12: Transcript of the interview with John

(I: Interviewer, P: Participant)

I: Ok, so recording is now on, and um, so as I said we are basically talking about this article and the three regions that you read about. And um, after you read the article I wanted to know how much you would worry about travelling to this country, and you said that you would be neither worried nor unworried, and what I wanted to ask you was, was there any part of the article that perhaps caught your attention or helped you make this judgment?

P: Umm, not so much the article is, in that, I was going to say, it's usually, just say if it was sort of unfortunately explosion or when there was being rioting in Egypt, just say, this might explain some of my answers, if there is rioting in the centre in Egypt in Cairo. Right, I would be a bit more apprehensive if I was going to the Cairo museum, unless it was a guided tour, in which case the guide would then say, well it's unsafe to do so therefore you don't. If you go in on a Nile Cruise, and just going on day trips out, then that wouldn't worry me at all.

I: Mhm

P: You know, that's why it's either one or the other, and usually the security is a lot better after an incident anyway.

I: Mhm, so you mean, because you did mention this in the questionnaire, in this scenario of a bomb explosion that you read about in a city centre location, you felt that security would be tighter afterwards.

P: Yep

I: So you wouldn't necessarily …

P: So I wouldn't, yep, and of course, just say, being single, I haven't got a wife or family to worry about.

I: Right.

P: Which again, can come into the equation, which is not there necessarily, that can come into the effect the decision, if I was married with two young children.

I: Sure, sure, yes, absolutely. So you didn't feel there was anything in particular, there was nothing that you necessarily remember from that short text.

P: Umm, not really, there was a bomb explosion in a capital city somewhere, and that, and again, that somewhere, you know, could be, you know, not necessarily the one, you know the one in hundred places, you know you had to visit, in two places you had to visit in Cairo, and you know, the bomb occurred on a sort of, at café bar in main square where I wouldn't be visiting.

I: Mhm, mhm.

P: Then again, you know, there is, there is a lot of chance being knocked down, crossing the road.

I: Absolutely, yes, yes, because really these are the sort of questions of risk, and how we feel about certain things we see.

P: How we feel about it, yep. Because actually when you just kind of give, sort of, quick one line answers, you can't go into it deeper explanation, which is obviously why you are doing this one.

I: Yes, precisely, precisely. So, and as you noticed, this is an unspecified country which obviously makes it a bit harder, but what we wanted to do sort of see how you perhaps perceive risk in response to a text that you make come across in a newspaper or online. So basically, stepping away from this article, after you read it, I asked you how willing would you be to travel to these three regions, now that you have seen this short note. With regards to region A, which was this, sort of …

P: I would call it a beach resort.

I: A beach resort, yes, and you said that you were unsure, and you said that there was no change here because this simply isn't your type of holiday.

P: It isn't my type of holiday, but yes, if it was, I wouldn't, yes, in one sense I could qualify that a little bit, but it isn't my type of holiday therefore I wouldn't go there, but it wouldn't make any difference to me, because of what has happened in the city.

I: Mhm, so let's say if you won the trip or someone, you know asked you to come with, then this wouldn't be the type of place you would see to be at risk?

P: Yeah, I wouldn't feel at risk at all really.

I: Mhm, is it because of the distance? Because I hear that you recognise that this isn't the same location as where the explosion took place.

P: Yep, it is the distance, it's a sort of like, not, a, well I assume you say there is no large town there, this is a sort of holiday resort, where there is no large town, a resort isn't a large town itself if your with me.

I: Yes, yes. So, no risk to you there?

P: No risk at all, because …well I am just thinking now. A long time ago I went on a holiday to Limassol, and I think just outside the centre is the row of all the hotels which have the long beaches, you know. So that's is one place, again, that wouldn't worry me, in fact, the holiday resort, if it was part of that city wouldn't still worry me because what they are going to be doing is an odd excursion out, and sunbathing, you know, and being in the complex itself, or in the short locality around it, which is going to be full of holidaymakers.

I: Yeah.

P: If that tries to explain it a bit clearer.

I: Sure, sure, so basically if this was something you were interested you just wouldn't feel that this would put you off.

P: It wouldn't put me off, no. It wouldn't put me off, if it interest me, if that was my type of holiday it wouldn't put me off yet again.

I: Can you think of, perhaps, because we are not talking about specific countries, can you think of any countries where coming across something like this would be a problem?

