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Effect of risk perception on travel intention to conflict-ridden destinations.

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PhD Thesis

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Much like every step while hiking leads the hiker nearer the peak, all knowledge leads me nearer the sense.

This thesis is a result of the continued support, guidance, advice of my doctoral advisor, Dr Irma Agárdi. I would like to concede my deepest gratitude to her contributions and her continued patience throughout this challenging and rewarding experience.

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1. Introduction

Tourism is one of the leading industries in the world. Travel and tourism in total contributed US$8.9 trillion to the global GDP in 2019, accounting for 10.3% of world GDP (WTTC, 2020). In 2019, the number of international tourist arrivals (overnight visitors) increased by 4% to reach a total of 1460 million worldwide (UNWTO, 2020).

Global tourism, however, is strongly influenced by negative external events that might lead to a substantial change in travel behaviour (Michalkó, 2012). Tourism can be negatively affected by natural disasters, political instability, wars, and terrorism (Sönmez, 1998). Due to the increasing number of conflicts worldwide, tourists pay larger attention to the risks associated with international travel. Thus, a higher perceived risk might prevent tourists from travel (Um et al., 2006; Larsen et al., 2009). For instance, France experienced several major terror attacks in 2015. Consequently, the GDP contribution of tourism fell by US$1.7 billion from 2014 to 2015 (IEP, 2016).

In the nineties' tourism literature, tourism risk perception was one of the most researched topics. Researchers concluded that political instability, terrorism, and war automatically increase the perceived risk of the travellers (Roehl and Fesenmaier, 1992; Maser and Weiermair, 1998; Sönmez and Graefe, 1998a, 1998b). More recently, researchers observed that the real and the perceived risk of international travel do not always overlap because tourists often under or overestimate the travel risks (Cui et al., 2016). So, high-risk destinations do not necessarily distract every tourist (Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty, 2009).

1.1 Research objectives, theoretical and practical relevance of the research.

The main research question is how perceived risk influences travel intention to conflict-ridden destinations. The context of the research focuses on conflict-ridden destinations, which are associated with a higher level of risk perception. Conflict-ridden destinations are directly influenced by terrorist attacks, political unrest and war, where tourism and tourist establishments are influenced by these events (Çakmak and İsaac, 2016). Terrorist attacks, political unrest and war increase risks and risk perception of visiting a destination (Sönmez et al. 1999). This thesis aimed to investigate how perceived risk, along with

other factors such as individual characteristics, destination, and prior experience, influences the travel intention in conflict-ridden destinations. More precisely, in my thesis, I review possible influence factors that strengthen (or weaken) the relationship between perceived risk and travel intention, followed by empirical research. The main objectives can be summarized in two points. First is the academic objective, providing a better understanding of the travel intention of potential tourists in context destinations with high-risk perception considered as the conflict-ridden destinations. Existing studies examining risk perception and travel intention (Quintal, 2010; Reisenger and Mavondo, 2005; Lepp and Gibson, 2008) overlooked context-specific research such as in conflict-ridden destinations that may have higher risk perceptions. In this thesis, I aim to add a novelty to existing tourism literature by examining the factors affecting the destination choice of tourists, such as risk perception, individual characteristics, destination image and prior experience, and integrate them into the extended model of the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) that has been overlooked or partially studied in earlier studies (Quintal, 2010; Reisenger and Mavondo, 2005; Lepp and Gibson, 2008). This study aimed to establish the concept where all the effect of all factors tests in one model and provide comprehensive results on the predicting factors of travel intention to conflict-ridden destinations. On the one hand, the research contributes to the understanding of the factors that influence the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.

On the other hand, I aimed to identify the tools that market players can use for decreasing the perceived risk and increase the intention to visit for counterbalancing the fall of tourism. Conflict-ridden destinations face a major challenge with higher levels of risk perceptions and a decrease in the number of tourist arrivals. Similar studies offer managerial implications for destination management organizations and travel agencies to develop a marketing strategy for promoting their destinations as safe travel destinations and increase travel intention (Isaac and Bedem, 2021, Isaac and Velden, 2018). However, the effect of destination image or prior experience has been overlooked. This thesis aimed to provide the results that can be implied in practice by tourism practitioners. The identification of the factors predicting the intention to visit or having significant influence factors provide the opportunities to select efficient strategies to apply for destination marketing campaigns, select correct target markets, also create relevant tourism products for a relevant target market. In addition, the model to study the intention to visit can be applied not only to conflict-ridden destinations but in other destinations as well.

1.2 Structure of the thesis

The thesis is structured in the following way. First, literature related to conflicts, risk perception, destination image, models of travel behaviour had been reviewed. Next, the theory of planned behaviour is discussed that is often applied to modelling tourism behaviour and travel intention, and the conceptual model has been presented by extending the theory of planned behaviour with additional influence factors, namely risk perception, individual characteristics, destination image and prior experience. The last part of the thesis consists of the results of empirical research, hypothesis testing and discussion of the results along with theoretical and practical implications. Limitations and further research suggestions also have been discussed.

2. Literature review

This chapter covers the relevant literature concerning the research question and reviews the most important academic publications related to conflict, perceived risk, and related theories. It outlines the general characteristics of destinations in conflict-ridden areas and tourism risk perception literature. Consequently, it identifies specific relationships with other theories and possible effects of destination and country image on risk perception. Hence, the literature review proposes avenues of the theoretical framework and empirical research.

2.1 The effect of conflicts and crises on tourism

Tourism is one of the main industries in the world, contributing more than 10% to the world's GDP (UNWTO, 2020). However, tourism is affected by political instability and terrorism negatively, which triggers a threat of danger. Therefore, political instability and terrorism influence the demand for tourism and significantly impacts the number of tourist arrivals (Sönmez, 1998). World tourism is affected by the events and crises in an external environment. For instance, small conflicts have considerable effects on the destination image (Ritchie 2004).

International conflicts between countries play a significant role in forming the destination image since they affect the knowledge of the potential tourists about the destination (Alvarez and Campo, 2014). Also, different studies showed that negative cases in the region have a significant negative impact on the tourism industry of that region (Clements and Georgiou, 1998; Gartner and Shen, 1992; Hall, 2010; Rittichainowat and Chakraborty, 2009; Thapa, 2004). Although many scholars (Clements and Georgiou, 1998; Sönmez, 1998; Sönmez, and Graefe, 1998b; Ritchie, 2004; Hall, 2010; Alvarez and Campo, 2014) investigated the effects of conflicts on tourism, the analysis remained at a rather conceptual level. Thus, previous research paid little attention to the impact of conflicts on the individual travel decisions of tourists.

2.1.1 Conflicts

Derived from the Latin word confligere, conflict means to strike together (Farmaki, 2017). The concept of conflict might be captured in various ways. The conflict has been defined as "a struggle over values and claims to scarce status, power, and resources in which the opponents aim to neutralize, injure or eliminate rivals" (Farmaki, 2017).

A claim of a missing treatment or a claim for different treatment is the precondition of conflict, and the target of a claim may be as abstract as interest or as specific as scarce resources, power, or status (Wang and Yotsumoto, 2019). Striving towards the incompatible interest and goals by different groups can be defined as a conflict, and conflicts occur when there is incompatibility or contradiction, and both parties claim it to satisfy their aspirations (Pruitt and Kim, 2004).

Conflict is considered to be an intrinsic and inevitable part of human existence which "cannot be excluded from social life" and is a "general feature of human activity" (Wang and Yotsumoto, 2019). Thus, individuals or organizations can be engaged in conflicts and, the claims among parties may lead to hostilities (Merton, 1948), damaging actions in their favour (Nicholson, 1992).

Hence, three components of conflict can be identified contradiction, attitude, and behaviour (Galtung, 1996). The Heidelberg Institute for International Conflict Research (2017) differentiates between interstate, intrastate, substate, and transstate conflicts. Interstate conflicts only involve internationally recognized state actors; intrastate conflicts involve both state actors and non-state actors. Substate conflicts are carried out solely among non-state actors and translate conflicts that involve both state and non-state actors and meet the criteria of political conflict for at least two sovereign states.

2.1.2 Crises as a consequence of the conflict

Conflicts often lead to a crisis. The term "crisis" is derived from the Greek word "Krisis" meaning the "decision" and "turning point of an illness" (Gui, 2004). In tourism, crises can be generalized as "a period that can threaten the normal operation and conduct of tourism-related businesses. Crisis damages the tourist destination's overall reputation for safety, attractiveness, and comfort because it negatively affects the visitors' perceptions

of that destination; consequently, crisis decreases the local travel, the tourism economy. Furthermore, it interrupts the continuity of business operations for the local travel and tourism industry by the reduction in tourist arrivals and expenditures" (Sönmez et al., 1999). Conflicts lead to various types of crises such as dispute, non-violent crisis, violent crisis (i.e. terror attacks, limited war, and war) and affect the travel and tourism industry negatively.

The type of control and strategies to deal with a different crisis will vary depending on the consequences and time ratio (Ritchie, 2004). Aliperti et al. (2019), after reviewing 113 papers, found it difficult to define the crisis; however, they suggested four main perspectives that are constantly interchangeably used in tourism literature;

- External disaster: a shock event (floods, earthquake, etc.) affecting the tourism industry;
- External crisis: tourism industry is indirectly affected by the crisis in other industries;
- Tourism disaster: a shock event that directly affects the tourism industry, such as cultural heritage site damages, tourist fatalities, etc.
- Tourism crisis: the effects of a shock event on the tourism industry, such as a decrease in tourist arrivals, economic losses in the tourism industry, etc.

Faulkner (2001) made a distinction between crisis and disaster. A crisis is a situation originating from the inside of the organization, and the disaster is a result of unpredictable catastrophic changes originating outside of the organization. However, the scale of the crisis should be considered in the study. Parsons (1996) suggests three types of crises:

I. Immediate crises: where little or no warning exists; therefore, organizations are unable to research the problem or prepare a plan before the crisis hits;
II. Emerging crises: these are slower in developing and may be able to be stopped or limited by organizational action;
III. Sustained crises: that may last for weeks, months, or even years. The type of crisis in the study can be considered sustained crises, as it focused on the effects of crisis lasting for many years.

2.1.3 The effects of conflicts on tourism

Conflicts related to tourism are not new phenomena. An early event was the terrorist attack in 1972 during the Munich Olympic Games, but terrorism focused directly on a tourist in Egypt in 1997 as well (Lepp and Gibson, 2003). A substantial drop occurred in international tourism by the terror attacks on September 11, 2001 (Marton et al., 2018) that was followed by terror events in various European cities. After the Arab Spring uprisings, political conflicts started in 2011 and had a huge negative impact on the tourism of the Middle-East region (Avraham, 2015). Recently the number of conflicts has been increased in different parts of the world. In 2016, 402 conflicts were observed globally, among them 226 violent and 176 non-violent ones (HIIK, 2017), and tourists were often targets for terror attacks.

The conflict in one region threatens the growth of tourism and shows a significant decrease in the number of tourists as a result of high-risk perceptions. Consequently, conflict and crisis within one region may also influence tourism growth in other regions. The effect of political violence on tourism demand and indicators was investigated by Neumayer (2004), showing strong evidence that human rights violations, conflict, and other politically motivated violent events negatively affect tourist arrivals resulting in intraregional, negative spillover, and cross-regional substitution effects. For instance, Turkey is among the top 10 tourist destinations in the world, being a well-developed tourism destination that offers differentiated tourism products such as Istanbul historical and city tourism destination or Antalya as a sun and beach destination, and many others. However, despite its strong positioning, many conflicts such as anti-government protests, frequent terror attacks, spillover effects of war, terrorism, and political instability in neighbouring countries threaten the sustainability of tourism in Turkey as well as the negative impact on the destination image of Turkey. An empirical study revealed a negative effect of terrorism on tourism. Thus, terrorist attacks targeted tourists in Turkey, and among Greece, Turkey, and Israel, Turkey had the highest sensitivity to terrorist activity with an estimated 5.21% loss in its market share (Kılıçlar et al., 2018). Another example is Jordan, which often found itself in the middle of regional conflict and crisis in the modern Middle East (Buda, 2016). In the last two decades, Jordan has witnessed one Palestinian uprising in 2000; three wars (2001 in Afghanistan, 2003 in Iraq, and 2006 in Lebanon); and several terrorist attacks (2005 suicide bombings in Amman; gunfire

exchanges between Lebanon and Israel in October 2009 and August 2010; more minor rocket attacks in April and August 2010 in Jordan), in 2011 and 2012 protests known as the Arab Spring that creates turbulent sociopolitical environment provides opportunities to scrutinize the interconnections between tourism, conflict, safety, and even peace (Buda, 2016).

In sum, several consequent negative events create a conflict-ridden destination that may have a severe negative impact on tourism destinations. Pizam and Fleischer (2002) claim that the frequency of terror attacks had a greater impact on tourism demand than the severity of the attacks. This indicates that the tourism demand will eventually decrease if the negative man-made events are not prevented, regardless of their severity. Over the last decades, Israel faced the 1990 - 1991 Gulf War, the 1994 Hebron massacre, urban bus bombings in 1996, suicide bombers in 1997, the threatened Gulf war of 1998, and more recently, the Palestinian-Israeli conflict, which began on September 28, 2000. Nevertheless, the cumulative impact of these consequent events has resulted in a strong international perception that Israel is a dangerous destination for tourists (Beirman, 2002).

During the crisis, media reporting of events in Israel and the Palestinian territories have been especially damaging to tourism, having spillover effects on the entire region of the Middle East. Other countries in the region, such as Turkey, Egypt, and the Gulf States, needed to face a negative spillover effect from a conflict-ridden region (Beirman, 2002). By understanding how the sustained crisis in conflict-ridden destinations such as Turkey, Jordan, Israel affect tourist behaviour and tourist risk perception can help tourism organizations to eliminate the threats for the tourism sector and offer tools to maintain the tourism flow. Neumayer (2004) found in the investigation of spillover effects from political violence that tourists tend to visit neighbouring regions with similar attractions and get positive spillover effects. It is worth noting that positive spillover effects within a region can be generated if the scale of violence is modest (Drakos and Kutan, 2003). In our analysis, generally, crisis in the region may have negative or spillover effects on tourism growth to nearby destinations (Drakos and Kutan 2003; Neumayer 2004).

In recent years, online information sources enable people to pay more and more attention to travel safety and travel risks (Cui et al. 2016). The asymmetry of the objective existence of tourist safety information and the subjective perception of tourists determines that

tourists are extremely sensitive to travel risks. Consequently, the tourists' perceived risk related to the destination directly affects tourists' purchase intention (Cui et al., 2016).

Taşkın et al. (2017) revealed that the influence of risk and danger on the perceived destination image and the risk associated with a conflict-ridden destination might be fairly permanent; tourists may overlook a lower level of risk at the expense of discovering new destinations. Even after a reasonable period of peace and calmness, the perceived risk of a conflict-ridden destination might prime in the minds of potential tourists. Whenever a conflict-ridden destination is mentioned, individuals may tend to produce pre-recorded risk and danger related responses (Taşkın et al., 2017). Understanding the relationship between risk perception, destination image, and intention to visit conflict-ridden regions offers practitioners tools and strategies to carry out marketing communications activities that eliminate the deterring factors in the minds of potential tourists. Additionally, in-depth understanding is needed to be able to reduce the perception of the high risk associated with these regions.

2.2 Risk and risk perception

The growing number of crises worldwide made tourism risk has become an important phenomenon that increases the attention of tourists to travel safety and risk. Therefore, this chapter aims to review the literature related to the risk perception of destinations in conflict-ridden areas. Namely, risk perception plays a central role in understanding the tourists' expectations, motivations, experiences of visiting the conflict-ridden areas.

2.2.1 Definition of risk and uncertainty

The concept of risk was first introduced by Bauer (1960) in consumer behaviour. Bauer (1960) stated that ‘‘consumer behaviour involves risk in the sense that any action of a consumer will produce consequences which he cannot anticipate with anything approximating certainty, and some of which at least are likely to be unpleasant."

In the field of consumer behaviour, Bauer (1960) was the first who used the concept of risk. Since then, many researchers have conceptualized risk in tourism research as well.

For example, risk was defined as exposure to the chance of injury or loss, a hazard or dangerous chance, or the potential to lose something of value (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005). Seven different types of risks can be identified: a) financial, b) social, c) psychological, d) physical, e) functional, f) situational, and finally g) travel risks, and risks associated with travel are often related to health concerns, terrorism, crime, or natural disasters at tourist destinations (Korstanje, 2009). Sönmez and Graefe (1998a) defined ten types of risk factors associated with tourism risk perception (Table 1).

Table 1. Risk factors associated with tourism risk perception

Risk Factors	**Definition**
Equipment/functional risk	Possibility of mechanical, equipment, organizational problems occurring during travel or at destination (transportation, accommodations, attractions)
Financial risk	Possibility that travel experience will not provide value for money spent
Health risk	Possibility of becoming sick while travelling or at the destination
Physical risk	Possibility of physical danger or injury detrimental to health (accidents)
Political instability risk	Possibility of becoming involved in the political turmoil of the country being visited
Psychological risk	Possibility that travel experience will not reflect the individual's personality or self-image (disappointment with the travel experience)

Source: Sönmez and Graefe (1998b, p.174)

Table 1. continued

Risk Factors	Definition
Satisfaction risk	Possibility that travel experience will not provide personal satisfaction/self-actualization (dissatisfaction with travel experience)
Social risk	Possibility that travel choice/experience will affect others' opinion of the individual (disapproval of vacation choices or activities by friends/family/associates)
Terrorism risk	Possibility of being involved in a terrorist act
Time risk	Possibility that travel experience will take too much time or will waste time.

Source: Sönmez and Graefe (1998b, p.174)

A number of tourism studies related to risk started to emerge since the attack of September 11 in 2001, along with the increasing number of reports on exogenous risks such as terrorism and natural disaster (McCartney, 2008). Among these risk studies, a substantial proportion has focused on perceived risk rather than the actual risk (Yang and Nair, 2014). There are generally three types of risk recognized: absolute, real, and perceived risk: (i) absolute risk is assessed by commercial providers who implement safety procedures to ensure that the real risk is minimized; (ii) perceived risk is assessed by individuals in a specific context and refers to the individual's perceptions of the uncertainty and negative consequences of buying a product (or service), performing a certain activity, or choosing a certain lifestyle (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005). By reviewing 84 tourism research articles related to risk, Yang et al. (2017) found 14 distinct types of risk (Table 2).

Table 2. Risk types and dimensions

Types of risk	Risk Dimensions
Health	Unsafe Sexual Behaviour, Excessive Alchohol Consumption, Substance Use, HIV Risk, Food Risk, Illness, Sun Exposure, Injury Suicide
Physical	Personal Safety, Violence, Sexual Harassment, and Assault
Financial	Purchase Risk, Theft, Gambling
Performance	Destination, Functional/Equipment, Satisfaction, Transport, Weather
Natural Disaster	Avalanche, Volcano Eruption, Flood, Hurricane

Source: Yang et al. (2017, p.95)

Quintal et al. (2005) proposed that research should distinguish between risk and uncertainty. Their travel behaviour model gives a better understanding of how risk and uncertainty influence consumers' decision making. Quintal et al. (2010) investigated the effects of risk and uncertainty on the antecedents of intentions to visit Australia. While the initial research stream defined uncertainty as a function of risk, the second research stream argues for a distinction between risk and uncertainty (Quintal et al., 2010). Risk is seen as ''a state in which the number of possible events exceeds the number of events that will actually occur, and some measure of probability can be attached to them'', while uncertainty has ''no probability attached to it. It is a situation in which anything can happen, and one has no idea what'' (Quintal et al., 2010).

2.2.2 Definition of risk perception

Tourism risk had been started to be a topic for the researcher since the 1990s, and the concept of ''tourism risk perception'' has been contributed to tourism studies (Roehl and Fesenmaier, 1992; Maser and Weiermair, 1998; Sönmez and Graefe, 1998a, 1998b).

Tourism risk perception is defined as a quantitative assessment of tourism security, and destination risk perception has a strong influence on tourists' purchase intention (Cui et al., 2016). Tourism risk perception can be described as a judgment of tourists about the uncertainty of tourism activities and the process (as cited in Cui et al., 2016, p.644). In other words, tourism risk perception theory involves psychology, sociology, culture, economics, and many other disciplines (Cui et al., 2016). Definitions of risk perception given by scholars in recent studies are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3. Definitions of risk perception

Author	**Definition**
Sönmez and Graefe (1998b)	Risk type and risk value which is being perceived by potential tourists during international travel
Reichel et al. (2007)	Consumers' negative impact perception on whether an event is beyond the acceptable level of tourism behaviour
Huang et al. (2008)	The anxiety and psychological discomfort in the spiritual or supernatural beliefs of buying and consuming certain destination travel services for the tourists
Liu and Gao (2008)	The subjective judgment of tourists on the uncertainty of the process and results of tourism activities
Wong and Yeh (2009)	Tourists perceive the possibility of negative consequences and the extent of the uncertainty of purchasing the product at destinations.
Zhang (2009)	A subjective evaluation of the deviation between the psychological expectation and the objective effect of the tourist behaviour
Chen and Zhang (2012)	The intuitive judgments and subjective feelings of various potential risks which exist in different tourism projects for tourists

Source: Cui et al. (2016, p.645)

The studies in tourism risk perception can be summarized in three disciplines: cognitive psychology, consumer behaviour discipline, and travel safety discipline (Cui et al., 2016). Furthermore, the concept of ‘‘tourism risk perception’’ can also be divided into three views (Cui et al., 2016):

- Tourism risk perception is tourists’ subjective feelings of the negative consequences or negative impact that may occur during travel.
- Tourism risk perception is tourists’ objective evaluation of the negative consequences or negative impact that may occur during travel.
- Tourism risk perception is tourists' cognition of exceeding the threshold portion of the negative consequences or negative impact that may occur during travel.

Subjective feelings are related to tourists’ concerns about negative consequences or negative impacts that they may face during the travel. Subjective factors affecting the tourist’s risk perception are suggested to be categorized into two categories, namely demographic variables and individual cognitive abilities (Cui et al., 2016).

Studying perceived risk raises important questions such as how different tourist types perceive international tourism in terms of risk and safety and what factors influence their perceptions (Lepp and Gibson, 2003). Previous investigations have identified four major risk factors: terrorism, war and political instability, health concerns, and crime (Lepp and Gibson, 2003). Like terrorism, political instability and war can increase the perception of risk at a destination (Lepp and Gibson, 2003).

2.2.3 Role of risk perception in tourism

Tourism-related risk perception can be described as a judgment of tourists about the uncertainty of tourism activities and the process (Cui et al., 2016). Earlier, researchers distinguished between physical-equipment, vacation, and destination risk (Roehl and Fesenmaier, 1992), financial, psychological, temporal, and time risks (Sönmez and Graefe, 1998b). After the terror attack on September 11, 2001, the role of physical risk has been more intensively studied (Marton et al., 2018), covering physical risks

associated with terrorism, war, political instability, health hazards, and criminality (Lepp and Gibson, 2003).

Quintal et al. (2010) concluded that people perceive risk and uncertainty consistently across situations, but the perception of risk is influenced by several factors. Later, Yang and Nair (2014) identified the external and internal factors of risk perception.

External factors include official information sources (i.e. official warnings, press releases of authorities) that communicate the objective risks related to specific destinations. Internal risks are rooted in the demographic, psychographic, and cultural characteristics of the traveller, influencing whether the traveller perceives higher or lower risk compared to the objective, real danger.

