University of Surrey
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The Effects of Terrorism on the
Decision-Making Process of Tourists

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A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of
the PhD degree

2003
ABSRACT

This PhD analysed the effects of terrorism on tourism markets, examining the various factors that have limited the growth of the industry in those destinations affected. It focused primarily on the decision-making process of tourists in an attempt to ascertain if attitudes vary between different segments of tourists. It also analysed which attributes consumers rate as important in selecting holiday destinations to establish how important terrorism and the resulting factors are in the consumer’s decision-making process. Finally, research was carried out to understand how the media influence consumer perceptions of destinations affected by terrorism.

After a comprehensive review of previous research, primary research was carried out using both qualitative and quantitative means. A quantitative stratified random sample of 314 respondents formed the most salient source of primary research undertaken.

The findings found overall that respondents rated the attribute of safety as very important. Only the factors of price/ value for money and climate were rated higher, and then only marginally. From the eleven independent variables tested for differences in the importance attached to the attribute of safety, seven were found to be statistically significant in the differences they showed. The most significant variable was the level of education of respondents. Other variables found to be statistically significant were gender, the presence of children in a household, age of those children in the household, general safety awareness levels and type of holiday most commonly undertaken by respondents.

Only 26.4% of respondents indicated that they had visited a destination affected by terrorist activity. Variables of gender, occupation and education were found to be significant personal characteristics when looking at the differences in visitation patterns. Just over half (58%) of respondents who had not previously visited an affected destination stated that they would consider visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity. Again occupation and education were found to be influential variables in the attitude towards visitation. The final aspect examined in order to gauge the affects of terrorism on holiday decision-making was to ascertain how long respondents would wait before considering visiting a destination that had been effected by terrorist activity in the past ten years. The results indicated that 55% of respondents would consider visiting a destination within two years. This figure increases to nearly 90% for respondents who would consider a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity within four years. There were much smaller numbers of respondents who would visit straight away (7.9%) or who would wait over five years (11%). Statistically significant differences were found between respondents depending on their gender and whether there were children in the household.

Finally respondents’ perceptions towards the news media and their willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity were investigated. As one would expect, those respondents who agreed most with the statement that adverse media reports of destinations affected by terrorism put them off visiting were more likely to be negative in their willingness to visit affected destinations.
DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis has been composed by myself and has not been presented or accepted in any previous application for a degree. The work of which this is a record, has been carried out by myself unless otherwise stated and where the work is mine, it reflects personal views and values. All quotations have been distinguished by quotation marks and all sources of information have been acknowledged by means of references including those of the Internet.
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my supervisor Prof. Dick Butler for his guidance and help throughout this research and for his time, effort and expertise in the completion of this work. I would also like to acknowledge the non-academic staff that helped in the administrative aspects of my research and all my colleagues at London South Bank University.

I would like to express my thanks to all the participants in Portsmouth, England that took part in the survey. The response rate of nearly 40% was higher than initially expected. Thank you for your contribution and devoting your free time in completing the questionnaire. Special thanks also to those participants who took part in the focus group.

I would like to say a big thank you to those friends who have encouraged me throughout this research, you know who you are. Special thanks to JC and Nick ‘the Greek’, who both were positive influences throughout, your encouragement was much appreciated.

Finally I would like to thank my family. To my wonderful sisters and their families who have always supported me throughout, thank you. And to my parents, who have been completely supportive from beginning to end. They taught me by example that anything in life can be achieved through hard work and determination. Their level of encouragement throughout was immeasurable.

This Ph.D. is dedicated to my parents, Rosemary and David Capper, thank you. xxx

David Capper
Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Since the end of the Second World War tourism has become a major industry around the world. It is well documented that the economic contributions of the tourism industry to the global economy are substantial (Smith, 1995; Cooper et al., 1998). Goeldner et al., (2002) state that tourism has become the world’s largest industry, surpassing autos, steel, electronics and agriculture. Over the past forty years it has expanded at an average of 7% each year in tourist arrivals and 12% a year in receipts - a growth record unmatched by any other economic sector (WTO, 1995).