P: I am just trying to think now, umm, well I suppose, you could say that the Bali one, with the Australian backpackers, you know, that was then I would call probably a lively, you know, lively resort for youngsters, and of course that was right bang in the middle of a tourist holiday making area. But I can't remember how large a place it was if you're

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with me. But that would be one that would be, again if that had happened, you know what I mean, the security will be a lot tigher after the event anyway.

I: Yes, yes. So speaking of, you know, the places that you would normally go to or you would be interested in going to, just a few questions about your preferences. Is spending time in popular tourist areas, is this something that you enjoy doing?

P: Um, no, I was saying really, fortunately now, my holidays are activity led. At the moment walking while I can still do it.

I: Mhm

P: And then, just say, more, which is really Region B, and then to a lesser extent Region C, right. Because then I will, If I combine, the holidays I have been on since I have been retired are mainly walking ones, abroad, right so you know, abroad. And then there can be an element of what you would call region C comes into place.

I: Yes, yes, because naturally there would be a mixture of maybe to some people all three, so these are just sort of generic regions.

P: Yeah I know what you mean.

I: In reality you would do a bit of this and a bit of that. So would I be right in saying that would rather, when you are away, you would rather make an effort to maybe to visit these out-of-the-way places where less tourists go perhaps?

P: Yes, a little bit, there is a little bit of that element in it, yes. Although again, just say, one of the walking holidays, right, they gave us the afternoon in Barcelona just say. In which case them, except I didn't have time to go around it, but I went to that, Gaudi, one of the Cathedrals, and then I think … was it the same holiday (wondering). Yes, we went down to Tarragona, which was, again this was included in the walking holiday part. As walkers we were allowed to join the tours, on a couple of the trips, if you're with me. Well basically we they were inclusive. And that was the two that we did, which was Tarragona, which again was the Roman, sort of, you know, ancient. The Barcelona which is the modern architecture, and Tarragona which was ancient history.

I: Yes, yes.

P: So basically, my preference, well my preference of holidays is really now, region B type holidays which is really walking, and if it includes any of region C, I am not that

much into arts and music, yet (chuckles). I may have been in past, but not so much at the moment. And then really, like the beach holidays, is my last, again in my circumstances, sunbathing holidays, just doing nothing but eat and drink and sunbathe are out for me because I had a mole on my back, and you know, which was due to skin cancer.

I: Right. So that's not for you.

P: Clear now, I am perfectly clear but that's it, sunbathing holidays are out for me. I am not going to take any more chances. But again, in response to your question, about, say, a bomb scare, a bomb incident previously, again, it wouldn't really make that much more difference, right. Again, it wouldn't really make that much more difference, right, you know, would not make much difference to my answers, because its not my preference.

I: Mhm so it's more the preference rather than being worried about a possibility of something happening.

P: Again, region B, my sort of choice holidays, is I don't think anybody is going to start bombing a few hikers going into the hillsides, if you are with me.

I: That's another thing, yes. So no risk there you see.

P: There is no risk there, the risk there was minimal. Right, go sort of walking in the desert in Tunisia or something, not Tunisia what's is the other one … oh where was the one that they just, where Katmandu is, oh Algeria, go sort of backpacking in the Algerian desert. Where, you are probably asking for, well relatively asking for trouble anyway. You know, because these tribal factors can come in, of whichever, I have never been there, but I should imagine its just nothing but deserts and a few, that type of thing, going into what would be a high risk area. That's something else then, you know, that is something else. It's not a bomb scare; it is generally high risk anyway. You know, it's like sailing a boat off, is it the Somali coast.

I: For instance, yes.

P: Yeah, obviously you are excluding that type of danger.

I: Yes. And, um, also when you were talking about your holidays you mentioned that when you went to Barcelona you had a few things arranged. So are you happy to,

speaking of holiday arrangements, are you happy to have things arranged for you, have sort of package tours with some, transfers, meals, or some excursions arranged for you?

P: Yes, yep.

I: So you go for that type of holidays.

P: Yeah, that's my preferences, where everything is organized for you.

I: Yeah, yeah. And you mentioned that you would not spend your time on the beach because of the situation that you're in, but is sort of resting and relaxation something that you enjoy doing? Because you also mentioned, you know walks, that you enjoy being active as well …

P: Oh yes, as I was saying then the idea (chuckles) of the walk is to get fit, and then when you get back I will probably sit more, sometimes even where the sun was. Because again, the walking holiday is within February. In Barcelona, so the temperature is not that high, so I probably would sit out in the sun and read a paper or magazine, and have a beer, and then just relax and chill out.

I: So a mixture of two.