Internal factors comprise risk tolerance, novelty-seeking behaviour, information search, cultural dependence, and previous experiences. Risk tolerance plays an important role in the evaluation of travel-related risks because tourists perceive travel-specific risks in a different way. Furthermore, risk tolerance influences the development of risk-related competencies (William and Baláž, 2013). Risk-seeking individuals are more attracted to high-risk destinations (i.e. Kenya, Palestine) and risky activities (e.g., extreme sports and mountaineering) than risk-avoiding tourists (Lepp and Gibson, 2008). Hajibaba et al. (2015) found that crisis-resistant tourists tend to absorb the perceived risk instead of trying to avoid it. Their findings suggest that the general risk attitude remains stable; risk perceptions can be domain-specific, leading to different behavioural outcomes. Wolff and Larsen (2014) showed, for example, that the risk perception level for Norway has declined due to the increased safety instruction after the terror attack in 2011.

A further internal factor is a novelty-seeking behaviour (Lepp and Gibson, 2003) that increases risk tolerance. Independent travellers who avoid organized and mass tourism perceived less risk related to political instability, terrorism, and war. Novelty seekers such as young backpackers consider the travel risks as an added value that attracts them to the destination (Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty 2009). Information search also influences perceived travel risks. Maser and Weiermair (1998) stated that tourists search for information from different sources to reduce perceived risk. They suggested that the

perception of various risks has a positive effect on information search and decision-making behaviour.

Furthermore, cultural differences have an impact on the perceived risk as well. For instance, The British and Canadians were the least concerned about the travel risk, felt the safest, and were less anxious about international travelling than tourists from other countries (Reisinger and Mavondo 2005). In addition, a variety of subcultures within the same country might affect risk-taking (Reisinger and Mavondo 2005). Finally, perceived risk depends on previous experiences as well. Personal experience with a destination may actually alter risk perceptions during international vacation travel decisions (Sönmez and Graefe, 1998b). Hence, well-informed tourists about the local culture feel safer. Previous travel experience might increase feelings of safety and tourists are less likely to avoid those regions associated with higher perceived risk. Wong and Yeh (2009) showed that tourist knowledge moderates the effect of perceived risk on hesitation to travel. Thus, knowledge weakens the negative relationship between perceived risk and intention to travel.

In the case of highly volatile destinations, Fuchs and Reichel (2011) studied the relationships between first-time versus repeat visitors to a highly volatile destination in terms of destination risk perceptions, risk reduction strategies, and motivation for a visit. The results revealed that first-time visitors are characterized by human-induced risk, socio-psychological risk, food safety, and weather risk. Repeat visitors' risk perception was associated with the destination risk factors of financial risk, service quality risk, natural disasters, and car accidents. In addition, first-time visitors tried to use a relatively large number of risk reduction strategies, while repeat visitors probably replaced the utilization of numerous means of risk reduction strategies by relying on their own experience, including the designing of an inexpensive trip (Fuchs and Reichel, 2011).

Aliperti and Cruz (2019) tested information seeking and processing of international tourists in Japan using psychology, consumer behaviour, and decision-making theories which revealed differences in risk information seeking and processing across the inbound tourists from different countries. Consequently, it is suggested to implement tailor-made risk communication strategies taking into consideration cross-country behavioural differences of international travellers (Aliperti and Cruz, 2019).

The other important distinction is about worry and risk. Worry and risk may seem identical; however, it is not. Wolff and Larsen (2014) claim that risk perception where worry and risk perception is related is not warranted. While some hazards such as crime, war, terrorism may create the image of the destination as risky, tourists do not necessarily worry about these risks (Larsen et al., 2009). Worry, on the other hand, might be understood as negative affect and relatively uncontrollable chains of thought as a function of uncertainty concerning possible future events (Larsen et al., 2009). Consequently, they investigated both perceived risk and worry among tourists of Norway. The tourists might not worry about some hazards while they perceive it as risky (Wolff and Larsen, 2014). The other interesting fact is that the results make us assume that terrorism makes us feel safer in case of some destinations. For example, the results showed that after the terror in 2011, the risk perception level for Norway has declined while it increased for other destinations after similar negative events (Wolff and Larsen, 2014). Worry is also explained as having a moderator effect on risk reduction; it is found to be a better predictor of precautionary action in the medical domain than risk perception (Larsen et al., 2009). Some tourists may, therefore, judge specific destinations as risky without worrying about travelling to these destinations, while other tourists may judge the same destinations as not very risky but still worry about visiting them (Larsen et al., 2009).

Quintal et al. (2010) suggested future research directions considering travel destinations with higher risk and uncertainty factors and also examine whether people perceive risk and uncertainty consistently across situations that involve similar levels of objective risk or whether perceptions of risk and uncertainty are context-specific. Quintal et al. (2010) also emphasized that researchers might add dimensions that are more relevant to travel, such as terrorism, political instability, and health issues. Furthermore, some people are attracted by specific risk and uncertainty factors (e.g. political unrest, health issues, strange food, language), yet repel others. Thus, further investigation is needed for why risk-seeking individuals are attracted to risky destinations (e.g., Kenya and Palestine) and activities (e.g., extreme sports and mountaineering). Moreover, risk-avoiding individuals make risky choices (e.g., visiting Palestine) where people perceive low risk (e.g., they feel safe in Palestine having visited previously and having family and friends there) (Quintal et al., 2010).

Travel-related risks are perceived by each traveller somewhat differently. Therefore, we need to consider the characteristics of travellers (risk tolerance, novelty-seeking, information search, culture) that are responsible for the individual differences in risk perception.

Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) classified tourists into three groups based on their perception of risk: risk-neutral, functional risk, and place risk. The risk-neutral group considers tourism or their destination to involve risk while, the functional risk group relates the possibility of mechanical, equipment, or organizational problems to tourism-related risk. The place-risk group perceives vacations as fairly risky and the destination of their most recent vacation as very risky. In addition, Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) identified three dimensions of the perceived risk: physical equipment risk, vacation risk, and destination risk. While Sönmez and Graefe (1998a) related financial, psychological, satisfaction, and time risks to tourism.

Novelty-seeking behaviour increases the travel intention to conflict-ridden destinations in a different way. A novelty-seeking traveller welcomes new and even risky destinations (Lepp and Gibson, 2003). Therefore, they are not interested in decreasing the perceived risk related to travel, but they consider it as an added value. So, higher perceived risk will induce a positive attitude toward the travel, lower social influence and higher confidence over the travel that increases the intention to visit high-risk destinations. The lower perceived risk results in more positive attitudes toward the travel, lower social pressure, and higher perceived control over the travel, causing stronger intention to travel (Maser and Weiermair, 1998).

Lepp and Gibson (2008) investigated tourist role, perceptions of risk associated with travel to particular regions of the world, and international travel experience related to sensation seeking (SS) and gender. There are different types of SS, identified by four subscales: thrill and adventure-seeking, experience-seeking, boredom susceptibility, and disinhibition (Lepp and Gibson, 2008). It is important to note that there was no difference in the way that high sensation seekers and low sensation seekers perceived the risk associated with travel to a particular region of the world. This can be explained by the impact of the media on the construction of perceived risk (Lepp and Gibson, 2008). Rittichainuwat's and Chakraborty's study (2009) showed that novelty seekers such as

young backpackers consider the travel risks as an added value that attracts them to the destination to fulfil their travel motivations. Another important finding is that the impact of perceived risks of terrorism was less than expected; in other words, the negative effect of perceived terrorism risk is not lasting for the long term (Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty 2009).

It is also suggested that risk may also be a motivating factor of tourism when tourists are seeking novelty (Lepp and Gibson, 2003). The study by Lepp and Gibson (2003) found that the perception of risk due to war and political instability varied significantly by tourist roles suggested by Cohen (1972), namely, the organized mass tourist, the individual mass tourist, the explorer, and the drifter. Drifters perceived war and political instability to be less of a risk than the other roles (Lepp and Gibson, 2003). Organized mass tourists perceived terrorism as a greater risk than the other three roles, and Independent mass tourists perceived it to be a greater risk than drifters (Lepp and Gibson, 2003). It should also be noted that attitude toward foreign travel, risk perception level, and income influence risky international decisions (Sönmez and Graefe, 1998a).

Hence, novelty-seeking is considered to be an individual characteristic affecting the extent of the risk-taking decisions during the pre-travel and post-travel processes (Pizam et al. 2004). Being positively correlated with risky travel decisions, novelty-seeking behaviour provides an important path for future studies focusing on risky destinations such as conflict-ridden destinations, or in other words, novelty seekers are more willing to accept uncertainty and risks and travel to a less familiar destination as they handle risk differently (Wang et al., 2019).

Cultural differences influence the risk perception of travellers as well (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005). Tourists from risk-avoiding cultures tend to overestimate the travel-related risks that negatively affect their attitudes toward travel (Hofstede, 2013). In addition, the social pressure will be higher and perceived control over travel will be lower that will discourage the individual from travelling to conflict-ridden destinations.

Several researchers (Han and Kim, 2010; Ye et al., 2014; Su et al., 2016) suggested that the prior experience related to the destination has a direct effect on the travel intention. Concerning the conflict-ridden destinations, the prior experience might counterbalance

the negative indirect effect of higher perceived risk and uncertainty on the intention to travel.

Not only the prior experience but also the image of a destination might have a positive impact on the travel intention. Destination image comprises cognitive and affective evaluations about the destination (Mackay and Fesenmaier, 1997; Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001; Hosany, Ekinci, and Uysal, 2006). Tourists might be attracted by destinations with a positive image even if the country image is evaluated as less favourable (Lepp et al., 2011; Martinez and Alvarez, 2010; Mossberg and Kleppe 2005). Tourists rely heavily on the image of a destination when they make a decision about the travel destination (Um and Crompton 1990).

Risk does not always contribute to destination avoidance, but it may have a positive effect on travel (Lepp and Gibson, 2008; Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty, 2009; Wong and Yeh, 2009) as well.

Wong and Yeh (2009) studied the relationships among tourist risk perception, tourist knowledge, and hesitation. They tested whether tourist risk perception will significantly and positively affect tourist hesitation when making destination and itinerary-related decisions. The results show that the risk perception of tourists has a positive effect on hesitation, and tourist knowledge moderates this highly positive relationship (Wong and Yeh, 2009). This opens an avenue for new research to investigate the effects of risk perception on the intention to visit.

Consequently, existing literature on tourism risk perception is needed to be elaborated to better understand the tourist's behaviour. Yang and Nair (2014) advocated the idea that a more qualitative and post-modernistic approach is needed to bring new horizons to identify the factors that construct risk perception. The idea is to connect the different cognitive and affective concepts related to risk perception and study risk as feeling and risk as analysis to contribute with a more holistic approach (Yang and Nair, 2014).

Hajibaba et al. (2015) noted that risk perceptions and travel to risky destinations had been investigated in specific contexts rather than across destinations, trip contexts, and kinds of crises, which could be considered as a major shortcoming in the existing literature.

Hajibaba et al. (2015) studied crisis-resistant tourists, who tend to absorb risks instead of engaging in risk avoidance strategies. The findings support that while the general risk attitude remains stable, risk perceptions can be domain-specific and, therefore, can lead to different behavioural outcomes (Hajibaba et al., 2015).

Sönmez and Graefe (1998b) notes that previous travel experience and risk perceptions influence future travel behaviour. In addition, tourist's overall perception of international travel affects their future travel intentions (Sönmez and Graefe,1998b). This finding supports well-informed tourists about the local culture feel safer, and previous travel experience might increase feelings of safety, and they are less likely to avoid those regions associated with higher perceived risk (Sönmez and Graefe,1998b). This particular finding implies that personal experience with a destination may actually alter risk perceptions during international vacation travel decisions (Sönmez and Graefe,1998b).

2.3 Destination Image

This subchapter analyzes the destination image in the context of conflict-ridden areas and tries to understand tourists' expectations, motivations, experiences of visiting the conflict-ridden areas with the influence of destination image. The difference between the destination image and the country image is also analyzed. Destination image related to tourism can be defined as a continuous mental process by which one holds a set of impressions, emotional thoughts, beliefs, and prejudices regarding a destination due to information obtained from different channels (Kim and Chen 2015).

The destination image has been an important area of interest for tourism researchers. In order to build a competitive destination image, it is important to understand how the destination image is formed. Several studies and analyses were conducted to conceptualize destination image formation (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Gartner, 1994; Kim and Chen, 2015; Tkaczynski et al., 2015; Sirakaya et al., 2001). However, there is a lack of studies that review the literature for both destination image and perceived risk (Lepp et al., 2011; Quintal et al., 2010; Gibson et al., 2008). It is suggested to bring destination image and perceived risk together, which improves our understanding of how risk perceptions can be changed and how destinations perceived as risky can alter their image (Lepp et al., 2011).

Another important topic is the relationship between the perceived destination image and the behavioural intentions of tourists and between the same image and post-purchase evaluation of the stay (Bigne et al., 2001). The study showed that tourism image directly influences constructs such as the perceived quality, satisfaction, intention to return, willingness to recommend the destination (Bigne et al., 2001). On the other hand, quality has an effect on tourists' satisfaction, intention to return, and recommend the destination to others. However, "willingness to return" and "intention to return" were not interrelated (Bigne et al., 2001). The study contributes to the understanding of how destination image may influence the consumer behaviour of tourists and other variables. The research indicated that the destination image has a positive effect on behavioural variables as well as on the evaluation variables. The perceived overall destination image enhances the travellers' intention to return and to recommend the destination in the future to others. Finally, destination image increases the opportunity to get a positive assessment of the stay and leads to high quality (Bigne et al., 2001).

Recent studies have discussed the complexity of the image construct, including both cognitive and affective components (Moutinho, 1987; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Beerli and Martín, 2004a, 2004b; Maher and Carter, 2011). In addition, several tourism researchers have addressed the behavioural or conative component of the image (Gartner, 1994; Dann, 1996; Parameswaran and Pisharodi, 1994, Choi et al., 2007). Related studies consider destination image as the total impressions of cognitive and affective evaluations that function as influential factors of destinations image (Stern and Krakover, 1993; Baloglu, 1997; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Hosany et al., 2006; Mackay and Fesenmaier, 2000; Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001). Gartner (1994) noted that the destination image has three distinct components, namely, cognitive, affective, and conative.

The cognitive image is the evaluation process of all product features or the understanding of the product in a cognitive way, while the affective component of the image is connected to the motives of the tourist for destination selection. The conative image component is analogous to behaviour because it is the action component, as the only one destination from the destination set is selected after all the gathered information is evaluated. However, it is still important to understand how these components are formed and different for distinct destinations by exploring the country-specific risk perceptions, while

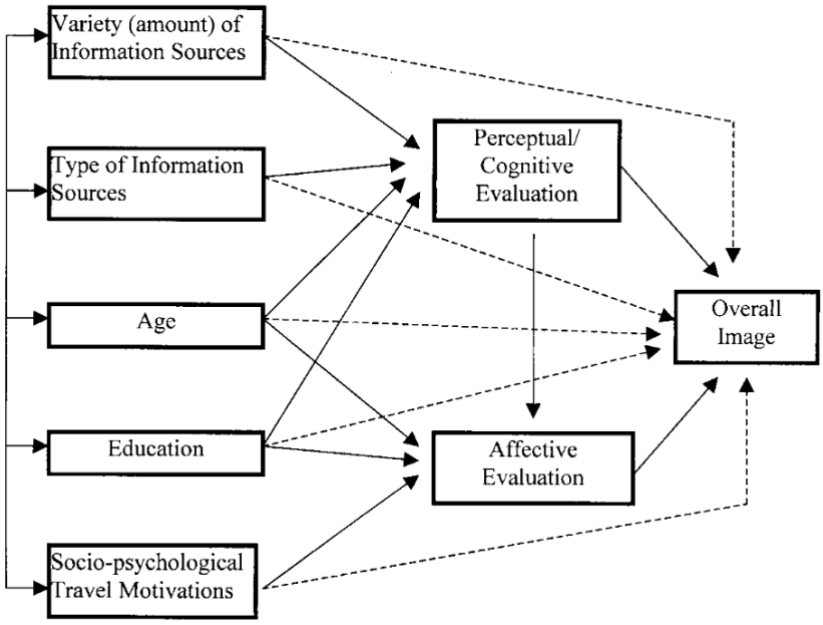
most studies focused on the overall risk perception of international tourism (Lepp et al., 2011).

Gartner (1994) illustrated that destination image formation is derived by different agents, and this process could be viewed as a continuum of separate images. Gartner (1994) labelled these agents as Overt Induced I (traditional forms of advertising), Overt Induced II (information from tour operators, wholesalers, and other organizations), Covert Induced I (recognizable spokesperson), Covert Induced II (unbiased source of information), Autonomous (independently produced reports, documentaries, movies), Unsolicited Organic (unrequested information received from individuals who have been to an area), Solicited Organic (requested information search about the destination), Organic (information acquired about a destination based on previous travel to an area).

The image formation and destination selection process are strongly interrelated. At all process stages, destination images help determine which specific destinations remain for further evaluation in the selection process of the tourism destination. Baloglu and McCleary (1999) proposed a path model (Figure 1) for studying destination image formation. The model revealed that the effects of perceptual or cognitive evaluations were much stronger than the effects of travel motivations.

Gartner's (1994) findings and illustration of the destination image formation process can be accepted as the basis of this research. Over the decades, however, many pieces of research have been conducted to understand the importance of destination image formation and its influence factors. Similar to Gartner (1994), Bigne et al. (2001) contributed to the destination image formation process. They showed that destination image is suitable not only for attracting tourists during the purchase process but also it functions as a post-purchase tool to influence satisfaction, quality, return to the destination and recommend to others in the future. However, the research was limited only to current tourists at that time.

Figure 1. Path model of the determinants of tourism destination image before actual visitation



Source: Baloglu and Mccleary (1999, p.871)

The trends in tourism and variables affecting the destination image formation process change, and therefore potential tourists should also be included in the study. For instance, Baloglu and McCleary's (1999) major finding was that a destination image is formed by both stimulus factors and tourists' characteristics. These results provide important implications for strategic image management and can aid in designing and implementing marketing programs for creating and enhancing tourism destination images. Numerous researchers agree that image is mainly formed by two major forces, stimulus factors and personal factors (Baloglu and McCleary 1999). Stimulus factors are shaped by physical objects as well as previous experience. Personal factors are the characteristics (social and psychological) of the perceiver (Baloglu and McCleary 1999). The analysis identified the overall patterns of the model and indicated that the amount and type of information sources, age, and education influence perceptual/cognitive evaluations (Baloglu and McCleary 1999). The major implication of Baloglu and McCleary's study (1999) was that the destination image was formed by both consumer characteristics and stimulus factors. In addition to Gartner's image formation theory (1993), Baloglu and McCleary (1999) shed some light, and it demonstrated that the elements that influence destination images are multi-dimensional.

Another important implication of Baloglu and McCleary's study (1999) was that the formation of destination images is dependent on the different roles played by the factors in the process. For instance, the amount and type of information sources used about destinations and tourists' socio-demographic characteristics influence the perceptions and cognitions of destination attributes. At some stage of the image formation process, these perceptions form feelings towards destinations along with the travellers' socio-psychological motivations. Furthermore, the increase in age and education impacted the destination image formation process (Baloglu and McCleary 1999) negatively.

Tkazzynski et al. (2015) focused on a vacationer-driven approach rather than a researcher-driven approach to conceptualize destination image. The purpose of the study was to understand how vacationers may drive the attributes and sentiments of the importance of destination image formation. Destination Management Organizations are often criticized for focusing on traditional destination's physical attributes. However, tourism is increasingly characterized by more about the vacation experience, which produces excitement, fulfilment, and rejuvenation. Thus, consumers start to play an important role in building the image of the destination (Tkazzynski et al., 2015). The study identified nine vacationer images 1) touristic, (2) lifestyle, (3) beach, (4) fishing, (5) Fraser Island and (6) accommodation which are cognitive; three are affective, namely, (1) favourable, (2) boring and (3) unfavourable (Tkazzynski et al., 2015). The study confirmed the idea that a vacationer's perceived image can be modified during experiences. Vacationers' images may change the destination management organizations (DMOs) understanding of the destination image according to the physical attributes. This also supports the theory of the destination image formation process (Gartner, 1994), where cognitive elements are prior to the purchase of the holiday, and affective elements are related to the post-purchase period.

Kim and Chen (2015) studied two schema-related models that illustrate the image formation process before, during, and after the tourist trip. Namely, five prime tourist destination schemas entailed place, mega-event, crisis, self, and emotion to illustrate the destination image formation process. The process was constantly modified by new information and how this new information source could influence the destination image formation process before the trip. Place-schemas are mental representations of a place like physical, social, and structural information about the destination. Self-schemas are

the belief or knowledge about oneself emerging from past experience. Mega-event schemas are the major events that are organized in different destinations. These schemas change the destination image attributes. Crisis schemas are natural catastrophes or man-made disasters (terrorist attacks) that influence the information perceived about the destination. Emotion schemas are a variety of feelings schematically stored in long-term memory (Kim and Chen 2015). Understanding the schemas and their effect on the destination image formation process gives practical instruments for destination marketers to modify their destination marketing strategies to affect the decision-making process of tourists.

Since Hunt's (1975) study of an image in tourism, many researcher's contributed to the conceptualization of destination image (Goodrich, 1978; Um and Crompton, 1990; Echter and Ritchie, 1991; Echter and Ritchie, 1993; Gartner, 1994; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Bigne et al., 2001; Choi *et al.*, 2007;). For instance, Kislali et al. (2016) proposed a new conceptualization framework for destination image considering socio-cultural, political, historical, and technological influences. Kislali et al. (2016) aimed to address socio-cultural and technological factors that were overlooked by other researchers that play an important role in the destination image formation process. The proposed framework also includes the latest trend in all industries, social media, in the formation process of the destination image.

Mossberg and Kleppe (2005) suggested investigating whether destination image and country image are different. The conflict-ridden countries may face a greater challenge of negative country images and be perceived as a risky tourism destination. While the destination is perceived as a risk with an organic image, it may have a positive image as a tourism destination. Lepp et al. (2011) investigated images and risks associated with Uganda and whether the official tourism website could induce image change. The results revealed that the organic image of Uganda is deeply influenced by perceptions of risk, which may be related to the negative image of Africa (Lepp et al., 2011). Hence, while generalized negative image and perceived risk are applied to a destination, by inducing a positive image, perceived risk may be reduced and a more positive image formed (Lepp et al., 2011).

In addition, the distinction between the image of the country and that of the destination as a tourism product is important for developing countries suffering from negative country perceptions, as opposed to more positive views regarding the tourism destination (Martinez and Alvarez, 2010). Although many developing countries are seen, from the tourism point of view, as a virgin, undeveloped paradises, they are also perceived as poor, insecure, and underdeveloped places (Martinez and Alvarez, 2010).

2.3.1 Influence factors of destination image

In tourism literature, researchers studied the impact of the image on future behaviour intentions for many decades (Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Bigne et al., 2001; Beerli and Martin 2004) intensively. The influence of the destination image has been included in several travel behaviour models (Bigne et al., 2009). A general conclusion was drawn that destinations with stronger positive images have a higher chance to be selected in the decision-making process of a tourist (Bigne et al., 2009). However, the effect of the destination image cannot be limited to the choice of the destination since it influences the tourist behaviour in all stages (before, during, and after the travel). The destination image most frequently modifies the revisit intention and the intention to recommend the destination to others (Bigne et al., 2009). Hence, it is important to understand what factors influence and build the destination image in the eye of potential tourists. This is particularly necessary for destinations in conflict-ridden areas where the perceived travel risk might be much higher. Since destinations are intangible products, customers heavily rely on their images of alternative destinations when making their destination choice decisions (Um and Crompton 1990).