As tourism has grown, it has moved from being the province of the rich to accessibility to the masses, involving millions of people. In 2001 an estimated 692 million international tourist arrivals were recorded (see Appendix 1 for international tourist arrivals 1950-2001). As we progress through the next decade tourism is likely to continue to grow and develop much more rapidly than many other sectors. For the first decade of the 21st century, an annual growth rate close to 3.5 percent is anticipated, leading to a figure of 937 million arrivals by 2010. The level of international tourist arrivals will thus have doubled between 1990 and 2010 (Goeldner et al. 2002). As the important economic benefits of tourism become evident new destinations are emerging. The industry is a major source of employment as well as earning foreign exchange that is significant if not crucial for many countries. Tourism also stimulates other sectors of the economy and provides a major justification for
Much public-sector infrastructure investment as well as contributing billions of pounds to government tax revenues (EIU, 1994).

As the industry becomes increasingly competitive, countries will endeavour to market their tourism product to attract as many visitors as possible. Many countries though, have to deal with a special problem, that of terrorism. Since September 11th the impacts of terrorism have been high on the political agenda. With the ongoing volatile political nature of the world it is likely that these affects will become more acute.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND RATIONALE

In this era of unlimited choice, tourists have many alternatives to choose from, whether or not they choose destinations that are prone to terrorism is questionable. The need for safety is paramount to many people, terrorism itself brings with it fear and insecurity, therefore the question is will these potential tourists decide on alternative locations. This thesis will research issues relating to tourism and terrorism in an attempt to understand the effects on the decision-making process of tourists and subsequently add further knowledge to the role of tourism behaviour. As terrorism looks like remaining a real global problem for the foreseeable future, there is a need to understand consumers' attitudes and perceptions of these acts and to understand their reluctance to venture to destinations that have this problem.

Although the phenomenon of terrorism has become a familiar occurrence of modern times (Richter and Waugh, 1986; Hall, 1994; Hall and O'Sullivan, 1996; Wahab, 1996; Sonmez and Graefe, 1998), there are few empirical studies and little background information dealing with terrorism and its effects on tourism decision-making. Therefore, this study endeavours to investigate the effects of terrorism on a tourist's decision-making process in an attempt to understand their willingness to consider a destination that has been affected by terrorism. The thesis will endeavour to understand the attitudes of tourists towards destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity and try to ascertain if those attitudes differ between different segments of tourists. Subsequently this will give a valuable insight into how certain segments of the tourist market are likely to behave during their decision making.
Chapter One Introduction

process which will enable those involved in marketing to target relevant marketing campaigns at those segments most affected.

1.3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

1.3.1 Research Question

The research problem can be narrowed down to the following overall research question:

*Are there differences between tourists’ willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity?*

1.3.2 Research objectives

In order to have an understanding of the issues relating to the effects of terrorism on the decision-making process of tourists, twelve objectives were formulated (see Table 1.1). The objectives can be divided into three main groups. The first two objectives investigate the importance of safety in the section of tourist destinations; objectives three to eight deal with the willingness of respondents to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity; and the final four objectives investigate the influence of the media.

**Table 1.1 Objectives of research**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective 1</th>
<th>How important is the attribute of safety in the consumer decision-making process of selecting a holiday destination compared to other attributes?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective 2</td>
<td>Are there differences between tourists’ personal characteristics, general safety awareness levels and holiday behaviour and the importance attached to the attribute of safety when considering potential holiday destinations?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 3</td>
<td>Are there differences between tourists’ personal characteristics and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 4</td>
<td>Are there differences between tourists’ safety awareness levels and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 5</td>
<td>Are there differences between tourists’ holiday behaviour patterns and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter One Introduction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective 6</th>
<th>Are there differences between the importance tourists' attach to the risk of terrorism and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective 7</td>
<td>Are there differences between respondents' terrorism awareness levels and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 8</td>
<td>Are there differences between respondents' level of terrorism awareness where tourists' have been targeted and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 9</td>
<td>Are there differences between respondents' use of news media and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 10</td>
<td>Are there differences between a respondent's belief that national television news/newspapers are factual and unbiased and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 11</td>
<td>Are there differences between respondents' perceptions of the news media towards terrorist events and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective 12</td>
<td>Are there differences between respondents' awareness/perceptions of destinations that have been subject to terrorist activities in response to the immediate media coverage of these terrorist events?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.4 THE STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