P: So yeah, at my age I won't be on the go all the time anyway, but you know what I mean. I would actually take the days off as relaxation day, if you're with me. Just walk around the local area, and then just generally just relax, and you know, just sit down, chill out and have a beer.

I: Yeah, yeah, and when you're away on holidays overseas, is interaction with different cultures, with unfamiliar peoples, is this something that you do? Is this something that you are interested in?

P: I would try to do, yes. In, say, my Spanish in non-existent, my French was ok 50, 40 years ago. But I did actually try to speak some French in a bar, but I find then that I would like to, yes, and again, just bare with me, these walking holidays with this company, they don't go to umm, you know, if they go, Barcelona is probably the one example, they would try to go to a quieter resort, in whatever island, either mainland Spain or one of the Spanish islands, they would tend to, if they can, go to one of the quieter resorts if you're with me.

I: Mhm.

P: Where it isn't the packed out commercial, you know, equivalent of Magaluf, if you're with me. There I will try to find out, at least I think the Barcelona one was in a place called Coma Ruga, and the hotel there, where in fact over the weekend, there was about 30 or 40 of us on the sort of tour in walking holiday, and a few others, and then at the weekend it was, I think it was a free Spanish holiday, that pensioners get, that people get in Spain, and that's it, the hotel on the Saturday, Friday, Saturday, Sunday was absolutely packed out with Spanish people, which was great to observe because, that was good because they try to, tend to go to a quieter resort if you're with me, where is a bit more cosmopolitan, and quieter, as opposed to the out and out typical hotel in Magaluf. So yeah, the answer is that, yes, I wouldn't necessarily seek it out, but on the other hand, it's there, in this company that I go for, you know, that I go with.

I: Mhm, I understand, yes, yes. And when you are away, and you have certain things arranged, you know, your hotel, your accommodation and so on, would you say there are certain services and certain facilities, certain standards that you expect when you're away?

P: Umm, I was going to say, yes. I would think so, again these tend to be three to four star hotels, umm, basically, you know if it was a 2/3 star, one of them was a 3 star, but the food she said, the tour manager, said I pick this place rather than a 4 star because the food was a lot better than the four star. But yes, I would expect a good standard of accommodation.

I: Mhm, yes.

P: Mhm, but basically as long as it's clean and the food is edible, there is a bar for the evening. It's not, again, it wouldn't tend to be a factor in the sense, just bear with me, I think last year I went on a walking holiday, in this country, with a company. It was a 2 star bed and breakfast evening meal, hotel in Bournemouth, and again, as long as the beds were clean, the food was eatable, it didn't matter that it was two star.

I: Right, excellent, ok, and stepping out of those preferences and stepping back into the regions you read about. The region C, which was the city or a town, with markets, heritage sites and so on, you said that that's not necessarily your number one pick, but It was probably second after region B.

P: Yes, yep.

I: And in this context you said that, speaking of risk, there was no change in your decision as the security would be tighter.

P: Yes, again, yep.

I: Ok you said that you would still rather visit this place. So, no problems there?

P: No, no problems there again, it might be, I am just thinking now, you said yes, cathedrals, temples, monuments, yeah, museums, arts, yeah, festivals, markets, again, yeah that wouldn't umm, again, the mere fact that something had happened previously, you know, it wouldn't affect me.

I: Mhm, mhm, yeah, and in the end, all this was in a scenario where you were looking at this place, you were considering this place, but you haven't booked anything yet. And then when I asked you about, what would you do of this was in a situation where you have booked, you have invested some time and money in it, you would be happy to go ahead with basically all three regions.

P: Yes, yep.

I: Yeah, absolutely, excellent, well John, we are pushing 20 minutes.

P: Well, I was going to say, if you have any more questions we can carry on if that is all right with yourself.

I: Yes, absolutely, umm, I think we covered most of the things that I wanted to know with regards to the questionnaire that you filled in, but I would be very happy to hear about any experiences that you had with these sort of things, can you remember any trip that you trip that you went to that something happened, perhaps something came up?