Destination attributes are categorized as push, pull, and hedonics factors regarding the decision-making process of tourists. In particular, tourists are pushed by their emotional needs and pulled by the emotional benefits (Goossens, 2000). In other words, emotional needs influence the behavioural intentions of tourists. Therefore, managers in the tourism field would want to know how tourists react to promotional stimuli in order to be more effective (Goossens, 2000). The researchers focused on the push and pulled factors separately without seeking any relationship between them. For example, tourism marketers focused on the pull factors of tourist behaviour to attract more attention to the

destination. However, pleasure-seeking and emotional aspects of tourist motivation have been forgotten (Goossens, 2000). The study revealed that it is effective to use experiential information in promotional stimuli. Thus, feelings of pleasure, relaxation (push factors), excitement, and touristic attractions (e.g. friendly people, culture, and sunshine) are important sources of information for tourists to decide on choosing the destination (Goossens, 2000). Hence, there is a relationship between push and pull motives, involvement, information processing, mental imagery, emotion, and behavioural intention (Goossens, 2000).

Recent studies tend to focus on the influence factors of tourist behaviour, the components of the influence factors. Tourist behaviour can be classified into three categories: pre-, during- and post-visitation (Chen and Tsai, 2007). First, the tourist, before visiting the destination, goes through pre-visit decision-making. Second, tourists gather on-site experience during the visit. Finally, tourists evaluate the experience after the visit that might shape their post-visit behaviour (Chen and Tsai, 2007). It is also accepted that the destination image has an impact on the behavioural intentions of tourists. The study on the relationship between destination image and behavioural intentions revealed that destination image has a strong effect on behavioural intentions in two ways: directly and indirectly. In other words, destination image not only affects the decision-making process and but the after-decision-making behaviours of tourists (Chen and Tsai, 2007). Consequently, endeavours to build or improve the image of a destination facilitate loyal visitors to revisit or recommend the destination. (Chen and Tsai, 2007).

Tourism is commonly considered as an important tool to stimulate economies by promoting development, new job places, and income (Liu and Wall, 2006). On the other hand, each country owns a different type and level of experience with tourism which varies the ability of these countries to attract tourists to the destination. Obenour et al. (2005) conducted a study to assess the image of a newly developed nature-based tourist destination and the image assessment of six geographic markets. It is noted that image is the basis to human behaviour such as tourist decision-making, and the image becomes more important for the emerging areas to be developed into regional destinations, as the tourist's perceived image of a destination is crucial to the success of a tourist development (Obenour et al., 2005).

The study illustrated that distance has a significant influence on the destination image, and it has an essential influence on a regional destination formation (Obenour et al., 2005). Another important finding to note is that distance has no influence on the length of stay of tourists at the destination, which not supported the theory that people travelling to shorter distances would want to stay a shorter period of time, people travelling to longer distances would want to stay a longer period of time (Obenour et al., 2005). Consequently, results enhance the importance of the destination image as a factor in the tourist's perceived length of stay.

The study indicated a need for destination marketers to utilize image agents because they are influenced or created by tourism marketing professionals to encourage a tourist's intent to visit (Obenour et al., 2005). The research results provide base information for newly developing tourism destinations by assessing the evolution of the image for that emerging destination and marketing impacts on the destination image. The results illustrated that the distance from the destination is not the only factor affecting the decision-making process. Furthermore, distance does not influence the length of stay (Obenour et al., 2005). Consequently, destination marketers should consider building a successful destination image in a way that they induce images that create a successful regional destination. However, this result does not include the other components influencing the destination image formation process (Gartner, 1994; Bigne et al., 2001).

Prior visit experience to destination has been a research topic for many studies. Many destinations built their marketing strategies to attract tourists to visit the destination more repeatedly. However, profound understanding is required why some tourists visit the same destination more than once, while others do not, or why they visit a specific destination repeatedly. Existing studies on prior experience and revisit to the same destinations revealed a relationship between lower perceived risks, higher satisfaction levels, personal attachment or links to values, attitudes (Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Ryan, 1995; Lehto et al., 2004). More importantly, risk perception is considered to be a major factor influencing the decision-making process of repeat visitors, as it is suggested that risk perception is reduced with product familiarity (Lehto et al., 2004). Familiarity with the destination increases the confidence and intention to visit the same destination again, which can be explained by the risk reduction process of tourists during the decision-making process (Lehto et al., 2004).

Prior experience can significantly affect the behaviour and decision-making process of tourists; in other words, prior knowledge regarding tourism destinations influences the information search process of potential tourists (Kerstetter and Cho, 2004). Lehto et al. (2006) studied the effect of prior experience with a destination on online information search behaviour and revealed that information search behaviour is significantly changed in terms of time spent on information search and type of information acquired when the potential tourist has visit experience with destinations.

Another important relationship between prior experience and destination choice is an image factor. Destination image affection the destination choice of first-time visitors and repeat visitors is different. First-time visitors rely on a secondary image induced the promotion of the destination or organically through the information search process (Schofield et al., 2020). However, repeat visitors rely on a primary image of a destination which is the modified version of the secondary image during the visit to the destination (Schofield et al., 2020).

Studies on behavioural intention to visit tourism destinations showed the significance of prior visit experience on future intention and behaviour (Sönmez and Graefe, 1998; Han and Kim, 2010; Ye et al., 2014; Su et al., 2016). In addition, prior experience is considered to be a significant predictor of travellers' intention (Lam and Hsu, 2006). Repeat visitors hold a more favourable destination image than first-time visitors, and it enhances their willingness to visit the destination repeatedly (Schofield et al., 2020).

2.4 Theoretical models of travel behaviour

Researchers proposed several theories to study consumer behaviour such as expected utility theory (von Neumann and Morgenstern, 1947), satisficing theory (Simon, 1956), prospect theory (Kahneman and Tversky, 1977), regret theory (Bell, 1982), the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980), and the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

Expected utility theory deals with the decision-maker faced with risky (probabilistic) outcomes of different choices. The decision-maker strives for maximizing the expected

value of some function defined over the potential outcomes at some specified point in the future. The expected utility theory has been used as a descriptive theory to explain phenomes such as the purchase of insurance and the relation between spending and saving, and also as a normative theory in decision analysis to determine optimal decisions and policies (Tversky, 1975). However, several studies showed that under special circumstances, most axioms of utility theory are violated, and difficulties are involved in the normative application of utility theory (Tversky, 1975).

The satisficing theory (Simon, 1956) supports the idea that individuals do not seek to maximize their benefit from a particular decision, but they try to find something that is "good enough" or something that is satisfactory. This was an alternative to the neoclassical theory of profit maximization. However, this theory was criticized that satisficing could be part of maximization, as maximization models could explain the decisions that satisficing model is aimed to explain.

Consequently, studies continued to propose new theories such as prospect theory (Kahneman and Tversky, 1972), which suggests that individuals are risk-averse with respect to gains and risk-acceptant with respect to losses which was the s a leading alternative to expected utility theory. Prospect theory is a descriptive theory based on findings from cognitive psychology, posited as a set of assumptions that offers an alternative account of individual decision making under risk (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979). Edwards (1996) suggested that the experiments showed that prospect theory could explain decisions that expected utility theory is incapable of explaining. However, there has not been enough conclusive evidence in support of prospect theory's predictive powers.

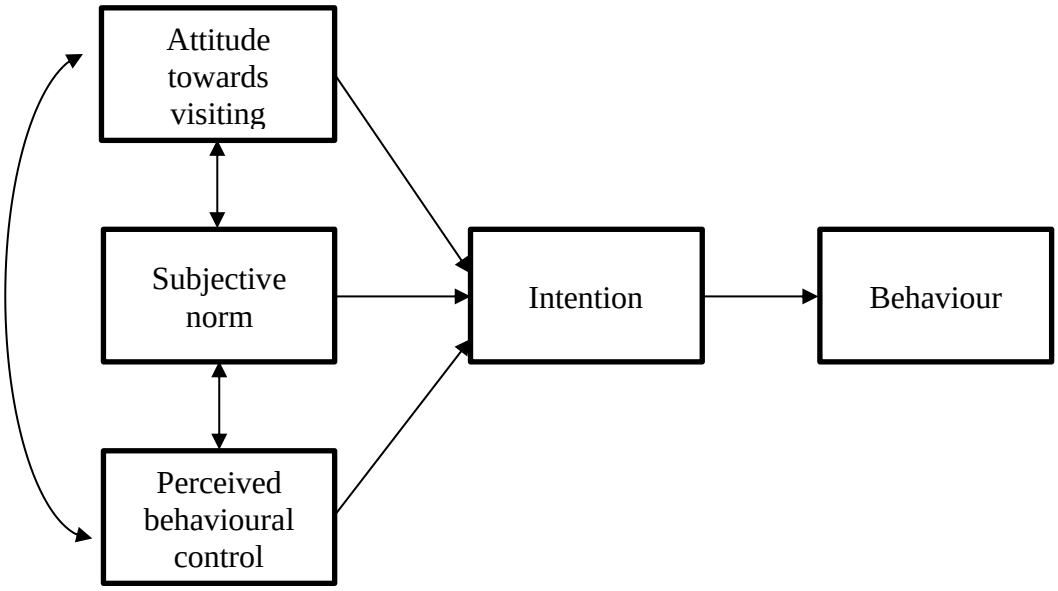
Furthermore, the regret theory (Bell, 1982) considers that the well-being of a person depends on the results of possible, alternative decisions that the decision-makers try to avoid regret. In contrast to expected utility theory and prospect theory, regret theory is based on the notion that individuals' utility or satisfaction of choosing an alternative is not only based on the anticipated payoff of each individual choice alternative across different states of the world but also depends on the anticipated payoff of other alternatives (Rasouli and Timmermans, 2014).

The theory of reasoned action (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980) proposes to predict individuals' behaviour based on their pre-existing attitudes and behavioural intentions. According to the model, a person's behaviour is determined by a person's intention to perform the behaviour, which is shaped by the cognitive evaluations of the attitude towards behaviour, the subjective norm perceived as social pressure. The theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) is an extension of the theory of reasoned action because perceived behavioural control is added to the model that predicts both the behavioural intention and the actual behaviour. In this thesis, I aimed to extend the model of the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991); therefore, it will be discussed in detail in the next subchapter.

2.5.1 Theory of planned behaviour

The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) can be considered as one of the most widely used rational choice models and as a theoretical framework that explains an individual's decision-making process (Han, 2015). TPB (Figure 2) describes the behaviour of a person that can be determined by factors like the attitude toward the behaviour, the subjective norm, and the perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1991).

Figure 2. Theory of planned behaviour



Source: Ajzen (1991, p.182)

The TPB was developed by Ajzen (1991), whereby he proposes that actual behaviour is caused by behavioural intent. Furthermore, behavioural intent is determined by the attitude toward the actual behaviour, the subjective norms of the decision-maker, and the perceived behavioural control. Intentions are assumed to capture the motivational factors that influence the actual behaviour. They are indications of how hard people are willing to try, of how much effort they are planning to exert in order to perform the behaviour.

The attitude toward actual behaviour refers to the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of the actual behaviour. Subjective norms refer to the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour. Finally, perceived behavioural control is concerned with judgments of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations (Ajzen, 1991). The attitude toward the behaviour refers to which the person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of the behaviour in question. Subjective norm refers to the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour. Finally, the perceived behavioural control refers to the resources and opportunities available to a person to perform the behaviour.

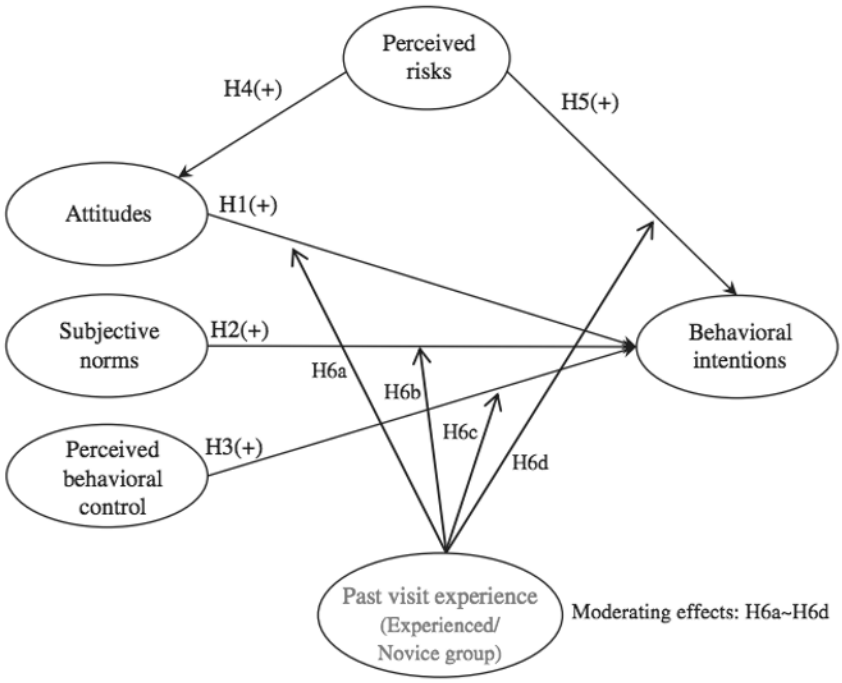
The theory of planned behaviour was successfully tested in various contexts of tourism and hospitality sectors (Quintal et al., 2010; Yuzhanin and Fisher, 2016; Hsieh et al., 2016). The model was applied for predicting transportation mode choices (Bamberg et al., 2003), the Chinese consumers' intentions to choose restaurants (Cheng et al., 2006), the attitudes toward wine tourism (Sparks, 2007), the Taiwanese travellers' choice of Hong Kong as a travel destination (Lam and Hsu, 2006), the Chinese outbound tourists' attitudes toward international travel (Sparks and Pan, 2009) and the travel intention to visit destinations bearing natural risks (Gstaettner et al., 2017).

Hsieh et al. (2016) examined the extended Theory of Planned Behaviour (ETPB) in the context of young Taiwanese' travel intentions to Japan (Figure 3). This study aimed to (1) apply the theoretical framework of the ETPB to investigate its predictive power when perceived risk is included as an antecedent; (2) investigate the moderating effects of past visit experience (first time versus repeat visitors) on the relationships between the three TPB dimensions and perceived risks on behavioural intentions; (3) test the hypothesized model with a sample of young Taiwanese tourists to Japan; and (4) compare the predictive power of the original TPB and the ETPB model in terms of the variance explained to

identify which model predicts more accurately (Hsieh et al., 2016). The results show that attitudes exhibit stronger explanatory power in overall behavioural intentions than subjective norms and perceived behavioural control (Hsieh et al., 2016).

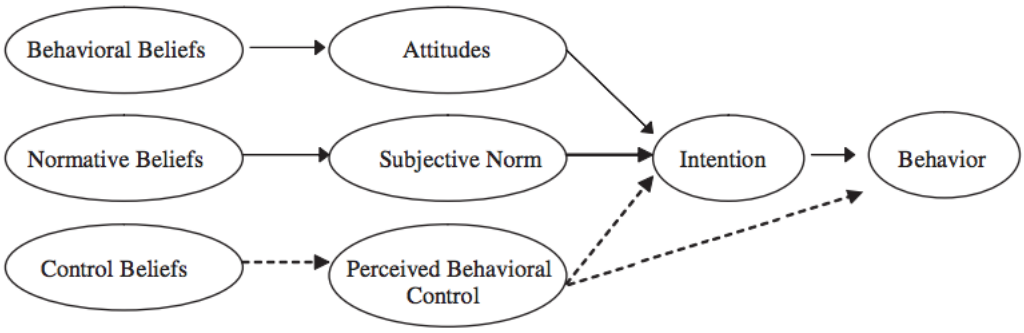
Lam and Hsu (2004) attempted to test the fit of the TPB model in the tourism context with potential Mainland Chinese travellers to Hong Kong as the sample. (Figure 4). Specifically, the objectives of the study were to (a) investigate how behavioural beliefs of the push and pull factors, and normative beliefs lead to the formation of attitude and subjective norm, respectively; (b) explore the influence of control beliefs on perceived behavioural control; and (c) examine the impacts of attitude, subjective norm, past behaviour, and perceived behavioural control on behavioural intention. The study contributed to incorporating past behaviour into the TPB and revealed a significant predictor of travellers' intention of choosing a destination (Lam and Hsu, 2004).

Figure 3. An extended model of the theory of planned behaviour with moderating effects of the past visit experience



Source: Hsieh et al. (2016, p. 721)

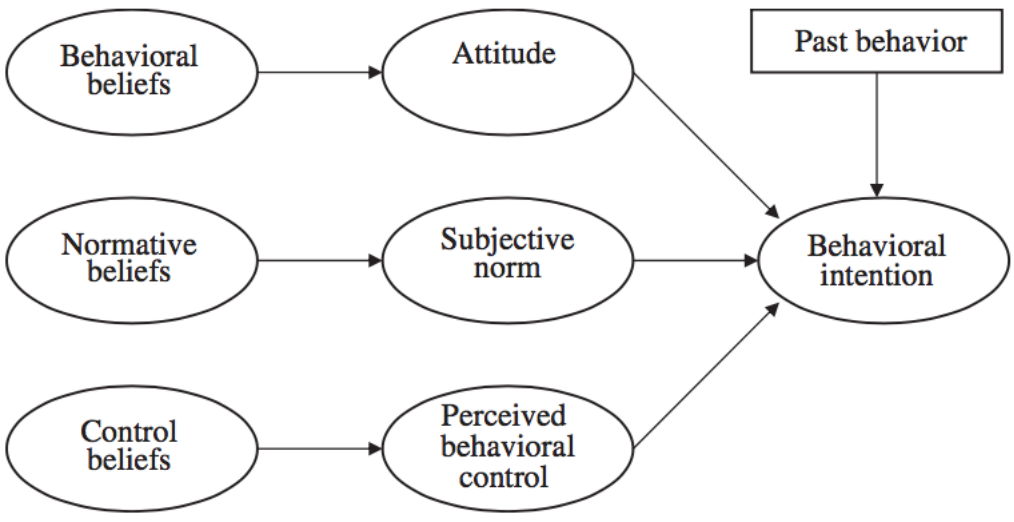
Figure 4. An extended theory of planned behaviour model with beliefs



Source: Lam and Hsu (2004, p.466)

Lam and Hsu (2006) attempted to test the applicability of the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) model using its core constructs (attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control), with the addition of the past behaviour variable, on behavioural intention of choosing a travel destination (Figure 5). The study revealed that past behaviour, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control, but not attitude, had a direct impact on behavioural intention (Lam and Hsu, 2006).

Figure 5. An extended theory of planned behaviour model with past behaviour and beliefs.



Source: Lam and Hsu (2006, p.590)

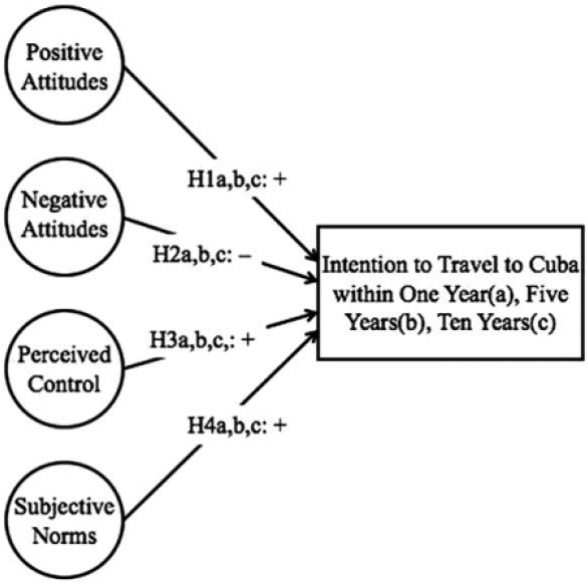
The theory of planned behaviour is designed to predict the intended and actual behaviour of consumers. The model gained popularity because it can be adjusted to different research contexts by adding new effects. For example, tourism studies integrated several direct or indirect effects on the original model. Lam and Shu (2006), for example, added behavioural, normative, and control beliefs to the model that determines the attitude toward the actual behaviour, the subjective norms, and the perceived behavioural control. They proposed that past travel behaviour has a direct impact on behavioural intention (choosing among travel destinations) as well.

One of the most recent extensions of TPB studied the effect of time horizons on the intention of travel to Cuba by US residents (Jordan et al., 2017). The study modified the TPB in two specific ways. First, travel behaviour was broken down into three time periods (a year, five years, and ten years) to test the effect of the TPB antecedents (attitude toward actual behaviour, subjective norms, and perceived control over behaviour) over the three-time frames on travel behaviour (Figure 6). Second, the attitude toward the actual behaviour was split into positive and negative attitudes (Jordan et al., 2017). The differentiation between positive and negative attitudes can be considered as the main contribution of the study (Jordan et al., 2017). The research revealed that having a negative attitude toward a destination does not necessarily reduce one's intention to travel there. The model included not only the direct effect of the attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control on the behavioural intention but also the indirect effect of other constructs of negative attitude and positive attitude on the intention to travel.

Furthermore, Chen and Peng (2012) found supporting evidence for subjective norms affecting attitude and intention directly. Furthermore, moderating variables destination image, food image, country image, travel constraints should be emphasized in the application of TPB in tourism research.

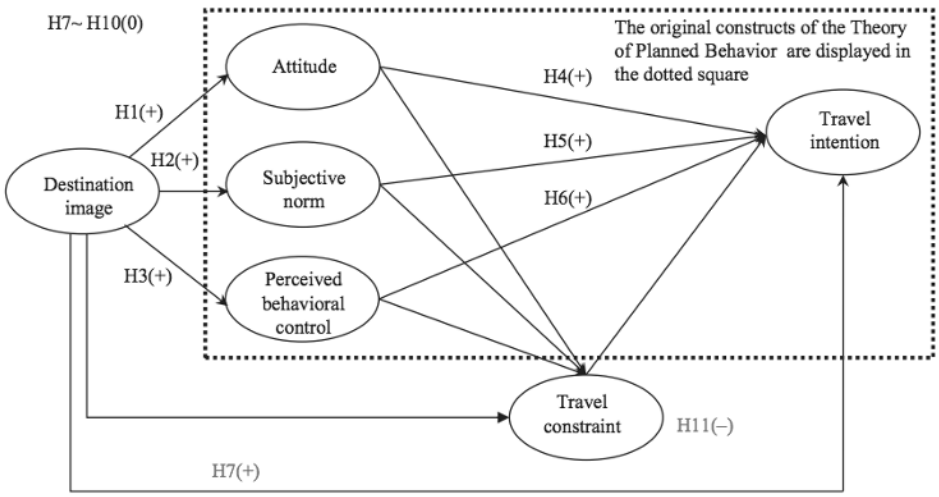
Recently, tourism-related TPB models focused on the role of destination image as well. For instance, the travel intention of Chinese students in Japan was examined (Park et al., 2016). Park et al. (2016) extended the TPB by proposing a framework where destination image has a direct impact on the travel intention and the three core TPB constructs (attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behaviour control) as well. In parallel, destination image has a direct effect on behavioural intentions (Figure 7).

Figure 6. An extended theory of planned behaviour model with negative and positive attitudes.