The thesis consists of thirteen chapters. They are arranged in the following order: introduction (Chapter One), literature review (Chapters Two, Three, Four, Five and Six), methodology (Chapter Seven), findings (Chapters Eight, Nine, Ten, Eleven, Twelve), and conclusion (Chapter Thirteen). Each one will now be described briefly to highlight the areas that will be covered.

Chapter Two of this thesis gives an introductory background to the issues that will be encountered throughout the study. It provides working definitions for both tourism and terrorism on which this research is based. It highlights the relationship between tourism and terrorism, discussing how terrorism has affected tourism markets both directly and indirectly. Issues relating to the influence of the media and resulting negative images are also raised. Finally the chapter outlines the various types of disruption to the tourism industry, with examples of China, Egypt and Northern Ireland given.

Chapter Three reviews literature on decision-making theory, which underpins the remaining literature review chapters. Discussions focus both generally and also
specifically in relation to the field of tourism. Initially the chapter examines the main concepts of consumer behaviour as a basis for discussing the 'grand models' of consumer behaviour. These models are discussed to highlight how tourism scholars have adapted these consumer behaviour models to the tourism field to explain the decision-making processes of tourists. These models in turn were critically analysed to illustrate the weaknesses inherent within these models. As well as the behavioural tourism models, choice sets are also discussed to highlight the various approaches that scholars have taken to understand the notion of how and why tourists choose particular destinations.

Chapter Four reviews the key relationships between influencing variables and factors and the resulting impacts on the tourist decision-making process. In order to examine these influences they are grouped together under four headings; energizers of demand, tourist roles, effectors of demand and determinants of demand. It is of importance to highlight these influences as they have a direct bearing upon the stages of the central decision process, which are discussed in Chapter Three.

Chapter Five aims to understand the influencing external variable of perceived risk on the tourist decision-making process. The role of perception is initially discussed to enable an understanding of the main principles surrounding the psychological aspect of perception. This is followed by an examination of risk. The remaining sections of the chapter will then focus on the aspect of risk in relation to tourism. Firstly, the role of risk in general is discussed, looking at the concept of facilitators and inhibitors. Finally, the aspect of terrorism risk is examined to illustrate possible effects on the tourist decision-making process.

Chapter Six is the final literature review chapter and examines the main characteristics surrounding the issues of destination image in an attempt to understand how image affects destinations. The chapter is divided into four main sections, each examining various aspects of destination image. The first section defines what is meant by image and to understand in marketing terms why this topic area is so important. In section two the characteristics of image formation are discussed, with section three examining image formation models. Finally, the last section discusses image and destination marketing.
Chapter Seven outlines the approach and methods employed in this research. The sections within the chapter deal with a range of issues relating to the methodological techniques chosen. Initially, the problem definition and research objectives are highlighted with a model presented to illustrate the relationships tested. This is followed by an examination of the various research paradigms available, with a rationale given for the choice of specific quantitative techniques as the main paradigm utilised within this study. The research design employed is then explained, detailing the use of exploratory and descriptive research and the subsequent use of a postal questionnaire as the preferred research instrument for this study. The final sections of the chapter examine issues relating to the scaling of questions, the sampling process and methods of analysis.

Chapter Eight, which is the first findings chapter, illustrates the descriptive findings of the survey. It is divided into four main sections, each examining the various aspects of the questionnaire. In the initial section the characteristics of the sample are discussed. The subsequent sections then examine descriptive findings in relation to decision-making, risk awareness and attitudes to terrorism at tourist destinations.

Chapter Nine examines the quantitative findings related to the issue of safety in tourist decision-making. The chapter consists of two main elements. Firstly, the levels of importance individuals place on certain holiday factors, examining the comparative importance of safety. Secondly, the personal characteristics, general safety awareness levels and holiday behaviour patterns of respondents are examined in relation to the importance they place on the factor of safety.