P: There is only one, and it's probably why it stuck in my mind actually. Umm again, I am trying to think now, it was early in my marriage, I was married for 22 years, and that was then 30 years, when we would have been married 30 years, it think it would be about 10 or 15 years, somewhere in sort of mid-nineties, early to mid-nineties. We went to Paris on a what I call a long weekend, and we had read about the fact that there was pickpockets in the underground, and we got one of those tickets, because they just simply left us to it, there was nothing organized. We went on the underground, or metro they call it, and I nearly got pick pocketed, as, they lead my wife on, and I had my wallet in my back pocket, and all of a sudden as I was trying to get through the doors it

was like a wall. Couple of people just blocked me, and then I looked behind me, and there was somebody about to start grabbing my back pocket. It was not one of those subtle pick pockets, it was blatant. I just simply charged, shoulder charged me away, and then next thing these two people, just got off, the door started to close, they jumped off, and then two other people run off, you know they already started to run off, if you're with me. So it was an attempted pick pocket, right, if you're with me. Not in a mugging sense per se, in that they would have used violence, it was just the fact that they blocked off me getting off, then they can just simply, one could grab my arms, and the other one flip the walled out. But I don't know I had some sixth sense, some instinct told me that, and this is what is happening. You know, before it happened, or was about to happen. So that was it, there were there to block me, so I basically barged past them without giving them any warning, you know, if you're with me. I think that's about it, that's the only incident I have ever had.

I: So what you read about actually came true in a way.

P: What I read about actually came true, yes.

I: And how do you feel about the sort of things that you may from time to time come across you know in the newspapers or on TV, say the things you mentioned about Egypt, the riots, or some terrorist attacks, how do you feel about those in the context of you going to these places?

P: Again, I think that both the press and the TV over exaggerate the story, you know, and place it into a context, you know of, I mean obviously, don't get me wrong, it is serious, you know, but into context of, just say I just looked at something, the clashes in the walking holiday in September. A trip I was wanting to do, the Nile cruise this winter. And there is that one come up, that actually fly to Cairo, stay a night in Cairo, and then they take you to the Pyramids, then it's a train to Aswan, or you can fly for extra. Then you do a part of the Nile cruise, and then you go off on a bus somewhere else, stay a couple of nights, to visit other parts of what I call, the Valley of the Kings, or the Queens, or something else, yeah some other yeah.

I: That's right, yeah.

P: And then you go back to Cairo again, and then you go around the museum, now that is then in the centre of Cairo, admittedly it's been quite quiet but I think about six weeks ago, or eight weeks ago, I am not too sure, was it after the elections.

I: Well, it's been, sort of ongoing, since the revolution.

P: Yes, depending on what happened, was it the Coptic Christians …

I: Yes, since Morsi took over.

P: Yes, so that could flare up at any time. If I happen to be there, at a particular time, again, you rely on tour manager to say, well, just rely on their advice.

I: So you're happy to stick with the industry.

P: Yep.

I: and assume that if they are letting you on the trip then surely it has to be safe enough.

P: Yeah, yeah, again, they are not going to get out of the way, because again, this rioting, you say, could be in a particular suburb of Cairo, right, if you're with me, nowhere near the tourist areas.

I: Yes, yes.

P: Now, that wouldn't come out in the press. You get the impression, yep, that the whole of Cairo was rioting basically, you know.

I: Right, right, which is not true at all.

P: Which is not true at all, right.

I: Yes, yes, I suppose a lot of people, sort of, make, since we had some recent incidents in London, I think a lot of people seem to have that comparison, that when things happened in London, would you feel threatened going to Lake District, well you wouldn't because its, you know, its so far away that there wouldn't be any problems.

P: Wouldn't be any problems.

I: Yet people seem to worry about going to south of Egypt.

P: Yeah.

I: So, that's interesting. So that's basically your view on how media tend to portray things, that they can exaggerate at times.

P: Yes, they can exaggerate at times, yeah, and again, the whole of the centre of Egypt, is, just say, the tourism, historical parts, is obviously they don't necessarily do, you know, I am not do sure where that square is in Egypt that they congregate round, I am not too sure of that, if it's in a centre of tourist area, or whether it's like a square that is more for locals, its more of a local centre than tourist centre.

I: Mhm, mhm.

P: That bit I must admit I don't know, you know.

I: But that's something that you can read up on before going?

P: Yep, and then again if it did happen, the tour manager, guide, whatever would inform you. I think it was Los Angeles, when my brother went, and his wife went a long time ago, they did fly and car journey. Fly over and then you hire a car. Fly drives, that's what they call them, anyway so they stayed a few nights in Los Angeles, and basically they said, yes everywhere is safe, but when you go out of this hotel, don't turn left. Turn right and you're into downtown, whatever it is, the city centre, you go that way, no problems.

I: Ok, John, I think this is it really, I mean I just wanted to ask you about these things.

P: Right, if you are happy.

I: Yes, I am very happy, this was very helpful. Thank you again for your time, good bye now.

P: No problem, bye.