Source: Jordan et al. (2017, p. 983)

Figure 7. An extended theory of planned behaviour model with destination image and travel constraint



Source: Park et al. (2016, p. 120)

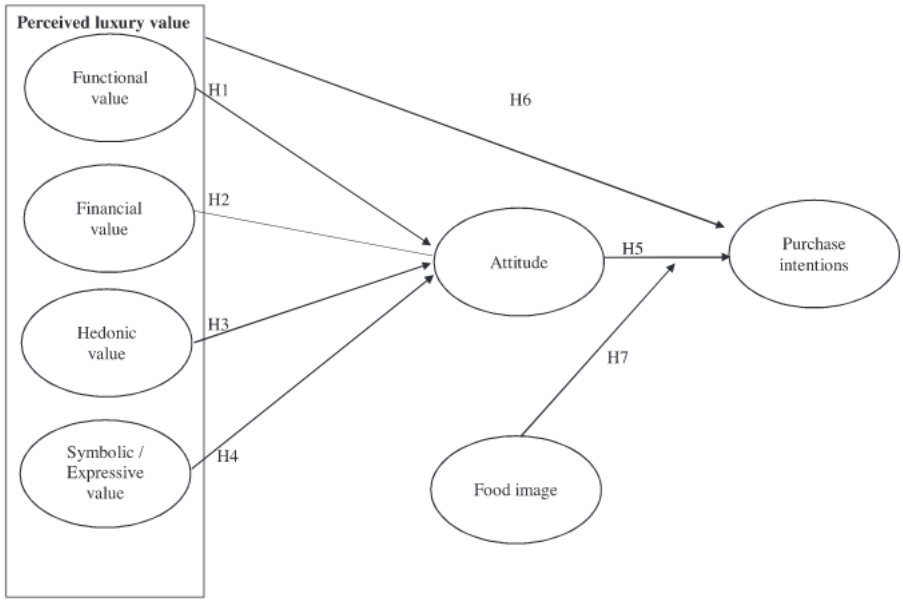
Food image was also used as a moderating variable (Figure 8) between intention and the actual behaviour to examine the consumers' intention to dine at luxury restaurants while travelling (Chen and Peng, 2018). The study provided a major contribution to the tourism

and leisure literature and research by incorporating a "food image" variable into a TPB model (Chen and Peng, 2018).

Kim and Kwon (2018) also studied the country image factor related to tourism behaviour. They investigated the effects of a cognitive and affective image on the constructs of TPB (Figure 9). Moreover, they included destination and product familiarity as moderator variables to forecast the intention of Tanzanian college students to visit Korea.

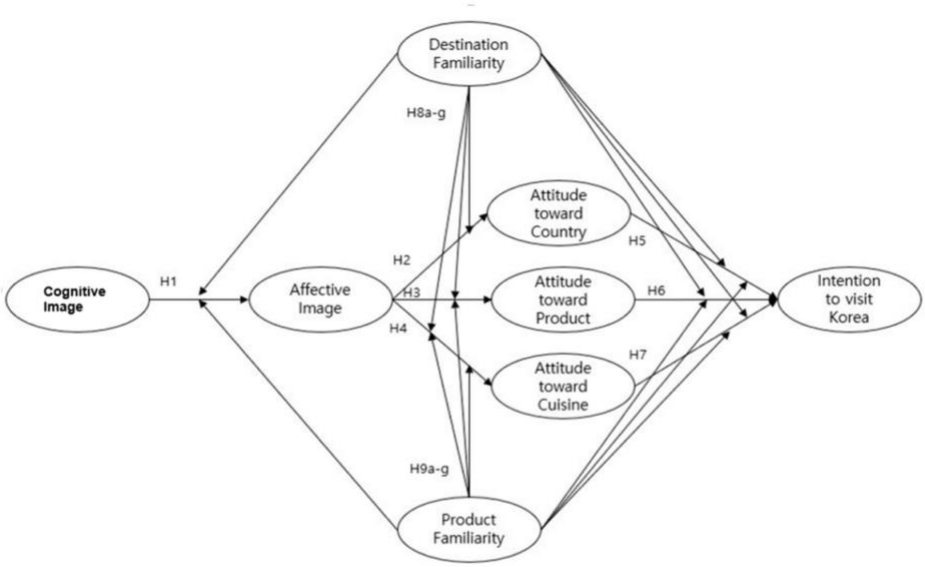
Chew and Jahar (2014) contributed new insights by examining the effects of perceived risks on destination image and the mediating role of destination image between perceived risks and revisit intention of repeat tourists to a risky destination (Figure 10). With perceived risk and destination image being empirically distinctive constructs, findings revealed that perceived socio-psychological and financial risks influenced both cognitive and affective destination images, and perceived physical risk did not have a significant influence on destination image, although it directly affected revisit intention (Chew and Jahari, 2014).

Figure 8. An extended theory of planned behaviour model with perceived luxury value and food image



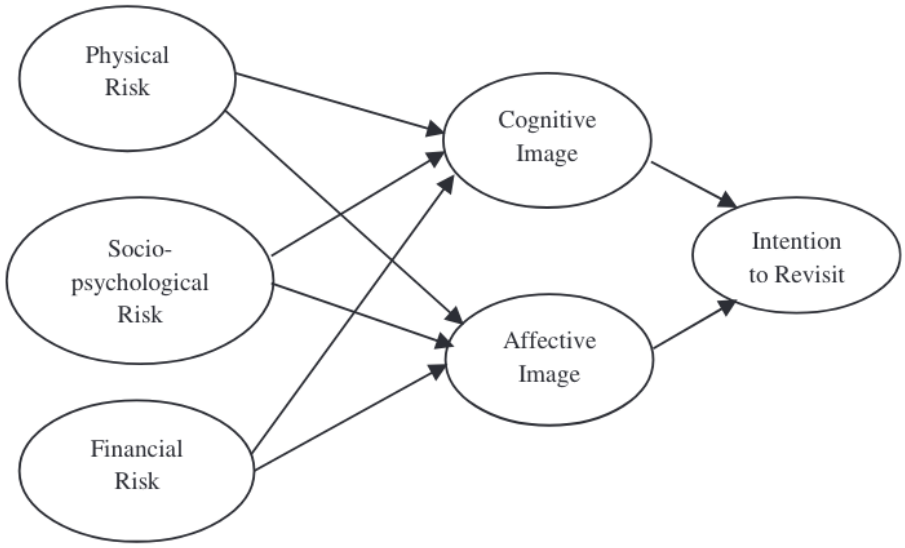
Source: Chen and Peng (2018, p.61)

Figure 9. An extended theory of planned behaviour model with destination image, destination and product familiarity.



Source: Kim and Kwon (2018, p.4)

Figure 10. Conceptual model examining the effects of perceived risks on intention to revisit and the mediating role of the destination image.



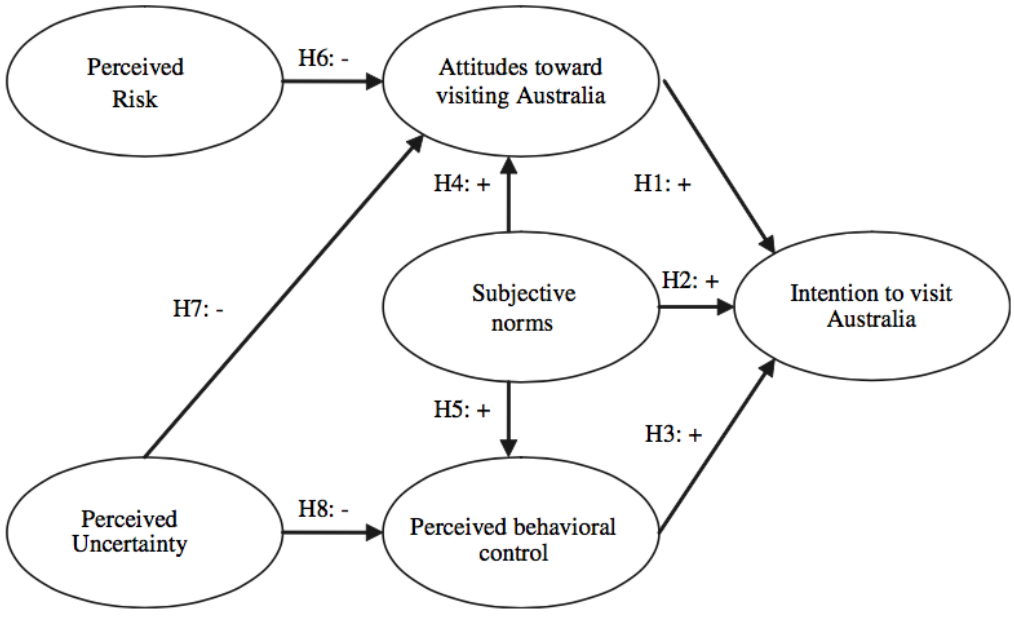
Source: Chew and Jahari (2014, p. 386)

Most recent tourism research (Huang et al., 2020; Ye et al., 2020; Meng and Cui, 2020; Japutra et al., 2019; Aliperti and Cruz, 2019) extended the TPB even further. Integrating

travellers' mindset into TPB was of the pioneering studies in this field (Japutra et al., 2019), revealing that travellers' mindsets predict attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. Japutra et al. (2019) examined the relationship between traveller's mindsets and the theory of planned behaviour from responses collected from UK traveller's visiting Lisbon, Portugal. Mindsets are also broken into two types fixed mindsets and growth mindsets. Fixed mindset individuals believe that qualities are set in concrete, while growth mindset individuals believe that they can change through effort and experience (Japutra et al., 2019). Results show that fixed mindset travellers are more affected by subjective norms, and they need to be communicated differently by the marketer (Japutra et al., 2019).

Quintal et al. (2010) extended TPB by adding the three differential impacts risk and uncertainty have on travel decision-making to study intentions to visit Australia. The analysis showed that perceived risk and perceived uncertainty were distinct constructs that have different impacts on intention to visit a destination (Quintal et al., 2010). Moreover, the study also revealed that subjective norms influence attitudes and behavioural control (Quintal et al., 2010).

Figure 11. Study model integrating perceived risk and perceived uncertainty with the TPB



Source: Quintal et al. (2010, p.799)

The popularity of TPB accounts for the wide range of opportunities to extend the model by adding potential additional variables to study the behaviour of consumers, especially the tourist in different contexts. It is theoretically accepted that TPB is better understood by altering the paths to be more adequate in a particular context (Han and Kim, 2010). Adding the significant variables as antecedents contributes to a possible increase in the ability to predict an intention and behaviour (Han and Kim, 2010). The present study extends the TPB framework by integrating the moderating effects of country and destination to the model used a model of perceived risk, perceived uncertainty and proposed by Quintal et al. (2010). Within the focus destination on conflict-ridden regions, this study attempts to explore the effects of negative country image and positive destination images on behavioural intention patterns towards visiting the destinations in conflict-ridden regions. Table 4 illustrates the summary of the above discussed extended models of TPB.

Table 4. Summary of TPB models

Author	**Model Framework**	**Incorporated variable**	**Outcome**
Chen and Peng (2018)	Luxury value-attitude-behaviour model	Food Image as a moderator	Purchase Intentions
Chew and Jahari (2014)	TPB	Cognitive Image, Affective Image as mediators	Intention to Revisit
Hsieh et al. (2016)	TPB	Perceived Risks, Past Visit Experience	Behavioural Intentions

Source: edited by the author

Table 4. continued

Author	Model Framework	Incorporated variable	Outcome
Park et al. (2016)	Destination Image-TPB constructs-Travel Constraints behaviour model	Destination Image as an antecedent Travel Constraints as a mediator	Travel Intention
Jordan et al. (2017)	TBP model with negative and positive attitudes	Positive attitudes and Negative attitudes as antecedents	Intention to Travel
Kim and Kwon (2018)	Destination Image and Familiarity behaviour model	Cognitive Image, Affective Image Antecedents Destination Familiarity Product Familiarity as moderators	Intention to visit
Lam and Hsu (2004)	Beliefs-TPB behaviour model	Behavioural Beliefs, Normative Beliefs, Control Beliefs as antecedents	Actual Behaviour
Lam and Hsu (2006)	Beliefs-Past Behaviour TPB behaviour model	Behavioural Beliefs, Normative Beliefs, Control Beliefs Past Behaviour as antecedents	Behavioural Intention

Source: edited by the author

Table 4. continued

Author	Model Framework	Incorporated variable	Outcome
Quintal et al. (2010)	Perceived Risk and Perceived Uncertainty – TPB model	Perceived Risk, Perceived uncertainty as antecedents	Intention to visit
Sparks and Pan (2009)	Information sources and Beliefs integrated behaviour model	Information sources, Behavioural Beliefs, Normative Beliefs, Control Beliefs	Actual Behaviour
Yuzhanin and Fisher (2016)	Beliefs-TPB behaviour model	Behavioural Beliefs, Normative Beliefs, Control Beliefs as antecedents	Actual Behaviour

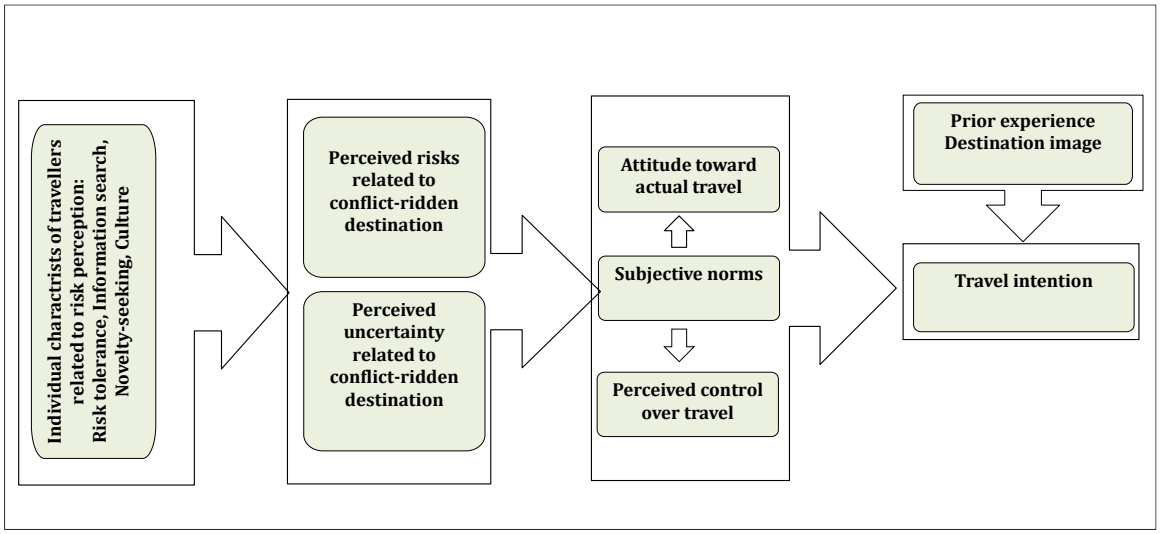
Source: edited by the author

2.5.2 Theoretical framework

The thesis aims to develop a theoretical framework that explains the effect of perceived risk on the behaviour of tourists in conflict-ridden destinations. We draw upon the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) and integrate perceived risk and uncertainty as antecedents of the theory of planned behaviour (Quintal et al., 2010) by taking into account prior experience and the image of destinations. The theoretical framework aims to explain the travel intention of conflict-ridden destinations. Travel intention refers to the amount of effort that the traveller is willing to make to implement the actual travel (Quintal et al., 2010). However, the intention to travel is the function of the three behavioural components: the attitude toward actual travel, the subjective norms and the

perceived behaviour control over the travel (Ajzen, 1991). The theoretical framework is shown in Figure 12.

Figure 12. Theoretical framework: the effect of perceived risk and uncertainty on the travel intention in conflict-ridden destination



Source: edited by author

Attitudes are predispositions created by learning and experience that are able to trigger consistent reactions toward an object, such as the actual travel (Lam and Hsu, 2006). Toward destinations, favourable or unfavourable attitudes are developed based on the evaluation of the destination characteristics (Moutinho, 1987). The attitudes toward conflict-ridden destinations are often negative due to the higher perceived risk.

Travel intentions are also influenced by the subjective norms that represent social pressure on individual decision making. Subjective norms have a substantial effect on the beliefs, attitudes, and decisions of individuals (Moutinho, 1987). Subjective norms are shaped by two factors. First, the individual has a belief about what the reference groups think he or she should do. Second, how strong is the individual's motivation to comply with the opinion of the reference groups (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Related to conflict-ridden destinations, reference groups might be less supportive related to the travel intention that might affect negatively the motivation to travel.

Finally, behavioural intent is determined by the degree of perceived control over the actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Thus, the perceived behavioural control is about how easy or difficult an individual thinks it is to perform the actual travel (Lam and Hsu,

2006). The confidence related to the actual travel depends on the resources available to the traveller (Ajzen, 1991; Quintal et al., 2010). In conflict-ridden destinations, the perceived control over travel has an important role because the higher perceived risk might need more preparations and more financial resources.

According to Ajzen (1991), subjective norms affect not only behavioural intent but also the attitudes toward actual behaviour and perceived behavioural control. Human beings tend to take into account the expectations of others when they are creating their attitude (Oliver and Bearden, 1985). Based on this consideration, it is easy to see that negative subjective norms create unfavourable attitudes in the traveller. Subjective norms have an impact on perceived control over travel as well because negative social pressure might decrease the perceived control over travel. This relationship is particularly valid in the case of conflict-ridden destinations where the ability of acting might be limited (Quintal et al., 2010).

The attitude toward the actual behaviour, the subjective norms, and the perceived behaviour control depends largely on the risk and uncertainty perceived by the traveller. Earlier research on modelling travel intention (Quintal et al., 2010; Hsieh et al., 2016; Mao and Lu, 2017; Chen, 2017) found perceived risk and uncertainty can modify the attitude toward travel. With the increase of travel-related risks, the attitude toward travel can change in a negative direction. Moreover, the perceived uncertainty has a negative effect on the perceived control over travel (Quintal et al., 2010; William and Baláž, 2014). In the case of conflict-ridden destinations, the perceived uncertainty might create the perception that the control over the travel might bump into difficulties.

However, travel-related risks are perceived by each traveller somewhat differently. Therefore, we need to take into account the characteristics of travellers (risk tolerance, novelty-seeking, information search, culture) that are responsible for the individual differences in risk perception.

The risk tolerance of the tourist determines the importance attached to the travel-related risks (William and Baláž, 2013). The more risk-taking is the traveller, the lower will be the perceived risk and uncertainty concerning the travel into a conflict-ridden destination. Similarly, the extensive search of information leads to a decrease in perceived risk. The

lower perceived risk results in more positive attitudes toward the travel, lower social pressure, and higher perceived control over the travel, causing stronger intention to travel (Maser and Weiermair, 1998).

Novelty-seeking behaviour increases the travel intention to conflict-ridden destinations in a different way. A novelty-seeking traveller welcomes new and even risky destinations (Lepp and Gibson, 2003). Therefore, they are not interested in decreasing the perceived risk related to travel, but they consider it as an added value. So, higher perceived risk will induce a positive attitude toward the travel, lower social influence, and higher confidence over the travel that increases the intention to visit high-risk destinations.

Cultural differences influence the risk perception of travellers as well (Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005). Tourists from risk-avoiding cultures tend to overestimate the travel-related risks that negatively affect their attitudes toward travel (Hofstede, 2013). In addition, the social pressure will be higher and perceived control over travel will be lower that will discourage the individual from traveling to conflict-ridden destinations.

Several researchers (Han and Kim, 2010; Ye et al., 2014; Su et al., 2016) suggested that the prior experience related to the destination has a direct effect on the travel intention. Concerning the conflict-ridden destinations, the prior experience might counterbalance the negative indirect effect of higher perceived risk and uncertainty on the intention to travel.

Not only the prior experience but also the image of the destination might have a positive impact on the travel intention. Destination image comprises cognitive and affective evaluations about the destination (Mackay and Fesenmaier, 1997; Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001; Hosany et al., 2006). Tourists might be attracted by destinations with a positive image even if the country image is evaluated as less favourable (Lepp et al., 2011; Martinez and Alvarez, 2010; Mossberg and Kleppe 2005). Tourists rely heavily on the image of a destination when they make a decision about the travel destination (Um and Crompton 1990).

3. Research concept

The thesis aims to investigate how perceived risk influences travel intention in conflict-ridden destinations. The thesis reviewed possible influence factors that strengthen (or weaken) the relationship between perceived risk and travel intention. Consequently, the research aims to contribute to the understanding of the factors that influence the choice of conflict-ridden destinations. The developed researched concept and conceptual models are discussed in the next chapter.

3.1 Conceptual model

Based on the review of previous studies (Clements and Georgiou, 1998; Gartner and Shen, 1992; Hall, 2010; Rittichainowat and Chakraborty, 2009; Thapa, 2004; Reisinger and Mavondo, 2005; Roehl and Fesenmaier, 1992; Maser and Weiermair, 1998; Sönmez and Graefe, 1998a, 1998b; Lepp and Gibson, 2003; Quintal et al. 2005; Lepp and Gibson, 2008; Quintal et al., 2010; Yang and Nair 2014; Cheng et al., 2006; Sparks, 2007; Lam and Hsu, 2006; Sparks and Pan, 2009; Bamber et al., 2003; Ajzen, 1985; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Han, 2015), a research concept has been developed and a conceptual model is proposed.

The previous extended model of TPB (Quintal et al., 2010) with perceived risk suggested considering the contexts with tourism destinations with higher risk and uncertainty factors. Consequently, tourism destinations in conflict-ridden regions show higher perceived risk factors. The application of the model in the context of conflict-ridden regions will contribute to understanding the effects of higher risk on determining factors influencing intention to visit destinations in conflict-ridden regions.

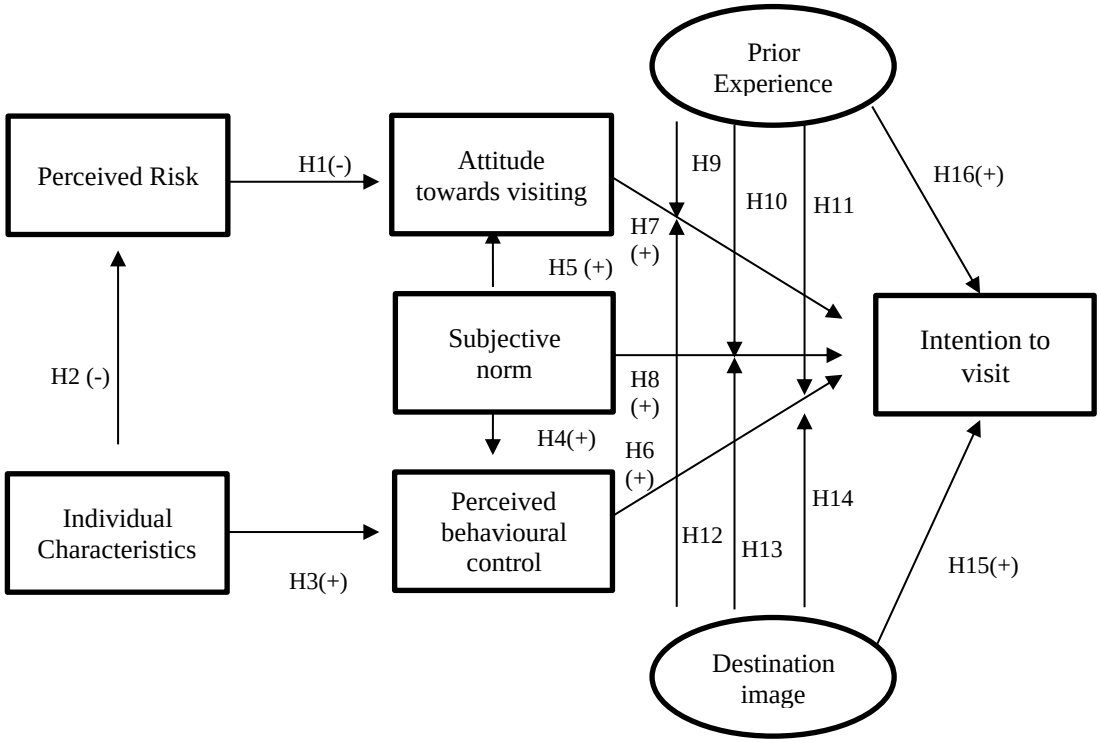
The conceptual model adds new constructs of individual characteristics to the TPB model that function as antecedents of risk perception. As per the suggestion of previous research, some risk factors may attract some people to visit risky destinations (Quintal et al., 2010).