Chapter Ten is the main findings chapter with six objectives of the research analysed and discussed. The findings relate to the willingness of respondents to visit destinations that have been affected by terrorist activity. Fifteen independent variables are examined in relation to the willingness of respondents to visit destinations affected by terrorist activities to ascertain whether there are any statistical differences.

Chapter Eleven is the fourth findings chapter and is related to the objectives that deal with the media, terrorism and the effects on consumer destination decision-making.
Chapter One Introduction

There are three main sections that look at usage and choice of news media, level of credibility and perceptions of news media towards terrorist events.

Chapter Twelve, the final findings chapter, examines findings in relation to tourist awareness and response to media coverage of terrorist events. The main concern of the chapter is to ascertain whether respondents' awareness increased following media coverage, whether they view the destinations as being more unsafe due to media attention and to understand the effects of media coverage on their general willingness to consider destinations that had been subject to terrorist activity.

Chapter Thirteen is the final chapter of this thesis. There are two main sections presented within this final concluding chapter. Section one summarises the main findings, with the general trends discussed. To enable an easier understanding of the results, specific models are presented to show the statistically significant findings between the various independent and dependent variables. Section two then examines potential limitations to the research, contributions that the study has made to the field of research and recommendations for future research.
1.5 REFERENCES


Chapter Two

TERRORISM AND TOURISM

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter gives a background to the issues that will be encountered throughout the study. It provides working definitions for both tourism and terrorism on which this research is based. It highlights the relationship between tourism and terrorism, discussing how terrorism has affected tourism markets both directly and indirectly. Issues relating to the influence of the media and resulting negative images are also raised. The chapter also outlines the various types of disruption to the tourism industry, with examples of China, Egypt and Northern Ireland given. Finally the effects of September 11th on the tourism industry are discussed.

2.2 DEFINING TOURISM

There have been numerous attempts to define tourism, however, it is extremely difficult to define precisely the word tourism as no universal definition has yet been adopted (Theobald, 1994). This is due to some extent to the fact that tourism is a multidisciplinary in nature and has received attention from scholars in various disciplines. As Youell
Chapter Two  Literature Review

(1998) states there are perspectives from geography, psychology, sociology, economics, anthropology, planning, business studies, politics and economics. As tourism research has been developed the complex multidisciplinary nature has caused definitions to be interpreted depending on which discipline is under consideration. However, as Cooper et al. (1998) argue, it is vital to attempt definitions of tourism to provide a sense of credibility and ownership. According to Cooper et al. (1998) definitions can be thought of as either demand or supply in nature.

2.2.1 Demand-side definitions of tourism

Cooper et al. (1998) state that demand-side definitions have evolved by firstly attempting to encapsulate the idea of tourism into ‘conceptual’ definitions and secondly through the development of ‘technical’ definitions for measurement and legal purposes. From the demand-side, tourism can be defined conceptually as “the movement of people to destinations outside their normal place of residence for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes” (WTO, 1996, p.2). Although this definition conveys the essential nature of tourism it lacks a ‘technical’ point of view for measurement. By technically defining tourism it is possible to isolate tourism trips from other forms of travel for statistical purposes. According to Cooper et al. (1998) these ‘technical’ definitions require that an activity needs to pass certain ‘tests’ before it counts as tourism. Some examples of these tests are listed below:

- Minimum length of stay – one night (visitors who do not stay overnight are termed same day visitors).
- Maximum length of stay – one year.
- Strict purpose of visit categories.
- A distance consideration – WTO recommendation (160 kilometres)
2.2.2 Supply-side definitions of tourism

Cooper et al. (1998) state that like the demand-side definitions, there are two basic approaches to defining the supply side – the conceptual and the technical. From assessing the literature it is clear that tourism definitions have been concerned more by the demand-side considerations than supply considerations. It is, however, important to define the supply side both conceptually and technically. From a conceptual point of view Leiper (1979, p.400) suggests that tourism supply can be defined as “all those firms, organisations and facilities that are intended to serve the specific needs and wants of tourists”