The studied model is also extended by the impact of the destination image, which is supposed to be positive in our research and prior experience with the destination.

The other added construct in the TPB model is prior experience. The previous studies (Han and Kim, 2010; Ye et al., 2014; Su et al., 2016) confirmed that prior experience affects travel intention. Considering the higher perceived risk of a conflict-ridden destination, prior experience may have a significant effect on travel intention.

This TPB model is extended by adding perceived risk, individual characteristics, destination image, and prior experience to the core model. Destination image and prior experiences play a role in moderating variables to explore further tourist perceptions of how these variables moderate the links between visiting intention and its antecedences.

Figure 13. Conceptual model



Source: edited by author

3.2 Hypothesis development

Studies on the effects of risk perception in tourism revealed that previous travel experience and risk perceptions influence future travel intentions (Sönmez and Graefe, 1998b). In addition, the context of our research is relevant as negative events such as terrorism, political instability, and war can increase the perception of risk at a destination

(Lepp and Gibson, 2003), especially in conflict-ridden regions. As risk perception is defined as the expectation of probable loss (Quintal et al., 2010) and effects negatively future travel intentions, it validates my thesis of integrating risk perception to Ajzen's (1985, 1991) TPB. Therefore, it is proposed that risk perception has a negative effect on attitudes towards visiting a conflict-ridden destination.

H1: Higher perceived risk decreases the tourists' attitude toward visiting a conflict-ridden destination.

Destinations associated with higher risk should attract novelty-seeking tourists, as novelty-seeking tourists perceive risks differently and tolerate a higher level of risks (Lepp and Gibson, 2003). Therefore, it is worth understanding how novelty-seeking individual characteristics of tourists affect the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.

Consequently, the following hypotheses are developed to investigate the relationship of individual characteristics and risk perception on the determinants of future travel intentions to visit destinations in conflict-ridden regions. H2 and H3 test the impact of novelty-seeking behaviour on risk perception and perceived behavioural control.

H2: Tourists with a higher level of novelty-seeking behaviour perceive lower risk related to conflict-ridden destinations.

H3: Tourists with a higher level of novelty-seeking behaviour have a higher level of perceived behavioural control related to conflict-ridden destinations.

Based on the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), the attitude toward the behaviour, subjective norm, perceived behavioural had been adopted to understand their relationship with intention to visit a destination in conflict-ridden areas. It provides a suggested future direction in applying the framework of Quintal et al. (2010) in a specific context of conflict-ridden destinations with high-risk perception levels. Accordingly, hypotheses were developed to verify the relationship between attitudes towards visiting, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and the intention to visit a destination in a conflict-ridden region. Subjective norm a social pressure on to approve or avoid risky

destinations. Perceived behavioural control is how comfortable tourists are about the necessary resources, abilities, and opportunities they have to reduce and cope with the risks related to visiting a destination in a conflict-ridden region.

Some individuals, such as females a more influenced by subjective norms and has more influence in a group such as family, friend and co-workes (Sparks and Pan, 2009). In collective-oriented countries such as China, subjective norms have a significant impact on attitudes and behaviour (Park et al., 2016; Cheng et al., 2006). Especially when decisions are made within a group of friends or family members, subjective norms should be considered as a significant influencing factor (Chen and Peng, 2018). Hence, the subjective norm is assumed to have a significant effect on attitudes towards vising and perceived behavioural control and being those relationships being tested by H4 and H5.

H4: A higher level of subjective norms of visiting conflict-ridden destinations affect perceived behavioural control positively.

H5: A higher level of subjective norms of visiting conflict-ridden destinations affect the attitude toward visiting positively.

H6 test the prediction effect of perceived behavioural control on the intention to visit. Perceived behavioural control is assumed to have the necessary resources, abilities, and opportunities that help to reduce and cope with the risks of visiting a destination in a conflict-ridden region.

H6: A higher level of perceived behavioural control affect the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations positively.

H7 tests the prediction effect of attitudes towards visiting intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations. Attitudes toward visiting can be explained by how favourable, or unfavourable feelings tourists hold about visiting a destination in the conflict-ridden region.

H7: More positive attitude towards visiting a conflict-ridden destination affect effect on the intention to visit positively.

In addition, H8 tests subjective norms as the significant predictor of intention to visit conflict destinations. It is assumed a higher level of subjective norms leads to a higher level of subjective norms, and it increases the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations. Subjective norms can be a significant predictor of intention to travel. For instance, Jordan et al. (2017) revealed that tourists upon their positive or negative attitudes toward the destination, the political climate may result in negative subjective norms among peers who disapprove of travel to the political opponent or a lack of perceived behavioural control to act upon one's positive disposition toward the destination in a case of Cuba.

H8: A higher level of subjective norms of visiting conflict-ridden destinations affect the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations positively.

Many empirical studies have shown that prior experience significantly impacts behavioural intention and future behaviour (Sönmez and Graefe, 1998; Han and Kim, 2010; Ye et al., 2014; Su et al., 2016). Lam and Hsu (2006) proved that the best predictor of behavioural intention and actual future behaviour is the frequency of past relevant behaviour (Lam and Hsu, 2006). Lam and Hsu (2004) also revealed that prior experience is an important predictor of travellers' intention. Thus, prior experience is included in the model as the moderating variable of the relationship between attitudes towards visiting, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit.

Tourists' prior visit experiences, and their satisfaction with those experiences, play an important role in their future behaviour, and it is generally accepted that past visit experience can influence tourist attitudes toward destination decision-making, both positively and negatively (Hsieh et al., 2016). Lam and Hsu (2004) also found that prior experience has a significant predicting effect on tourists' intention to travel to a specific destination, and including prior experience in the TPB model enhances the predictive ability of the original TPB. Hence, the following hypotheses have been developed. Consequently, H9, H10 and H11 have been developed to test the moderating effect of prior experience on the effect of attitudes towards visiting, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control on the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.

H9: Prior experience moderates the relationship between attitude towards visiting and intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.

H10: Prior experience moderates the relationship between subjective norms and intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.

H11: Prior experience moderates the relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations positively.

In the research concept, the destination image is assumed to have an indirect effect on the intention to visit (Um and Crompton, 1990). Therefore, our following hypotheses aims to reveal the moderating effects of a positive image of destination in conflict-ridden areas on determinants of intentions to visit of Ajzen's (1985, 1991) TPB. The conflict-ridden countries or the countries in conflict-ridden areas may face a greater challenge of destination images and are perceived as risky tourism destinations. However, some countries suffering from negative country perceptions, as opposed to more positive views regarding the tourism destination (Martinez and Alvarez, 2010). While the destination image has a strong impact on the decision-making process (Lepp et al., 2011), it is important to understand how the destination image moderates the strength of the relationship between attitudes towards visiting, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit. H12, H13, and H14 capture the moderating effect of destination image on the relationship between the attitudes towards visiting, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.

H12: Positive destination image moderates the relationship between attitude towards visiting and intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.

H13: Positive destination image moderates the relationship between subjective norms and intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.

H14: Positive destination image moderates the relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.

Along with moderating effects of destination image and prior experience on the primary TPB constructs, both destination image and prior experience provide an important research avenue to test their predicting effect on the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations (Martinez and Alvarez, 2010; Lepp et al., 2011; Hsieh et al., 2016). H15 tests the impact of destination image, and H16 tests the effect of prior experience on the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations. Empirical studies examined the direct and indirect effect of destination image on travel intention and revealed that destination image positively affects future travel intention and behaviour (Park et al., 2016). H15 assumes that the level of positive destination image directly increases the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations. In addition, previous experience with a destination is accepted to be affecting a tourist's decision-making process, and tourists who have more experience with a destination are less impacted by risk perception (Hsieh et al., 2016). Hence, H16 assumes that tourist with prior experience with a destination has a higher level of intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.

H15: Positive destination image affect the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations positively.

H16: Prior experience affects the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations positively.

4. Research Methodology

The proposed research methodology aims to study how perceived risk influences travel intention in conflict-ridden destinations. The detailed review of the literature on risk perception, destination image, country image, and behavioural models led to the formation of a new conceptual model. Based on the model, 16 hypotheses had been developed to test the relationship of proposed eight constructs: risk perception, individual characteristics, attitude towards visiting a destination in a conflict-ridden region, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, destination image, prior experience and visiting intention to a destination in the conflict-ridden region.

The research method to be used in this thesis is selected as a quantitative methodology. Empirical research aims to test the hypotheses with statistical methods that require a quantitative approach. The quantitative methodology also allows the studying of particular variables that eventually strengthen the generalizability of the research. Furthermore, quantitative research methods will enable us to draw conclusions based on the research findings. Review of several previous studies (Chen and Peng, 2018; Chew and Jahari, 2014; Park et al., 2016; Jordan et al., 2017; Kim and Kwon, 2018; Lam and Hsu, 2006; Quintal et al., 2010; Sparks and Pan, 2009) showed that quantitative methodology is widely applied to analyze tourists' behaviour implementing TPB model. A quantitative study is planned to be conducted to test the hypotheses and provide the results giving insights on travel intention to conflict-ridden destinations. The proposed methodology to examine the extended theory of planned behaviour (TPB) is planned to start with data survey design and data collection. The questionnaire will be developed to obtain the needed data for the current study comprising all constructs of the study. The developed constructs will be measured through scales adopted from previous research and adapted to our research context.

4.1 Population and sampling method

The selected research population are those who plan to visit a conflict-ridden destination in the near future after the pandemic when travel restrictions are lifted after survey administration for leisure purposes. The destinations to be used in empirical research are

Turkey and Israel. Pre-tests were done to confirm that Turkey and Israel are considered conflict-ridden destinations by the research population. The research aims to study the influence of political conflicts and terrorism on the intention to visit Turkey and Israel. Both countries were challenged by political conflicts and several consequent terrorist attacks in recent years. Consequently, risks of visiting both tourism destinations, Turkey and Israel, increased. Crisis challenged the competitiveness and share in world tourism of top tourism destinations. Studies on the effects of negative events on tourism showed conflicts have a significant negative impact on the tourism industry of that destination. The study showed that (Bayramov and Abdullayev, 2016) there is a strong relationship between the changes in terrorism index and overall tourism growth rates; meanwhile, political conflicts and terrorism have an adverse effect on tourism development. Conducting further empirical research on how the intention of visiting Turkey and Israel is affected by the risk perception, novelty-seeking behaviour, destination image, and prior experience makes a good example for carrying the empirical study on the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.

The selected sampling method is the non-probability sampling method with the snowball technique. Nonprobability sampling relies on the personal judgment of the researcher rather than a chance to select sample elements (Malhotra, 2010, p. 344). Finding the people who visited conflict-ridden destinations is challenging. Therefore, the snowball technique was used that is effective to reach a specific population. A nonprobability sampling technique in which an initial group of respondents is selected randomly, subsequent respondents are selected based on the referrals or information provided by the initial respondents, and this process may be carried out in waves by obtaining referrals from referrals (Malhotra, 2010, p. 349). Initially, the choice of a group of respondents was based on convenient selection according to the research population characteristics. The questionnaire was shared in travel social media groups with more than fifty thousand members. After the first group was surveyed, they were asked to identify others who belonged to the research population. The major advantage of snowball sampling is the opportunity to reach the desired target research population easily with low costs; however, time-consuming characteristics is a disadvantage of the snowball technique (Malhotra, 2010). A gift card from amazon.com has been offered as an incentive to increase participation in the survey.

4.2 Data collection method

Data were collected through an online survey. A questionnaire survey is a widely used tool to collect data for empirical studies using TPB. Online surveys have pros and cons described by many scholars (Malhotra, 2010; Evans and Mathur, 2005). Being impersonal, low response rates, lack of online expertise, skewed attributes on the online population, unclear instructions can be considered as a weakness of online surveys (Malhotra, 2004; Evans and Mathur, 2005). However, numerous strength points make online surveys a very relevant tool for data collection. For instance, the unlimited global reach of the research population, flexibility in location and timeliness, added technological tools, convenience, diversified type of questions, low administration costs, ability to control sampling, and answer order (Malhotra, 2004; Evans and Mathur, 2005).

4.3 Survey instrument and scales selected to measure the model

The questionnaire that was designed to collect the data for our study consisted of four sections. The questions in the first section asked if the respondents are considering to travel in the near future and which one of the two countries would be highly likely their selected destination. Thus, this was the filter question part where you ensured that every respondent belonged to the research population defined earlier. The second section of the survey covered the constructs of the TPB, questions related to attitudes towards visiting, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit Turkey or Israel. The third section asked questions about the perceived risks and destination image associated with Turkey or Israel and their prior experience. The fourth section included questions related to respondents' backgrounds, such as gender, age, education, and country of residence.

Scales selected to measure the model's constructs were taken from the previous studies. The scales were adopted to the current research context, and a questionnaire was developed.

The core constructs of TPB, attitudes towards visiting, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intention to visit, were measured by the seven-point items that were used by many studies (Bagozzi et al., 2003; Lam and Hsu, 2006; Quintal et al. 2010).

Attitude towards visiting, referring to the degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of the actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) regarding a selected destination, was measured by five statements using a seven-point Likert scale from strongly agree (7) to strongly disagree (1). Participants were asked about their feeling about visiting Turkey or Israel.

Table 5. Scale items for attitudes towards visiting

I think visiting "Turkey or Israel" would be enjoyable
I think visiting "Turkey or Israel" would be positive
I think visiting "Turkey or Israel" would be fun
I think visiting "Turkey or Israel" would be pleasant
think visiting "Turkey or Israel" would be favourable

Source: Lam and Hsu. (2006, p.593)

Subjective norms referring to the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) were evaluated by three statements, each with a seven-point Likert scale from strongly agree (7) to strongly disagree (1). Respondents were asked questions about to what degree people important to them would approve their travel to Turkey or Israel.

Table 6. Scale items for subjective norms

Most people I know would choose "Turkey or Israel" as a travel destination
People who are important to me would think I should visit "Turkey or Israel"
People who are important to me would approve of my visit to "Turkey or Israel"

Source: Lam and Hsu. (2006, p.593)

Perceived behavioural control that concerned with judgments of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations (Ajzen, 1991) was measured by three statements with a seven-point Likert scale from strongly agree (7) to strongly disagree (1). Survey participants were asked to what degree they can decide to travel to Turkey or Israel.

Table 7. Scale items for perceived behavioural control

Travelling to "Turkey or Israel" is completely up to me
If I wanted, I could easily travel to "Turkey or Israel" from now on.
I have resources, time, and opportunities to travel to "Turkey or Israel."

Source: Lam and Hsu. (2006, p.593)

Behavioural intention to visit Turkey or Israel, which are assumed to capture the motivational factors that influence the actual behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), was measured by three statements with a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree (7) to strongly disagree (1).

Table 8. Scale items for intention to visit

I am willing to visit "Turkey or Israel" in the near future.
I plan to visit "Turkey or Israel" in the near future.
I will expend effort on visiting "Turkey or Israel" in the near future.

Source: Lam and Hsu. (2006, p.593)

Perceived risk, described as a judgement of tourists about the uncertainty of tourism activities and the process (Cui et al., 2016) associated with travelling to Turkey or Israel, were measured by seven-point items used by Sönmez and Graefe (1998). Seven statements were asked about physical risk, political instability risk, psychological risk, satisfaction risk, social risk, terrorism risk, and time risk. Respondents were asked to what

extent they think that they can be exposed to risks during the visit to Turkey or Israel. Their answers were measured seven statements using a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree (7) to strongly disagree (1).

Table 9. Scale items for perceived risk

Possibility of physical danger or accidents.
Possibility of becoming involved in the political turmoil
Possibility disappointment with the travel experience
Possibility dissatisfaction with travel experience)
Possibility of disapproval by friends/family/associates)
Possibility of being involved in a terrorist act
Possibility that travel experience will take too much time or will waste time.

Source: Sönmez and Graefe (1998a, p.174)

The prior visit experience of participants was measured with a single statement. Participants were asked how many times have you visited “Turkey or Israel”? Please answer "0" if you have never been to Turkey or Israel.

Destination images of Turkey or Israel, a continuous mental process by which one holds a set of impressions, emotional thoughts, beliefs, and prejudices regarding a destination due to information obtained from different channels (Kim and Chen 2015), were measured by nine statements that were used by Part et al. (2017). Participants were asked to what extent they agree with statements about the weather, safety and stability, quality of life, tourism industry, tourism infrastructures, local cuisine, attractions, cultural heritage and shopping. Their answers were assessed by a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree (7) to strongly disagree (1).

Table 10. Scale items for destination image

“Turkey or Israel” has a pleasant weather
“Turkey or Israel” is safe and stable
“Turkey or Israel” has a good quality of life
“Turkey or Israel” has a prosperous tourism industry
“Turkey or Israel” has adequate tourism infrastructure
“Turkey or Israel” has appealing local cuisine
“Turkey or Israel” has a variety of unique attractions
“Turkey or Israel” is rich in cultural heritage
“Turkey or Israel” is a good place for shopping

Source: Park et al. (2017, p.123)

Individual characteristics were measured by nineteen items developed by Lee and Crompton (1992) to measure novelty-seeking behaviour in tourism. Tourists with novelty-seeking characteristics consider the travel risks as an added value that attracts them to the destination (Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty 2009). Respondents were asked to indicate the degree of agreement with the statements regarding their personal preferences in travelling. Responses were measured by a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree (7) to strongly disagree (1).

Table 11. Scale items for individual characteristics

I sometimes like to do things on vacation that a little frightening
I enjoy doing “daring” activities while on vacation
Sometimes it is fun to be a little scared on vacation

Source: Lee and Crompton (1992, p. 741-742)

Table 11. continued

I enjoy experiencing a sense of danger on a vacation trip
I would like to be on a raft in the middle of a wild river at the time of the spring floodwaters
I enjoy activities that offer thrills
I seek adventure on my vacation
I want to experience new and different things on my vacation
I want to experience customs and cultures different from those in my own environment on vacation
I enjoy the change of environment which allows me to experience something new on vacation
My ideal vacation involves looking at things I have not seen before
I want to be a sense of discovery involved as part of my vacation
I like to travel to adventurous places
I feel a powerful urge to explore the unknown on vacation
I have to go on vacation from time to time to avoid getting into a rut.
I don't like to plan a vacation trip in detail because it takes away some the unexpectedness
I like vacations that are unpredictable
I would like to take off on a trip with no preplanned routes in my mind
I want to travel to relieve boredom

Source: Lee and Crompton (1992, p. 741-742)

4.3 Analytical method

Several researchers implemented confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Park et al. 2016; Jordan et al., 2017; Kim and Kwon, 2018), exploratory factor analysis EFA (Jordan et al., 2017; Kim and Kwon, 2018), path analysis (Quintal et al., 2010), standard regression analysis (Sparks and Pan, 2009). Data analysis will involve descriptive statistics, t-tests, discriminant validity, confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modelling. Scales to measures the constructs will be a seven-point Likert scale and semantic differential scale according to the construct. Structural equation modelling (SEM) is the most frequently implemented analytical method (Chen and Peng, 2018; Chew Jahari, 2014; Park et al., 2016; Jordan et al., 2017; Kim and Kwon, 2018; Lam and Hsu, 2006). (Chen and Peng, 2018; Chew Jahari, 2014; Park et al., 2016; Jordan et al., 2017; Kim and Kwon, 2018; Lam and Hsu, 2006).

Structural equation modelling models simultaneously endogenous latent constructs, their relationship with exogenous observed variables, and their correlation pattern in the hypothesized behavioural framework (Kaplan, 2015). The structural equation modelling will be used to evaluate and examine the relationship of added constructs to Ajzen's (1985, 1991) TPB and contribute to understanding and predicting tourists' behaviour in conflict-ridden destinations context.

Table 12. Summary of TPB models research methodology

Author	**Research Design/Data Collection**	**Analytical Method**	**Softwares Used**
Chen and Peng (2018)	Questionnaire Survey	A two-stage structural equation modeling (SEM)	IBM SPSS AMOS 23
Chew and Jahari (2014)	Questionnaire Survey	A two-stage structural equation modeling (SEM)	IBM SPSS and AMOS 18.0

Source: edited by the author

Table 12. continued

Author	Research Design/Data Collection	Analytical Method	Softwares Used
Park et al. (2016)	Questionnaire Survey	Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and SEM	AMOS version 20
Jordan et al. (2017)	Online questionnaire survey	Exploratory factor analyses (EFA) and (CFA)	IBM SPSS Statistics and R software environment for statistical computing and graphics.
Kim and Kwon (2018)	Questionnaire Survey	EFA, CFA and SEM	--
Lam and Hsu (2004)	Questionnaire Survey	SEM	--
Quintal et al. (2010)	Questionnaire Survey	Descriptive Statistics, Discriminant Validity, Path Analysis	--

Source: edited by the author

Table 12 continued

Author	**Research Design/Data Collection**	**Analytical Method**	**Softwares Used**
Quintal et al. (2010)	Questionnaire Survey	Descriptive Statistics, Discriminant Validity, Path Analysis	--
Lam and Hsu (2006)	Questionnaire Survey	SEM	LISREL 8
Sparks and Pan (2009)	Questionnaire Survey	Descriptive Analysis, Standard Regression Analysis	--

Source: edited by the author

5. Empirical research

The empirical research was carried out during December 2020 and January 2021 using an online questionnaire and snowball sampling technique. After the desired sample size was reached, the collected database was checked, data cleaning and filtering possible outlier values were applied.

The collected data have been analyzed using descriptive analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, structural equation modelling, and hypothesis testing.

5.1 Descriptive analysis

5.1.1 Sample profile

The sample size has reached 2221 respondents. The population consisted of individuals who are planning to travel abroad for leisure purposes after the COVID-19 travel restrictions are lifted and to one of the two countries, namely Turkey or Israel. 85.7% of respondents are residents of the USA. 72.3% are male, and the majority (60.6%) hold a bachelor's degree. The majority of the respondents were from the 18-29 and 30-39 age group, 44.52% and 42.12%, respectively. In addition, 65.5% of the sample answered Turkey as their most likely travel destination in the near future.

Table 13. Sample profile

Gender	
Male	72.36%
Female	27.04%
Education	
Less than high school degree	2.2%
High school graduate	17%
Bachelor's degree	60.54%
Master's degree	15.95%
Doctoral Degree	4.31%
Age	
18-29	44.52%
30-39	42.12%
40+	13.36%
Average age	30.39

Source: own elaboration based on own results

Table 13. continued

Destination intended to visit	
Turkey	65.54%
Israel	34.46%

Source: own elaboration based on own results

5.1.2 Descriptives

The scale items score has been averaged in order to conduct the following tests. The table below shows the minimum and maximum values of each constructed scale, along with age and 'Number of Visits'. Mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis are also included. Skewness and kurtosis can be used to examine the normality of variables (variables that follow a normal distribution). Both values should remain between -1 and 1 to indicate normality (Hair et al., 2014). As can be seen in the table below, most values are within these thresholds, which indicates no substantial departs from normality. The only exception is 'Number of visits', which was expected since a substantial number of participants answered '0' to this question. The interpretation of future Structural Equation Models (SEM) that use this variable will take its non-normality into account, although SEM has shown to be quite robust to violations of multivariate normality (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014).

Table 14. Descriptive statistics

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Number of visits	2169	0,00	65,00	1,2596	3,92332	9,589	0,053	117,954	0,105
Individual_Characteristics	2169	1,63	7,00	4,8995	0,90783	0,135	0,053	-0,593	0,105
Risk_Perception	2169	1,00	7,00	4,0782	1,32852	-0,225	0,053	-0,451	0,105
Attitudes	2169	2,00	7,00	5,4265	0,99931	-0,285	0,053	-0,739	0,105
Subjective_Norms	2169	1,67	7,00	5,3359	1,03928	-0,300	0,053	-0,508	0,105
Perceived_Control	2169	1,67	7,00	5,4524	1,01577	-0,350	0,053	-0,526	0,105
Destination_Image	2169	2,00	7,00	5,2711	0,95993	-0,214	0,053	-0,762	0,105
Intention_to_Visit	2169	1,67	7,00	5,4949	1,00852	-0,334	0,053	-0,582	0,105
How old are you?	2169	18,00	66,00	30,4246	5,74857	0,680	0,053	1,379	0,105
Valid N (listwise)	2169								

Source: own elaboration based on own results

5.1.3 Outlier analysis

An additional assumption of SEM is that there are no significant multivariate outliers in the data, which might distort the model. Outliers can also be checked by inspecting the Mahalanobis distances that are produced by the multiple regression program. To identify which cases are outliers, one needs to determine the critical chi-square value using the number of independent variables as the degrees of freedom (Pallant, 2010). If the chi-square value is below 0.001, the case can be considered a multivariate outlier (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2014).

The values for each case were calculated as a new column in the SPSS dataset ('MAH_1' – Mahalanobis Distances and 'MAH_PROB' – the corresponding value on the chi-square distribution. Prior Experience, Individual Characteristics, Risk Perception, Attitudes, Subjective Norms, Perceived Control and Destination Image, were considered when calculating the coefficients (all the independent variables of the conceptual model). Fifty-two cases (2.4% of the total cases) can be considered multivariate outliers and thus should be deleted to optimize the results of future models such as SEM.

5.1.4 Independent Samples T-tests

Respondents who chose Israel were compared with those who chose Turkey regarding the eight variables that compose the conceptual framework. Independent Samples T-tests were performed as these tests are appropriate when comparing the scores on a continuous variable between two different groups (Hair et al., 2014). The results are shown below in Tabe 15.

Significant differences (Sig. lower than 0.05) were demonstrated for the following scales: ‘Number of Visits’ (p=0.001), ‘Risk Perception’ (p=0.000), ‘Attitudes’ (p=0.009), ‘Subjective Norms’ (p=0.000) and ‘Destination Image’ (p=0.000). Israel showed significantly higher mean scores of ‘Risk Perception’ (M=4.25) and ‘Number of Visits’ (M=1.76), while Turkey demonstrated significantly higher scores on 'Attitudes' (M=5.47), ‘Subjective Norms’ (M=5.40) and ‘Destination Image’ (5.34). The values of ‘Perceived Control’, ‘Individual Characteristics’ and ‘Intention to Visit’ were not significantly different between those who answered the survey for Turkey or Israel.

Table 15. Independent Samples T-tests results

	Country	N	Mean	t	Sig
Number of visits	Turkey	1420	0,99	-3,401	0,001
	Israel	749	1,76		
Individual_Characteristics	Turkey	1420	4,89	-0,368	0,703
	Israel	749	4,91		
Risk_Perception	Turkey	1420	3,99	-4,583	0,000
	Israel	749	4,25		
Attitudes	Turkey	1420	5,47	2,635	0,009
	Israel	749	5,35		
Subjective_Norms	Turkey	1420	5,40	3,980	0,000
	Israel	749	5,21		
Destination_Image	Turkey	1420	5,34	4,772	0,000
	Israel	749	5,14		
Perceived Control	Turkey	1420	5,47	1,403	0,161
	Israel	749	5,41		
Intention_to_Visit	Turkey	1420	5,52	1,432	0,152
	Israel	749	5,45		

Source: own elaboration based on own results

5.1.5 Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis was performed. Correlation coefficients are indicators of associations between variables (Pallant, 2010). There are a number of different statistics available, depending on the level of measurement and the nature of your data. Pearson' coefficient 'r' is designed for interval level (continuous) variables, whereas Spearman'srho' is designed for use with ordinal level or ranked data and is particularly useful when the data does not meet the criteria for Pearson correlation (Pallant, 2010). As the variables under study are metric, Pearson's coefficients were calculated. Values between 0.10 and 0.29 indicate a small degree of association, while values between 0.30 and 0.49 are considered medium, and values higher than 0.50 represent a high degree of association (Cohen, 1988). The results are shown in the correlation in Table 16 below.

Table 16. Correlation analysis results

	Number of visits	Individual_ Characteristics	Risk_ Perception	Attitudes	Subjective_ Norms	Destination _Image	Intention_ to_Visit	Perceived_ Control
Number of visits	1	.024	.072**	.009	.047*	.011	.041	.041
Individual_Characteristics	.024	1	.263**	.530**	.561**	.594**	.585**	.550**
Risk_Perception	.072**	.263**	1	-.080**	.026	-.071**	-.043*	.006
Attitudes	.009	.530**	-.080**	1	.727**	.782**	.767**	.755**
Subjective_Norms	.047*	.561**	.026	.727**	1	.732**	.732**	.712**
Destination_Image	.011	.594**	-.071**	.782**	.732**	1	.772**	.734**
Intention_to_Visit	.041	.585**	-.043*	.767**	.732**	.772**	1	.764**
Perceived_Control	.041	.550**	.006	.755**	.712**	.734**	.764**	1
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).								
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).								

Source: own elaboration based on own results

Intention to visit (dependent variable of the research) shows a strong positive association with all variables, except 'Number of Visits' and 'Risk Perception'. Risk Perception is the only variable that is negatively associated with 'Intention to Visit' as excepted from assumed relationships based on the model.

Correlation analysis was performed separately for Turkey only (Table 17) and Israel only (Table 18) to find out if there are any differences. The results indicate that 'Intention to visit' to Turkey shows the same associations as the whole sample, while 'Intention to visit' Israel shows a positive association with 'Risk perception', but it is not significant.

Table 17. Correlation analysis results for Turkey only

	Number of visits	Individual_ Characteristics	Risk_ Perception	Attitudes	Subjective_ Norms	Destination _Image	Intention_ to_Visit	Perceived_ Control
Number of visits	1	.012	.078**	.051	.020	.011	.041	.041
Individual_Characteristics	.012	1	.282**	.512**	.536**	.593**	.567**	.552**
Risk_Perception	.078**	.282**	1	-.105**	.011	-.102**	-.060*	-.007
Attitudes	.051	.512**	-.105**	1	.755**	.808**	.775**	.770**
Subjective_Norms	.020	.536**	.011	.755**	1	.743**	.758**	.747**
Destination_Image	.011	.593**	-.102**	.808**	.743**	1	.793**	.750**
Intention_to_Visit	.041	.567**	-.060*	.775**	.758**	.793**	1	.786**
Perceived_Control	.041	.552**	-.007	.770**	.747**	.750**	.786**	1
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).								
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).								

Source: own elaboration based on own results

Table 18. Correlation analysis results for Israel only

	Number of visits	Individual_ Characteristics	Risk_ Perception	Attitudes	Subjective_ Norms	Destination _Image	Intention_ to_Visit	Perceived_ Control
Number of visits	1	.036	.074*	-.007	.090*	.032	.059	.058
Individual_Characteristics	.036	1	.227**	.572**	.614**	.608**	.623**	.549**
Risk_Perception	.074*	.227**	1	-.002	.085*	.034	.005	.046
Attitudes	-.007	.572**	-.002	1	.673**	.724**	.751**	.724**
Subjective_Norms	.090*	.614**	.085*	.673**	1	.707**	.683**	.647**
Destination_Image	.032	.608**	.034	.724**	.707**	1	.731**	.704**
Intention_to_Visit	.059	.623**	.005	.751**	.683**	.731**	1	.717**
Perceived_Control	.058	.549**	.046	.724**	.647**	.704**	.717**	1
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).								
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).								

Source: own elaboration based on own results

5.1.6 Analysis of the measurement model

In order to conduct the tests of hypothesis associated with the research, the final scales need to be constructed by integrating the scores of the multiple questions that compose each scale. A linear combination of the scores is often used for this purpose by either averaging or summing the scores. However, before doing that, the reliability of the scales needs to be tested using Cronbach's Alpha. A reliable scale needs to show a minimum Alpha of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2014). Table 19 below shows the results of the tests. The minimum calculated Alpha was 0.794 for Perceived Behavioural Control, which is still an acceptable level of reliability. Reliability was tried to be increased by excluding items from the Perceived Behavioural Control construct; however, the Alpha actually decreased to 0.742. Therefore, the items have been kept the same for the Perceived Behavioural Control construct. Thus, the items that compose each scale were averaged in order to conduct further tests.

Table 19. Reliability test results

RELIABILITY STATISTICS		
	Cronbach's Alpha	**N of Itens**
Individual Characteristics	0.926	19
Risk Perception	0.919	7
Attitudes	0.889	5
Subjective Norms	0.813	3
Perceived Control	0.794	3
Destination Image	0.914	9
Intention to Visit	0.836	3

Source: own elaboration based on own results

5.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

After the removal of the outliers detected previously, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted using SPSS AMOS software, which uses Maximum Likelihood (ML) algorithm to estimate the results. ML is the most common method used to estimate parameters in CFA because of its attractive statistical properties (i.e., asymptotic unbiasedness, normality, consistency, and maximal efficiency) (Li, 2016). After defining the model in the software and executing the analysis, four main phases were conducted to examine the validity of the measurement model: (1) assessment of model fit; (2) assessment of convergent validity; (3) assessment of internal consistency and (4) respecification of the model (if necessary). The statistics that were used to assess model fit and their rules of thumb are presented in Table 20.

Table 20. Model fit indices and rules of thumb

Fit index	Rules of thumb
Chi-square (χ^2)	Non-significant ($p < 0.05$)
Normed chi-square (χ^2/df)	The division between the chi-square value and the model's degrees of freedom should be less than 4.
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	RMSEA < 0.08
Standardized root mean residual (SRMR)	SRMR < 0.08
Comparative fit index (CFI)	CFI > 0.90
Normed fit index (NFI)	NFI > 0.90

Source: Hair et al., 2014

After the assessment of model fit, convergent validity and internal consistency were examined. Convergent validity refers to the "extent to which indicators of a specific construct converge or share a high proportion of variance in common" (Hair et al. 2014, p. 601), The indicators used to measure these types of validity are detailed below (Table 21).

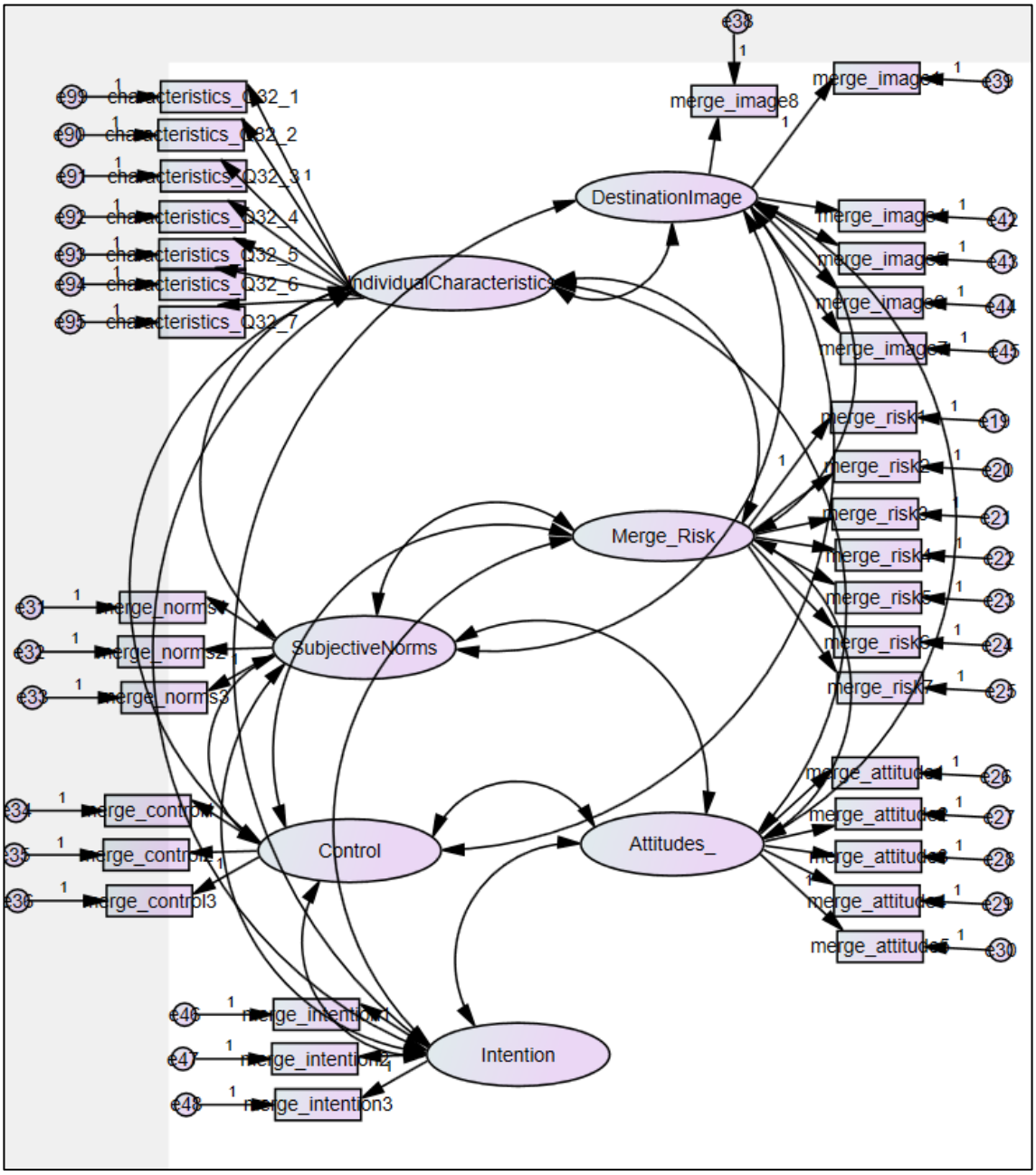
Table 21. Indicators of construct validity used in this report

Indicator of convergent validity	Definition	Rules of thumb
Factor loadings (λ)	Correlation between the original variables and the factors, and the key to understanding the nature of a particular factor. Squared factor loadings indicate what percentage of the variance in an original variable is explained by a factor.	In the case of high convergent validity, high one-factor loadings would indicate that they converge on a common point, the latent construct. At a minimum, all factor loadings must be statistically significant. Because a significant load can still have quite weak strength, a good rule of thumb is that standardized loading estimates should be 0.5 or higher and ideally 0.7 or higher.
AVE	A summary measure of convergence among a set of items representing a latent construct. It is the average percentage of variation explained (variance extracted) among the items of a construct.	An AVE of 0.5 or higher is a good rule of thumb, suggesting adequate convergence. An AVE of less than 0.5 indicates that, on average, more error remains in the items than the variance explained by the latent factor structure imposed on the measure.
Indicator of internal consistency	**Definition**	**Rules of thumb**
Construct Reliability	Measure of reliability and internal consistency of the measured variables representing a latent construct. Must be established before construct validity can be assessed. It is computed from the squared sum of factor loadings for each construct and the sum of the error variance terms for a construct.	0.7 or higher suggests good reliability. Reliability between 0.6 and 0.7 may be acceptable, provided that other indicators of a model's construct validity are good.

Source: Hair et al. (2014)

The first CFA model included all variables with their corresponding latent variables (constructs). The model did not achieve acceptable fit (χ^2 (968, N = 2077) = 15,501.64; $p < .001$; $\chi 2/df = 16.014$; RMSEA = 0.085; CFI = 0.783; NFI = 0.772). An examination of the model estimates suggests that some variables of the construct 'Individual Characteristics' which is novelty seeking behaviour display low factor loadings ($\lambda <$ 0.600). The variables that showed poor factor loadings were iteratively eliminated until a model with good fit was reached. The model achieved good fit (χ^2 (506, N = 2077) = 4,027.67; $p < .001$; $\chi 2/df = 7.960$; RMSEA = 0.058; CFI = 0.928; NFI = 0.919) when the following variables were kept to reflect the 'Individual Characteristics' construct: Q32_1, Q32_2, Q32_3, Q32_4, Q32_5, Q32_6 and Q32_7. The significant chi-square does not necessarily mean that the model did not achieve good fit as this indicator is sensitive to large sample sizes, which is the case of this study. A representation of the final CFA model is shown in Figure 14.

Figure 14. CFA model



Source: own elaboration based on own results

Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Composite Reliability (CR). AVE was calculated to examine convergent validity as recommended by Fornell and Larcker (1981), who established that its value should exceed 0.50. Composite reliability (CR) was calculated using the resulting factor loadings, as it is sometimes advocated as a more reliable form of measuring construct reliability than Cronbach's Alpha (Henseler and Sarstedt, 2013). Table 22 shows the factor loadings along with the corresponding AVE and CR of each construct.

Table 22. Constructs' Validity

Indicator (variable)		Construct	λ	AVE	CR
merge_risk1	<---	Merge_Risk	0.795	0.623	0.920
merge_risk2	<---	Merge_Risk	0.791		
merge_risk3	<---	Merge_Risk	0.838		
merge_risk4	<---	Merge_Risk	0.818		
merge_risk5	<---	Merge_Risk	0.766		
merge_risk6	<---	Merge_Risk	0.749		
merge_risk7	<---	Merge_Risk	0.765		
merge_attitude1	<---	Attitudes_	0.767	0.619	0.890
merge_attitude2	<---	Attitudes_	0.792		
merge_attitude3	<---	Attitudes_	0.789		
merge_attitude4	<---	Attitudes_	0.800		
merge_attitude5	<---	Attitudes_	0.784		
merge_norms3	<---	SubjectiveNorms	0.796	0.596	0.815
merge_norms2	<---	SubjectiveNorms	0.778		
merge_norms1	<---	SubjectiveNorms	0.740		
merge_control3	<---	Control	0.780	0.564	0.795
merge_control2	<---	Control	0.749		
merge_control1	<---	Control	0.723		
merge_image1	<---	DestinationImage	0.716	0.593	0.897
merge_image4	<---	DestinationImage	0.781		
merge_image5	<---	DestinationImage	0.768		
merge_image6	<---	DestinationImage	0.777		
merge_image7	<---	DestinationImage	0.794		
merge_image8	<---	DestinationImage	0.783		
merge_intention3	<---	Intention	0.790	0.635	0.839
merge_intention2	<---	Intention	0.802		
merge_intention1	<---	Intention	0.798		
characteristics_Q32_5	<---	IndividualCharacteristics	0.791	0.576	0.905
characteristics_Q32_4	<---	IndividualCharacteristics	0.766		
characteristics_Q32_3	<---	IndividualCharacteristics	0.780		
characteristics_Q32_2	<---	IndividualCharacteristics	0.782		
characteristics_Q32_6	<---	IndividualCharacteristics	0.669		
characteristics_Q32_7	<---	IndividualCharacteristics	0.765		
characteristics_Q32_1	<---	IndividualCharacteristics	0.754		

Source: own elaboration based on own results

As Table 22 shows, the coefficients were all acceptable (AVE > 0.500 and CR > 0.600), demonstrating that constructs were successfully validated. An AVE of 0.5 or higher is a good rule of thumb suggesting adequate convergence, and CR 0.7 or higher suggests good reliability (Hair et al. (, 2014).

An invariance test was executed to compare models for the two studied groups (Turkey and Israel). Table 23 below shows the output of a chi-square difference analysis. The results show that when fixing factor loadings for both models ('measurement weights' model), there was no significant decrease in model fit ($\chi^2 = 35.257$; $p = 0.132$), indicating that factor loadings are equal for both groups.

Table 23. Invariance test results

Nested Model Comparisons

Assuming model Unconstrained to be correct:

Model	DF	CMIN	P	NFI Delta-1	IFI Delta-2	RFI rho-1	TLI rho2
Measurement weights	27	35,257	,132	,001	,001	-,002	-,002
Structural covariances	55	160,862	,000	,003	,003	-,002	-,002
Measurement residuals	89	278,576	,000	,006	,006	-,003	-,003

Assuming model Measurement weights to be correct:

Model	DF	CMIN	P	NFI Delta-1	IFI Delta-2	RFI rho-1	TLI rho2
Structural covariances	28	125,606	,000	,002	,003	,000	,000
Measurement residuals	62	243,319	,000	,005	,005	-,001	-,001

Assuming model Structural covariances to be correct:

Model	DF	CMIN	P	NFI Delta-1	IFI Delta-2	RFI rho-1	TLI rho2
Measurement residuals	34	117,713	,000	,002	,002	-,001	-,001

Source: own elaboration based on own results

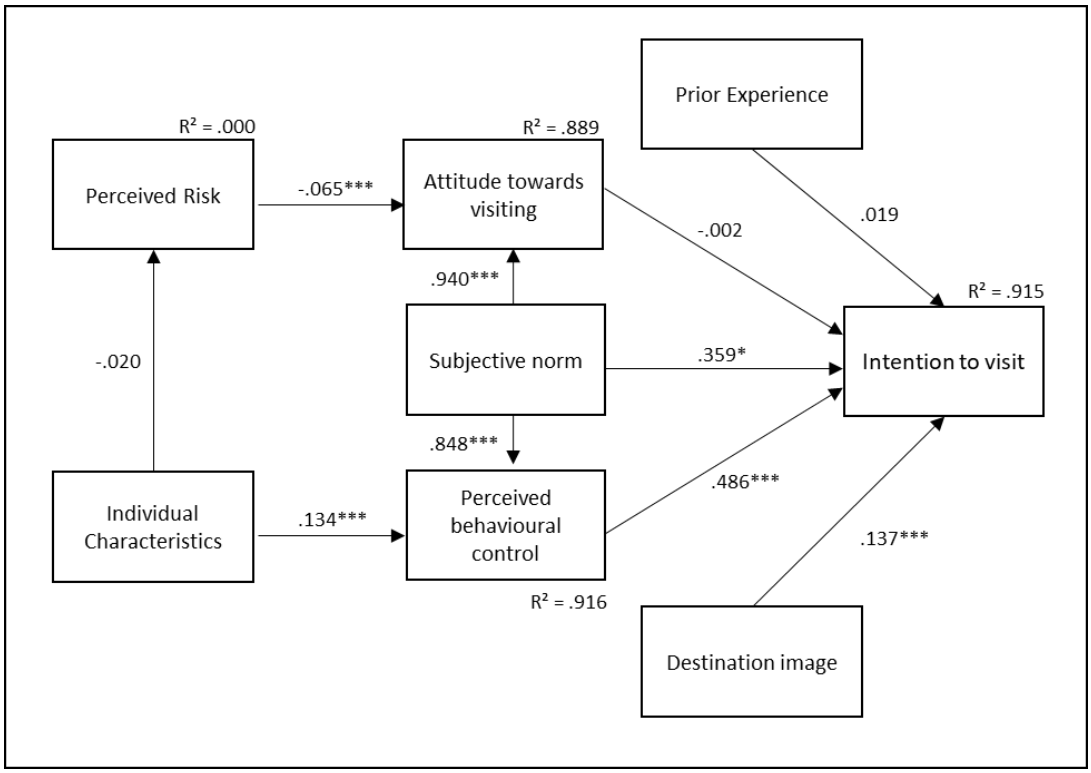
5.3 Structural models

After constructs were validated through CFA, the next step was to fit the structural models according to the conceptual model. The process was divided into three phases: (1) a model without moderator terms, (2) models that included moderators (interaction terms) to evaluate the moderating effect of destination image and prior experience, and (3) models for Turkey and Israel separately.

5.3.1 Model without moderators

The model showed good fit (χ^2 (548, N = 2077) = 4,438.15; $p < .001$; $\chi 2/df = 8.099$; RMSEA = 0.058; CFI = 0.921; NFI = 0.911). Figure 15 shows the structural model with standardized path coefficients and R-squares.

Figure 15. Standardized regression weights and explained variances of the structural model (N=2077)



*: p < 0.05
**: p < 0.01
***: p < 0.001

Source: own elaboration based on own results

91.5% of the variance of intention to visit is explained by the model ($R^2 = 0.915$). The strongest predictor is Perceived Behavioural Control ($\beta = 0.486$, $p < 0.001$), followed by Subjective Norms ($\beta = 0.359$, $p < 0.01$), and Destination Image ($\beta = 0.137$, $p < 0.001$). Attitudes and prior experience are not significant predictors of Intention to Travel. Subjective Norm has strong positive effects on both attitudes and perceived behavioural control, while Individual characteristics predict perceived behavioural control but not Perceived Risk. Nevertheless, Perceived Risk has a negative effect on attitudes ($\beta = -0.065$, $p < 0.001$).

5.3.2 Model with moderators

The test for the moderation effect was conducted using the residual centering approach (Steinmetz et al., 2011). In this approach, indicators of the latent variables are multiplied and then each original indicator is regressed on the product terms. The residuals from each regression model are saved on the data file, and the moderation model is then constructed. The latent moderator variable is created, and its indicators are the residuals resulting from all previous regression models. For example, when evaluating the moderating effect of destination image on the relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention, 18 product terms were created (five indicators from destination image, which were each multiplied by three indicators of perceived behavioural control). Then, 18 regression models were executed for the 18 product terms, which were treated as the dependent variable of the models. The independent variables, in all models, were the nine indicators of both variables together. The 18 residuals were saved and treated as indicators of the moderator latent variable on the structural model. If the estimated predictor coefficient forms the moderator latent variable and intention was significant, one would conclude that there is a significant moderation occurring.

To avoid models that are too complex with too many degrees of freedom, one structural model was conducted for each moderation test, resulting in 6 models in total (3 for destination image and 3 for perceived behavioural control). All models showed acceptable fits. Table 24 below shows the coefficients of each product term on intention.

Table 24. Moderation effects

Moderation	β	p
Prior Experience X Perceived Behavioural Control	-0.298	0.681
Prior Experience X Attitudes towards visiting	-0.015	0.353
Prior Experience X Subjective Norms	-0.004	0.995
Destination Image X Perceived Behavioural Control	-0.130	0.392
Destination Image X Attitudes Towards visiting	-0.038	0.009
Destination Image X Subjective Norms	-0.024	0.097

Source: own elaboration based on own results

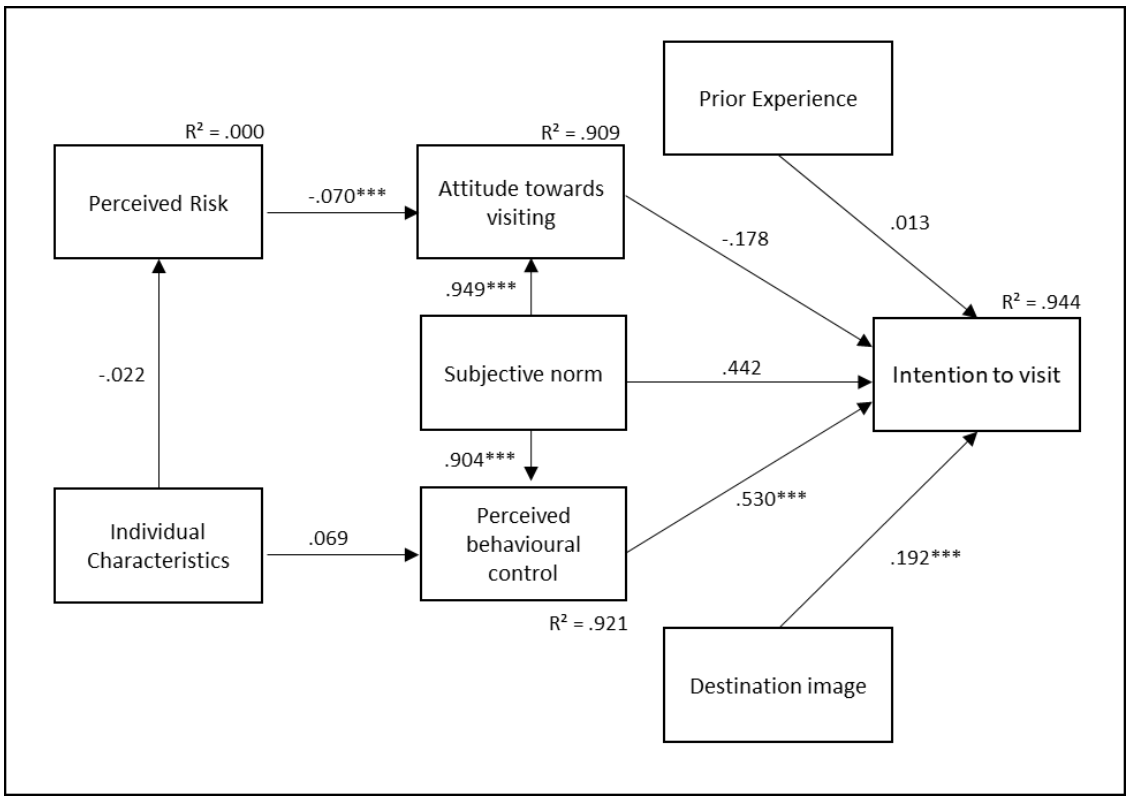
The only moderation that was significant ($p < 0.01$) was between destination image and attitudes, with a negative coefficient of -0.038. This means that the relationship between

attitudes and intention is moderated by destination image or depends on destination image. The negative sign suggests that a higher score of destination image makes the effect of attitudes on intention more negative. In other words, it strengthens the negative effect that attitudes might have on the intention to travel. It may also be interpreted as weakening a positive effect that attitudes might have on intention.

5.3.3 Individual country analysis

This section presents the results considering only responses regarding Turkey and Israel. For Turkey, the model showed good fit (χ^2 (548, N = 1359) = 3,132.75; p < .001; $\chi 2/df$ = 5.717; RMSEA = 0.059; CFI = 0.923; NFI = 0.908). The figure 16 below shows the path coefficients.

Figure 16. Standardized regression weights and explained variances of the structural model for Turkey (N=1359)



*: p < 0.05
**: p < 0.01
***: p < 0.001

Source: own elaboration based on own results

Perceived Behavioural Control and Destination Image were the only direct significant predictors of intention to visit Turkey. In addition, perceived risk showed a negative effect on attitudes. Individual Characteristics was not a significant predictor of perceived behavioural control.

With regards to the moderation effect of Prior Experience and Destination Image, Table 25 shows that the influence of attitudes on intention and subjective norms on intention depends on destination image. The moderator coefficient for norms is negative (-0.045), which indicates that high levels of destination image weaken the positive effect of norms on intention. Similarly, it also makes the effect of attitudes on intentions more negative. The other moderation effects were not significant.

Table 25. Moderation effects for Turkey

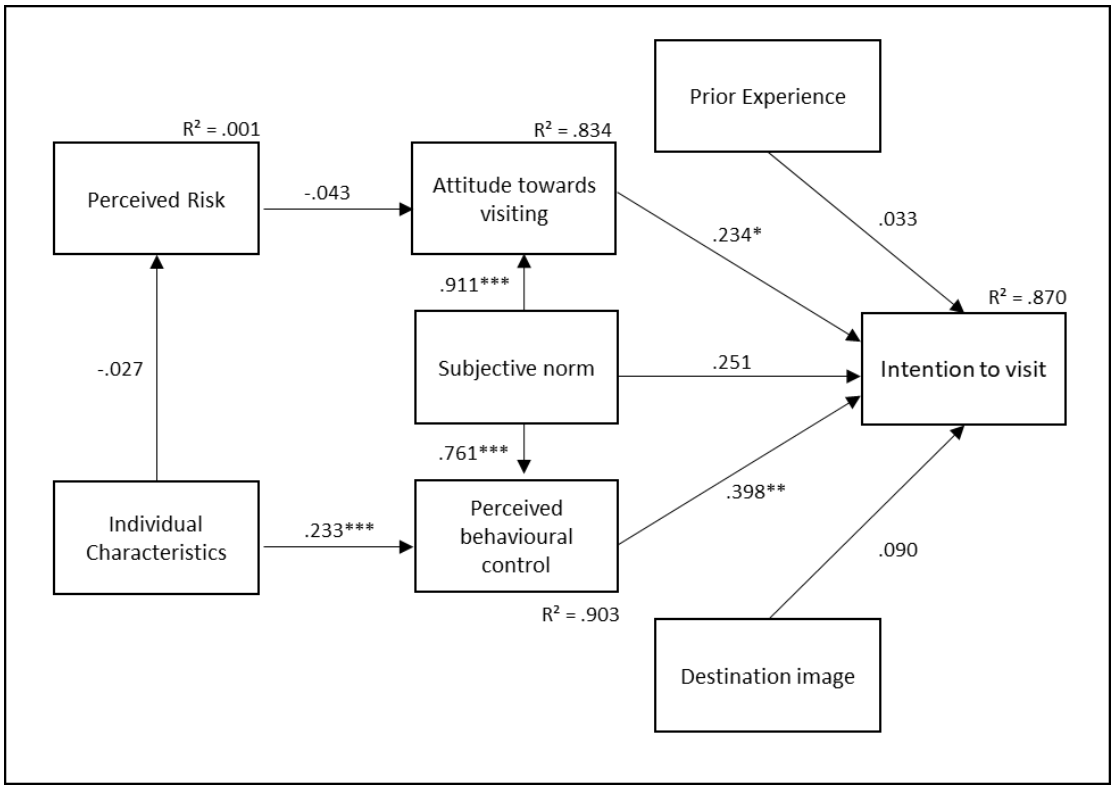
Moderation	β	p
Prior Experience X Perceived Behavioural Control	-0.001	0.979
Prior Experience X Attitudes Towards Visiting	0.003	0.685
Prior Experience X Subjective Norms	-0.003	0.995
Destination Image X Perceived Behavioural Control	-0.018	0.294
Destination Image X Attitudes Towards Visiting	-0.044	0.010
Destination Image X Subjective Norms	-0.045	0.010

Source: own elaboration based on own results

For Israel, the model did not show good fit but still acceptable fit (χ^2 (548, N = 718) = 2,315.20; p < .001; $\chi 2/df = 4.225$; RMSEA = 0.067; CFI = 0.889; NFI = 0.860). The path coefficients are shown in figure 17.

Some relationships are different from the model for Turkey. Destination image, for example, is not a significant predictor of intention to visit Israel, while it is a significant predictor for Turkey. Attitudes have a significant positive effect on the intention to visit Israel. Perceived risk no longer has a significant effect on attitudes, but individual characteristics have a significant positive effect on perceived behavioural control, which is not present for Turkey.

Figure 17. Standardized regression weights and explained variances of the structural model for Israel (N=718)



*: p < 0.05
**: p < 0.01
***: p < 0.001

Source: own elaboration based on own results

With respect to moderation, prior experience moderating the effect of perceived behavioural control on intention has almost achieved a maximum p-value of 0.05 to be considered significant at the 5% significance level. A p-value of 0.051 may not, however, be ignored. If a 10% significance level was considered instead, it could be considered a significant moderating effect (Table 26).

Table 26. Moderation effects for Israel

Moderation	β	p
Prior Experience X Perceived Behavioural Control	-0.095	0.051
Prior Experience X Attitudes Towards Visiting	-0.031	0.270
Prior Experience X Subjective Norms	-0.031	0.982
Destination Image X Perceived Behavioural Control	0.003	0.913
Destination Image X Attitudes Towards Visiting	-0.004	0.883
Destination Image X Subjective Norms	0.034	0.199

Source: own elaboration based on own results

Nested-Model Comparison analysis was performed to determine whether or not both groups (Israel and Turkey) show regression coefficients that are statistically different between each group. The output of the Chi-Square difference test is shown in the table below.

Table 27. The output of the Chi-Square difference test

Nested Model Comparisons

Assuming model Unconstrained to be correct:

Model	DF	CMIN	P	NFI Delta-1	IFI Delta-2	RFI rho-1	TLI rho2
Measurement weights	27	37,536	,085	,001	,001	-,002	-,002
Structural weights	37	64,637	,003	,001	,001	-,002	-,003
Structural covariances	43	77,226	,001	,002	,002	-,003	-,003
Structural residuals	48	1193,720	,000	,024	,024	,020	,020
Measurement residuals	82	1313,904	,000	,026	,027	,018	,019

Source: own elaboration based on own results

The significant result for the 'Structural weights' model shows that there is a significant change in model fit when regression coefficients are constrained to fixed values. In other words, there are some regression coefficients that are significantly different between the groups. In order to investigate what path coefficients are different, several models were executed with different path coefficients being constrained, while other parameters were freely estimated. The results of a chi-square difference test for all models are shown below in table 28.

The results show that, by constraining the 'Attitudes-Intention' regression coefficient, there is a significant change in model fit ($p = 0.003$), indicating that the regression coefficients between these two constructs are significantly different between both groups. In fact, the results shown in the above section had shown a substantial change in this coefficient when both groups were compared. The same conclusion can be drawn for 'Individual Characteristics – Perceived Behavioural Control' ($p = 0.007$), as the degree of this relationship is also significantly different when comparing models between Israel and Turkey. The other path coefficients, despite being slightly different between both groups

in numerical terms (as shown earlier), have not shown statistical significance on the chi-square difference tests.

Table 28. The output of the Chi-Square difference test for all models

Nested Model Comparisons

Assuming model Unconstrained to be correct:

Model	DF	CMIN	P	NFI Delta-1	IFI Delta-2	RFI rho-1	TLI rho2
Measurement weights	27	37,536	,085	,001	,001	-,002	-,002
Structural weights	37	64,637	,003	,001	,001	-,002	-,003
Structural covariances	43	77,226	,001	,002	,002	-,003	-,003
Structural residuals	48	1193,720	,000	,024	,024	,020	,020
Measurement residuals	82	1313,904	,000	,026	,027	,018	,019
Attitudes_Intention	1	8,582	,003	,000	,000	,000	,000
SubjectiveNorms_Intention	1	,399	,528	,000	,000	,000	,000
Control_Intention	1	,391	,532	,000	,000	,000	,000
DestinationImage_Intention	1	1,735	,188	,000	,000	,000	,000
RiskPerception_Attitudes	1	,415	,520	,000	,000	,000	,000
IndCharacteristics_Control	1	7,263	,007	,000	,000	,000	,000
IndCharacteristics_RiskPerception	1	,006	,939	,000	,000	,000	,000
SubjectiveNorms_Attitudes	1	,921	,337	,000	,000	,000	,000
SubjectiveNorms_Control	1	3,360	,067	,000	,000	,000	,000
PriorExperience_Intention	1	,008	,930	,000	,000	,000	,000

Source: own elaboration based on own results

5.4 Hypotheses test results and discussion

Hypotheses developed based on the conceptual model has been evaluated based on the value of the path coefficients and their significance level. Hypotheses were evaluated in two steps. First, hypotheses were evaluated for both countries together, followed by the evaluation of the hypotheses for Turkey and Israel separately to illustrate the comparative analysis. The summary of the hypothesis tests is illustrated in table 29.

Table 29. Summary of hypothesis tests

Hypothesis	**Conclusion**
H1: Higher perceived risk decreases the tourists' attitude toward visiting a conflict-ridden destination.	Confirmed

Source: own elaboration based on own results

Table 29. continued

H2: Tourists with a higher level of novelty-seeking behaviour perceive lower risk related to conflict-ridden destinations.	Rejected, there is no significant effect.
H3: Tourists with a higher level of novelty-seeking behaviour have a higher level of perceived behavioural control related to conflict-ridden destinations.	Confirmed
H4: Higher level of subjective norms of visiting conflict-ridden destinations affect perceived behavioural control positively.	Confirmed
H5: Higher level of subjective norms of visiting conflict-ridden destinations affect the attitude toward visiting positively.	Confirmed
H6: A higher level of perceived behavioural control has a positive effect on the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.	Confirmed
H7: More positive attitude towards visiting a conflict-ridden destination has a positive effect on the intention to visit.	Rejected, there is no significant effect.
H8: A higher level of subjective norms visiting conflict-ridden destinations affect the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations positively.	Confirmed
H9: Prior experience moderates the relationship between attitude towards visiting and intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.	Rejected, there is no significant effect.

Source: own elaboration based on own results

Table 29. continued.

H10: Prior experience moderates the relationship between subjective norms and intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.	Rejected, there is no significant effect.
H11: Prior experience moderates the relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations positively.	Rejected, there is no significant effect.
H12: Positive destination image moderates the relationship between attitude towards visiting and intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.	Confirmed, it strengthens the negative relationship.
H13: Positive destination image moderates the relationship between subjective norms and intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.	Rejected, there is no significant effect.
H14: Positive destination image moderates the relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.	Rejected, there is no significant effect.
H15: Positive destination image affect the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations positively.	Confirmed
H16: Prior experience affects the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations positively.	Rejected, there is no significant effect.

Source: own elaboration based on own results

According to the result of quantitative analysis, hypotheses developed on the basis of the conceptual model has been tested, and the following conclusions have been made.

Hypothesis H1 ($\beta = -0.065$, $p < 0.001$) has been accepted. The higher perceived risk decreases the tourists' attitude toward visiting a conflict-ridden destination. This result is consistent with the results of previous studies of Quintal et al. (2010) and Hsieh et al. (2016). These proven assumptions show that it is very crucial to take into account the negative effect of risk perception, especially in the case of conflict-ridden destinations, which are associated with a higher level of risk perception.

The hypothesis based on the individual characteristics H2 had been rejected, as there is no significant effect of the tourists with a higher level of novelty-seeking behaviour on perceived risk related to conflict-ridden destinations. These results are consistent with previous studies (Lee and Crompton, 1992; Lepp and Gibson, 2008). However, H3 ($\beta = 0.134$, $p < 0.001$) has been accepted. Tourists with a higher level of novelty-seeking behaviour showed a higher level of perceived behavioural control related to conflict-ridden destinations. These results are consistent with previous studies (Lee and Crompton, 1992; Lepp and Gibson, 2008). This interesting outcome may also suggest that while novelty-seeking behaviour cannot decrease the perceived risk, it strengthens perceived behavioural control, which is the significant predictor of the intention to visit, over the risks tourists may have related to conflict-ridden destinations.

Hypotheses concerning subjective norms H4 ($\beta = 0.848$, $p < 0.001$) and H5 ($\beta = 0.940$, $p < 0.001$) had been also accepted. This result is consistent with the studies of Quintal et al. (2010) and Hsieh et al. (2016). A higher level of subjective norms of visiting conflict-ridden destinations affected the perceived behavioural control and the attitude toward visiting positively.

Hypotheses related to the significant predictors of intention to visit H6 ($\beta = 0.486$, $p < 0.001$) , H8 ($\beta = 0.359$, $p < 0.05$) and H15 ($\beta = 0.137$, $p < 0.001$) has been accepted. A higher level of perceived behavioural control has a positive effect on the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations (H6), which is consistent with previous studies (Quintal et al., 2010; Hsieh et al., 2016; Lam and Hsu, 2006; and Sparks and Pan, 2009). A higher level of subjective norms approval of visiting conflict-ridden destinations affect the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations positively (H8), it is also consistent with previous studies (Quintal et al., 2010; Hsieh et al., 2016; Lam and Hsu, 2006; and Sparks and Pan, 2009). A positive destination image affects the intention to visit conflict-ridden

destinations positively (H15). This is consistent with the findings of Park et al. (2016). Perceived behavioural control is the most significant predictor of the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations, followed by the destination image and subjective norms.

However, H7 was rejected, and we should accept that attitude towards visiting has no significant effect on the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations. This finding is inconsistent with the studies of Quintal et al. (2010) and Hsieh et al. (2016), however consistent with studies of Lam and Hsu (2006) and Sparks and Pan (2009). The hypothesis related to prior experience, H9, also has been rejected as the prior experience has no significant effect on the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations as well, which is inconsistent with the study of Lam and Hsu (2006).

Results for hypotheses related to moderating effects showed that only H12 ($\beta = -0.038$, $p < 0.009$) is acceptable, while H13 and H14 have been rejected. This means that the relationship between attitude towards visiting and intention to visit is moderated by destination image or depends on destination image. This is consistent with the study of Chen and Peng (2018). The negative sign suggests that the score of destination image makes the effect of attitudes on intention more negative. It strengthens the negative effect that attitudes might have on the intention to travel, or in other words, destination weakens the effect of attitudes towards visiting on the intention to visit conflict-ridden destination. However, we should also note the moderation effect coefficient is very small despite its significance, and addition attitudes towards visiting have no significant effect on the intention to visit, which leads to the conclusion that moderation effects should not be considered significant. In addition, hypotheses related moderation effect of prior experience, H9, H10, H11 has been rejected as they have no significant effect, which is inconsistent with the results of Hsieh et al. (2016).

Regarding the individual analysis of hypotheses for Turkey and Israel revealed one very important difference between the two groups. H15, destination image was the significant predictor of intention to visit for both groups together, and also for Turkey separately. However, the destination image is not a significant predictor of intention to visit Israel. This may be related to Turkey's place among the top 10 tourism destinations and also the number of tourist arrivals, while Israel is lagging behind for these indicators.

The summary of the hypothesis tests for Turkey only revealed two main differences Hypothesis ‘H8: A higher level of subjective norms of visiting conflict-ridden destinations affect the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations positively' has been rejected for Turkey only while it had a significant effect on the whole sample. However, hypothesis ‘H13: Positive destination image moderates the relationship between subjective norms and intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations’ has been confirmed for Turkey while it had no significant effect for the whole sample.

The summary of the hypothesis tests for Israel only revealed that slightly more differences than Turkey. Hypothesis ‘H1: Higher perceived risk decreases the tourists’ attitude toward visiting a conflict-ridden destination’ has been rejected while it was accepted for the whole sample and Tukey. However, hypotheses ‘H7: More positive attitude towards visiting a conflict-ridden destination has a positive effect on the intention to visit and ‘H11: Prior experience moderates the relationship between perceived behavioural control and intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations positively’ has been accepted. In addition, hypotheses ‘H12: Positive destination image moderates the relationship between attitude towards visiting and intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations’, ‘H13: Positive destination image moderates the relationship between subjective norms and intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations’ and ‘H15: Positive destination image affect the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations positively’ has been rejected with no significant effect.

6. The summary of results and conclusions

This doctoral thesis aimed to investigate the effect of perceived risk on the intention to travel in conflict-ridden destinations. The conceptual model has been developed based on a thorough literature review extended on risk perception, individual characteristics of tourists, theory of planned behaviour, destination image, prior experience and conflict-ridden destinations. Theory of planned behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991) has been extended by additional constructs risk perception, individual characteristics (novelty-seeking behaviour), destination image and prior experience. This model is the first in the tourism literature incorporating risk perception, individual characteristics (novelty-seeking behaviour), destination image and prior experience in a single model.

The main results of the current study confirmed the assumed relationships between perceived risk, individual characteristics (novelty-seeking behaviour), destination image, prior experience and theory of planned behaviour (TPB) constructs. Most of the results were consistent with previous studies (Quintal et al., 2010; Hsieh et al., 2016; Lam and Hsu, 2006; Sparks and Pan, 2009, Lee and Crompton, 1992; and Lepp and Gibson, 2008). The results suggested that perceived risk, individual characteristics, and destination image are distinct constructs that had a significant impact on Ajzen's (1991) TPB model. Results also suggested that subjective norms influenced both perceived behavioural control, attitude towards visiting conflict-ridden destinations and intention to visit. In addition, perceived behavioural control also influenced the intention to visit, while attitudes towards visiting had no significant impact on intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations. In terms of moderation effects, destination image only had a significant moderation effect on the relationship between attitudes towards visiting and intention to visit.

Results show that perceived risk negatively influences attitude towards visiting conflict-ridden destinations. However, individual characteristics (novelty-seeking behaviour) has no significant effect on perceived risk; however, novelty-seeking behaviour positively influences the perceived behavioural control. The individual country analysis shows that for Turkey, novelty-seeking behaviour has no significant effect on perceived behavioural control, but it is the opposite for Israel.

Subjective norms and perceived behavioural control both are significant positive predictors of intentions to visit conflict-ridden destinations. The individual country analysis shows a slight difference where only perceived behavioural control has a significant positive effect on the intention to visit Turkey, while for Israel, perceived behavioural control and attitudes toward visiting are the significant positive predictors.

Destination image is also a significant positive predictor of intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations. In terms of individual country analysis, destination image has a stronger significant positive effect on the intention to visit Turkey. However, the destination image has no significant effect on the intention to visit Israel.

Moderation analysis revealed that destination image has a negative moderation effect on the relationship between attitudes towards visiting and intention to visit. Analysis of moderators showed the destination image also moderates the effect of subjective norms along with the attitudes towards visiting with negatively. Prior experience had a moderation effect only for Israel between perceived behaviour control and intention to visit with a negative coefficient.

6.1 Theoretical and practical implications

The results of this thesis shed new light on existing literature as it explores the factors predicting the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations associated with a high level of risk perceptions that offers implications for researchers and practitioners.

My thesis tested the extended theory of planned behaviour (TPB) in a new context of conflict-ridden destinations by new constructs such as perceived risks, individual characteristics (novelty-seeking behaviour), destination image and prior experience. The revealed distinct effects of perceived risk, individual characteristics and destination image that provides the researcher with an opportunity to identify the ways to operationalize them for further research and different dimensions.

As expected, perceived risk negatively influenced the attitude towards visiting conflict-ridden destinations. However, the attitude towards visiting was not a significant predictor

of the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations. The important academic contribution of my thesis is that novelty-seeking behaviour affecting the perceived behavioural control significantly, and perceived behavioural control was the most significant predictor of intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations. This provides new insights into the implications of TPB models and frameworks to study tourist's behaviour. Finding suggests that higher levels of novelty-seeking behaviour positively influences perceived behavioural control that is supported by studies of Lee and Crompton (1992) and Lepp and Gibson (2008). However, studies learning the effect of risk perception on the intention to travel (Quintal et al., 2010; Hsieh et al., 2016) overlooked the importance of individual characteristics as an influencing factor of TPB. However, novelty-seeking behaviour showed no significant effect on risk perception. This can be explained that risk perceptions associated with travel to a particular destination or region are not affected by the level of novelty-seeking behaviour (Lepp and Gibson, 2008). Hence, risk perceptions regarding conflict-ridden destinations are not affected by individual characteristics; however, individual characteristics significantly and positively affects the perceived behavioural control.

Subjective norm also was the significant predictor of intention visit, while also positively influences perceived behavioural control. This is added contribution to previous studies (Lam and Hsu, 2006; Sparks and Pan, 2009), which showed the subject norm is not a strong predictor of intention to visit. Additionally, this thesis revealed a significant prediction effect in a new context, in conflict-ridden destinations, which is associated with high-risk perception, which has been a limitation to existing studies (Quintal et al., 2010; Hsieh et al., 2016).

Another contribution of this study integrating destination image as the predicting construct of intention to visit which is the pioneering addition to the extended TPB model in tourism which is not present in tourism literature (Quintal et al., 2010; Hsieh et al., 2016). Destination image had a direct impact on the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations, which was not present in previous studies (Quintal et al., 2010; Hsieh et al., 2016). Additionally, this enhanced the findings of Park et al. (2016) in a new context of conflict-ridden destinations with high-risk perception levels. Moderating effects of prior experience and destination image is another contribution of my thesis. While the study revealed that prior experience and destination image has no significant moderation effect

on the main model, individual tests for countries showed some differences suggesting that they may have distinct effects depending on different contexts. This can be associated with some constructs that may show nonsignificant effects depending on one destination or region to another one (Lepp and Gibson, 2008). Considering the countries used in the research that is conflict-ridden destinations and high-risk perception levels, destination image and prior experience did not show moderation effects. The individual country analysis showed the destination image might positively moderate the relationship between subjective norm and intention to visit. Turkey showed significantly higher scores on destination image than Israel. This explains the effect of subjective norms on the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations with a positive destination image is more positive than other destinations. This finding is also an additional theoretical contribution of this thesis showing differences in prediction effects of various constructs on the intention to visit distinct countries. Hence, the findings of this thesis revealed direct and indirect (moderator) effect of destination image on the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations with the single model that was not present in previous studies (Quintal et al., 2010; Hsieh et al., 2016; Park et al. 2016; Lepp and Gibson, 2008)

Along with the academic contributions results of this thesis offer practical implications for travel practitioners such as destination management organizations (DMOs), tourism agencies, and other market players providing accommodation and other tourism services. DMO's and travel agencies should adapt their strategies to target tourism products or the process of forming a tourism product. Based on the above, the suggested conceptual model was able to capture the influence factors of travel intention into a conflict-ridden destination in a comprehensive way. One of them is the individual characteristics of the tourists. Results suggested that tourists with novelty-seeking behaviour have a higher level of perceived behavioural control that is the most significant predictor of intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations. This is a pioneering contribution that was not present in previous studies (Quintal et al., 2010; Hsieh et al., 2016; Lam and Hsu, 2006; Sparks and Pan, 2009, Lee and Crompton, 1992; Lepp and Gibson, 2008). This knowledge can be used for targeting tourism products or can be used in the process of forming a tourism product. Eventually, it provides implications on how travel intention can be increased in conflict-ridden destinations. First, individuals characterized by novelty-seeking behaviour, coming from less risk-avoiding cultures, can be targeted since they have

higher perceived behavioural control and have a higher level of intention to visit destinations associated with a higher perceived-risk level.

Another very significant finding is that destination image has a significant predicting factor on the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations. In addition, the individual country analysis showed that intention to visit a destination with a lower level of destination image was not significantly affected by this factor. For a destination with a higher score of destination image, intention to visit was significantly affected by the image factor. This suggests that responsible and positive communication related to the destination image is extremely important to increase the intention to travel to destinations associated with high-risk perceptions. DMOs should manage a destination's image and result in a safe and secure destination image to gain more positive travel intentions to a conflict-ridden destination (Isaac and Velden, 2018). Results showed that in a destination with a higher score of destination image, intention to visit was significantly affected by the image factor. DMOs should work on strategies to guarantee safety for tourists and communicate it clearly to potential tourists to avoid uncertainty in their travel decision-making (Isaac and Bedem, 2021). Hence, a more positive destination image increases the travel intention to conflict-ridden destinations.

Furthermore, travel practitioners may identify specific market segments for targeting with understanding tourist's risk perception profiles. For example, different travel products and communication methods can be designed for distinct segment groups, and such authentic travel experiences can be interesting for people novelty-seeking characteristics, also intended to visit can be increased with a more positive destination image.

6.2 Limitations and future research

This thesis has some limitations that can be addressed by future research. Data collection was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic, which came along which travel restrictions. Hsieh et al. (2016) suggested that data collection timing (length, season) may affect the results. Considering the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic future researchers may use different timing for their studies when there are no travel restrictions to obtain more comprehensive results.

Other limitations of this study were that the non-significance of the main effect of attitudes towards visiting on intention made it challenging to interpret moderation results destination image. The main effect of attitudes towards visiting on the intention to visit is negative but not significant. Therefore, we could not really interpret the exact effect that moderation is producing on the main estimate. Hence, it leaves an avenue for future researchers to test moderation effects destination image and prior experience in a different context. In addition, the model tested only moderation effects of destination image and prior experience on the relationship between core constructs of the TPB model. However, the relationships of added constructs, such as perceived risk and individual characteristics, should also be studied. In addition, a high proportion of the population in our sample had no experience with the destination, and future studies may consider using a population only who has prior experience with the destination to enhance the understanding of the effect of prior experience on the intention to visit conflict-ridden destinations.

The current study was also limited to Turkey and Israel only, which is associated with higher risk perceptions. Applying the proposed studying destinations with relatively low-risk perceptions would improve our understanding of individual characteristics, and destination image shows the same significant predicting effects on intention to visit. In addition, future studies may consider segmenting the sample into a population of individualist cultures and collectivist cultures. Quintal et al. (2010) also suggested that the comparison of travel risk across diverse countries or regions will enhance the understanding of individual and collective consumer behaviour. This will enhance the understanding of the effect of individual characteristics on the intention to visit.

7. References

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9. Appendices

Appendix 1. Survey questionnaire

Q1 This survey is part of a research project which aims to explore and understand how travel intention to **Turkey or Israel** is affected by various factors. The data collected through this survey will be used only for research purposes. We kindly ask you to contribute to our research by answering the following questions in the survey.

Due to COVID-19 pandemic travelling has been limited and it may affect how we may travel in the near future. Therefore, we kindly ask you to **reflect on your travel behavior before the pandemic** when you answer the questions.

10 survey participants will win **a $20 gift card from amazon.com.** Participation in the draw is voluntary. Please submit your email address at the end of the survey if you wish to win the gift card. We will send the gift cards by email after the completion of the survey.

Q2 Are you planning to travel abroad after the COVID-19 travel restrictions are lifted for leisure purposes?

- ○ Yes (1)
- ○ No (2)

Q3 Which one of the following countries you are more likely to visit in near future for leisure purposes?

- ○ Turkey (1)
- ○ Israel (2)

Q14 How many times have you visited Turkey? Please answer "0" if you have never been to Turkey.

Q7 The following questions ask about your perceived risks regarding travelling to Turkey. Please respond to each question using the scale below; for each question, select the answer that best reflects your response. Please answer openly and honestly, there are no right or wrong answers.

Q8 **To what extent do you agree to be exposed to the following risks during travel to Turkey?**

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
Possibility of physical danger or accidents (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Possibility of becoming involved in the political turmoil (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Possibility of disappointment with the travel experience (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Possibility of dissatisfaction with travel experience (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Possibility of disapproval by friends/family/associates (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Possibility of being involved in a terrorist act (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Possibility that travel experience will take too much time or will waste time (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Turkey: Risk Perception

Start of Block: Turkey: Attitude

Q11 **Please evaluate your feelings about visiting Turkey.**

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
I think visiting Turkey would be enjoyable (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I think visiting Turkey would be positive (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I think visiting Turkey would be fun (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I think visiting Turkey would be pleasant (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I think visiting Turkey would be favorable (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Turkey: Attitude

Start of Block: Turkey: Subjective Norms

Q12 **Please evaluate the attitude of other people to your destination choice for travel.**

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
Most people I know would choose Turkey as a travel destination (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
People who are important to me would think I should visit Turkey (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
People who are important to me would approve of my visit to Turkey (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Turkey: Subjective Norms

Start of Block: Turkey: Perceived behavioral control

Q13 **Please evaluate to what degree you can make a decision to travel to Turkey.**

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
Travelling to Turkey is completely up to me (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
If I wanted, I could easily travel to Turkey from now on (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have resources, time, and opportunities to travel to Turkey (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Turkey: Perceived behavioral control

Start of Block: Turkey: Destination Image

Q16 **Please evaluate the following statements about Turkey as a leisure tourism destination.**

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
Turkey has pleasant weather (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Turkey is safe and stable (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Turkey has a good quality of life (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Turkey has a prosperous tourism industry (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Turkey has adequate tourism infrastructure (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Turkey has appealing local cuisine (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Turkey has a variety of unique attractions (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Turkey is rich in cultural heritage (8)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Turkey is a good place for shopping (9)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Turkey: Destination Image

Start of Block: Turkey: Intention

Q17 **Please evaluate your intention to visit Turkey.**

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
I am willing to visit Turkey in the near future (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I plan to visit Turkey in the near future (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I will expend effort on visiting Turkey in the near future (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Turkey: Intention

Start of Block: Israel: prior experience

*

Q23 How many times have you visited Israel? Please answer "0" if you have never been to Israel

_____

End of Block: Israel: prior experience

Start of Block: Israel: Risk Perception

Q18 The following questions ask about your perceived risks regarding travelling to Israel. Please respond to each question using the scale below; for each question, select the answer that best reflects your response. Please answer openly and honestly, there are no right or wrong answers.

Q19 **To what extent do you agree to be exposed to the following risks during travel to Israel?**

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
Possibility of physical danger or accidents (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Possibility of becoming involved in the political turmoil (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Possibility of disappointment with the travel experience (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Possibility of dissatisfaction with travel experience (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Possibility of disapproval by friends/family/associates (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Possibility of being involved in a terrorist act (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Possibility that travel experience will take too much time or will waste time (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Israel: Risk Perception

Start of Block: Israel: Attitude

Q20 **Please evaluate your feelings about visiting Israel.**

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
I think visiting Israel would be enjoyable (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I think visiting Israel would be positive (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I think visiting Israel would be fun (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I think visiting Israel would be pleasant (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I think visiting Israel would be favorable (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Israel: Attitude

Start of Block: Israel: Subjective Norms

Q21 **Please evaluate the attitude of other people to your destination choice for travel.**

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
Most people I know would choose Israel as a travel destination (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
People who are important to me would think I should visit Israel (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
People who are important to me would approve of my visit to Israel (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Israel: Subjective Norms

Start of Block: Israel: Perceived behavioral control

Q22 **Please evaluate to what degree you can make a decision to travel to Israel.**

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
Travelling to Israel is completely up to me (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
If I wanted, I could easily travel to Israel from now on (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have resources, time, and opportunities to travel to Israel (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Israel: Perceived behavioral control

Start of Block: Israel: Destination Image

Q24 **Please evaluate the following statements about Israel as a leisure tourism destination.**

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
Israel has pleasant weather (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Israel is safe and stable (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Israel has a good quality of life (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Israelhas a prosperous tourism industry (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Israel has adequate tourism infrastructure (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Israel has appealing local cuisine (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Israel has a variety of unique attractions (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Israel is rich in cultural heritage (8)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Israel is a good place for shopping (9)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Israel: Destination Image

Start of Block: Israel: Intention

Q25 **Please evaluate your intention to visit Israel.**

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
I am willing to visit Israel in the near future (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I plan to visit Israel in the near future (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I will expend effort on visiting Israel in the near future (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

End of Block: Israel: Intention

Start of Block: Individual characteristics

Q9 The following questions ask about your personal preferences regarding travelling. Please respond to each question using the scale below; for each question, select the answer that best reflects your response. Please answer openly and honestly, there are no right or wrong answers.

Q10 **To what extent do you agree with the following statements?**

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
I sometimes like to do things on vacation that a little frightening (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I enjoy doing "daring" activities while on vacation (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Sometimes it is fun to be a little scared on vacation (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I enjoy experiencing a sense of danger on a vacation trip (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would like to be on a raft in the middle of a wild river at the time of the spring floodwaters (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I enjoy activities that offer thrills (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I seek adventure on my vacation (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Q32 To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
I want to experience new and different things on my vacation (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I want to experience customs and cultures different from those in my own environment on vacation (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I enjoy the change of environment which allows me to experience something new on vacation (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
My ideal vacation involves looking at things I have not seen before (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I want to be a sense of discovery involved as part of my vacation (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I like to travel to adventurous places (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

I feel a powerful urge to explore the unknown on vacation (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Q33 To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat disagree (5)	Disagree (6)	Strongly disagree (7)
I want to travel to relieve boredom (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have to go on vacation from time to time to avoid getting into a rut. (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I don’t like to plan a vacation trip in detail because it takes away some the unexpectedness (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I like vacations that are unpredictable (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would like to take off on a trip with no preplanned routes in my mind (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Q4 How old are you?

_____

Q6 In which country do you currently reside?

▼ Afghanistan (1) ... Zimbabwe (1357)

Q29 What is the highest level of school you have completed or the highest degree you have received?

- ○ Less than high school degree (1)
- ○ High school graduate (2)
- ○ Bachelor's degree (3)
- ○ Master's degree (4)
- ○ Doctoral degree (5)

Q31 What is your gender?

- ○ Male (1)
- ○ Female (2)
- ○ Prefer not to say (3)

Q26 Please submit your email if you would like to participate in the draw to win **$20 GIFT CARD from amazon.com.** If not you may skip this part.

_____

Appendix 2. Background statistics

Table: Descriptives

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Number of visits	2169	.00	65.00	1.2596	3.92332	9.589	.053	117.954	.105
Individual_Characteristics	2169	1.63	7.00	4.8995	.90783	.135	.053	-.593	.105
Risk_Perception	2169	1.00	7.00	4.0782	1.32852	-.225	.053	-.451	.105
Attitudes	2169	2.00	7.00	5.4265	.99931	-.285	.053	-.739	.105
Subjective_Norms	2169	1.67	7.00	5.3359	1.03928	-.300	.053	-.508	.105
Destination_Image	2169	2.00	7.00	5.2711	.95993	-.214	.053	-.762	.105
Intention_to_Visit	2169	1.67	7.00	5.4949	1.00852	-.334	.053	-.582	.105
Perceived_Control	2169	1.67	7.00	5.4524	1.01577	-.350	.053	-.526	.105
Valid N (listwise)	2169								

Table: Pearson correlation output for total sample

Correlations

		Number of visits	Individual_Characteristics	Risk_Perception	Attitudes	Subjective_Norms	Destination_Image	Intention_to_Visit	Perceived_Control
Number of visits	Pearson Correlation	1	.024	.072**	.009	.047*	.011	.041	.041
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.269	<.001	.661	.028	.611	.054	.055
	N	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169
Individual_Characteristics	Pearson Correlation	.024	1	.263**	.530**	.561**	.594**	.585**	.550**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.269		<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001
	N	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169
Risk_Perception	Pearson Correlation	.072**	.263**	1	-.080**	.026	-.071**	-.043*	.006
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001		<.001	.234	.001	.043	.793
	N	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169
Attitudes	Pearson Correlation	.009	.530**	-.080**	1	.727**	.782**	.767**	.755**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.661	<.001	<.001		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169
Subjective_Norms	Pearson Correlation	.047*	.561**	.026	.727**	1	.732**	.732**	.712**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.028	<.001	.234	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169
Destination_Image	Pearson Correlation	.011	.594**	-.071**	.782**	.732**	1	.772**	.734**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.611	<.001	.001	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169
Intention_to_Visit	Pearson Correlation	.041	.585**	-.043*	.767**	.732**	.772**	1	.764**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054	<.001	.043	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169
Perceived_Control	Pearson Correlation	.041	.550**	.006	.755**	.712**	.734**	.764**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.055	<.001	.793	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169	2169

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table: Pearson correlation output for Turkey

Correlations

		Number of visits	Individual_Characteristics	Risk_Perception	Attitudes	Subjective_Norms	Destination_Image	Intention_to_Visit	Perceived_Control
Number of visits	Pearson Correlation	1	.012	.078**	.051	.020	.011	.041	.041
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.662	.003	.056	.441	.674	.123	.125
	N	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420
Individual_Characteristics	Pearson Correlation	.012	1	.282**	.512**	.536**	.593**	.567**	.552**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.662		<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001
	N	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420
Risk_Perception	Pearson Correlation	.078**	.282**	1	-.105**	.011	-.102**	-.060*	-.007
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	<.001		<.001	.687	<.001	.024	.779
	N	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420
Attitudes	Pearson Correlation	.051	.512**	-.105**	1	.755**	.808**	.775**	.770**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.056	<.001	<.001		<.001	.000	<.001	<.001
	N	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420
Subjective_Norms	Pearson Correlation	.020	.536**	.011	.755**	1	.743**	.758**	.747**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.441	<.001	.687	<.001		<.001	<.001	<.001
	N	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420
Destination_Image	Pearson Correlation	.011	.593**	-.102**	.808**	.743**	1	.793**	.750**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.674	<.001	<.001	.000	<.001		<.001	<.001
	N	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420
Intention_to_Visit	Pearson Correlation	.041	.567**	-.060*	.775**	.758**	.793**	1	.786**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.123	<.001	.024	<.001	<.001	<.001		<.001
	N	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420
Perceived_Control	Pearson Correlation	.041	.552**	-.007	.770**	.747**	.750**	.786**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.125	<.001	.779	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	
	N	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420	1420

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table: Pearson correlation output for Israel

Correlations

		Number of visits	Individual_Characteristics	Risk_Perception	Attitudes	Subjective_Norms	Destination_Image	Intention_to_Visit	Perceived_Control
Number of visits	Pearson Correlation	1	.036	.074*	-.007	.090*	.032	.059	.058
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.331	.043	.846	.014	.378	.108	.113
	N	749	749	749	749	749	749	749	749
Individual_Characteristics	Pearson Correlation	.036	1	.227**	.572**	.614**	.608**	.623**	.549**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.331		<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001
	N	749	749	749	749	749	749	749	749
Risk_Perception	Pearson Correlation	.074*	.227**	1	-.002	.085*	.034	.005	.046
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.043	<.001		.950	.020	.355	.888	.206
	N	749	749	749	749	749	749	749	749
Attitudes	Pearson Correlation	-.007	.572**	-.002	1	.673**	.724**	.751**	.724**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.846	<.001	.950		<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001
	N	749	749	749	749	749	749	749	749
Subjective_Norms	Pearson Correlation	.090*	.614**	.085*	.673**	1	.707**	.683**	.647**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014	<.001	.020	<.001		<.001	<.001	<.001
	N	749	749	749	749	749	749	749	749
Destination_Image	Pearson Correlation	.032	.608**	.034	.724**	.707**	1	.731**	.704**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.378	<.001	.355	<.001	<.001		<.001	<.001
	N	749	749	749	749	749	749	749	749
Intention_to_Visit	Pearson Correlation	.059	.623**	.005	.751**	.683**	.731**	1	.717**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.108	<.001	.888	<.001	<.001	<.001		<.001
	N	749	749	749	749	749	749	749	749
Perceived_Control	Pearson Correlation	.058	.549**	.046	.724**	.647**	.704**	.717**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.113	<.001	.206	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	
	N	749	749	749	749	749	749	749	749

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).