When formulating supply-side technical definitions, problems can arise due to the complexity of the tourist industry. Cooper et al. (1998) argue that there is a spectrum of tourist businesses, from those who are wholly serving tourists to those who also serve local residents. Smith (1989) best illustrates this by categorising businesses into two tiers:

Tier 1: Businesses that would not be able to survive without tourism.
Tier 2: Businesses that could survive without tourism, but in a diminished form

2.3 BACKGROUND TO TERRORISM

Terrorism is not simply a modern phenomenon. People have fought against unpopular regimes or governments with violence since ancient times. The word “terrorism” first appeared from the French Revolution in 1789, when some of the revolutionaries who seized power ruled with violence (Stern, 1999). Since the 1960’s, acts of international terrorism have recurred with sufficient frequency for terrorism to rise steadily on the global agenda.

The number of terrorist incidents to be reported around the world totalled 8,114 in the 1970’s, which resulted in 4,798 deaths and 6,902 injuries (Stern, 1999). During the
1980's the number of terrorist incidents increased to 31,426, with 70,859 deaths and 47,849 injuries. According to Stern (1999) the number of deaths varies from year to year, although there seems to be an increasing trend. In this new millennium the issues of terrorism have never been so high on the global political agenda. The terrorist attacks in New York on September 11th 2001, the bombing of Bali in October 2002 and the bombing in Kenya in November 2002 have all kept issues relating to terrorism fresh in the minds of the general public.

The area of conflict that has generated the most significant amount of terrorist violence in the past thirty years has been the Middle East. This region remains the most dangerous source of terrorism to the wider international community, accounting for over 23% of all international incidents worldwide in the mid nineties (Pizam and Mansfield, 1996). The Middle East is also the major region of state sponsored terrorism, with countries such as Iran, Iraq, Syria, Sudan and Libya supposedly supporting these acts. Iran remains far and away the most significant state sponsor, sponsoring Islamic fundamentalists and their Islamic revolutionary regime (Pizam and Mansfield, 1996). Unfortunately for the tourism industries in the west these Islamic fundamentalists will frequently target cities such as London, Paris and New York in order to receive maximum attention. Therefore, these cities do not only have to deal with terrorism as a result of their own problems but also as the result of others.

2.3.1 Defining terrorism

The whole point of the terrorist act is to provoke a reaction disproportionate to the act itself. The truest terror is the random sort and carries the implication that anyone, anywhere, might find himself or herself the next target. Terrorists often use threats to create fear among the public, to try to convince citizens that their government is powerless to prevent terrorism, and to get immediate publicity for their causes. Terrorism still remains a serious threat in many countries; this is not surprising given the bitter ethnic and religious struggles that spawn terrorism (Pizam and Mansfield, 1996).
Numerous academics have argued that there is difficulty in defining terrorism (Wanek, 1978; Joyneer, 1988; Keghley, 1990; Jenkins, 1990; Wall, 1996). For instance Keghley (1990) states that there is difficulty in distinguishing between illegal acts of violence against governments from legitimate resistance by groups fighting for their right of self-determination. The notion that ‘one man’s terrorist is another man’s freedom fighter’, causes problems in reaching a consensus when defining terrorism. There are however major common characteristics that can describe terrorism (Wilkinson, 1990):

- it is premeditated, aiming to incite extreme fear;
- its target audience is wider than those immediately affected by it;
- attacks are characteristically random and symbolic – frequently involving civilians;
- the violence is viewed by society norms and therefore an ‘outrage’; and
- the terrorist act is an attempt to influence political behaviour, to force issues, make demands, provoke reaction,

There have been many definitions put forward to describe terrorism. For this research, Pizam and Mansfield’s (1996, p.110) definition has been adopted:

“Terrorism is the act of destroying or injuring civilian lives or the act of destroying or damaging civilian or government property without the expressly chartered permission of a specific government, thus, by individuals or groups acting independently of governments on their own accord and belief, in an attempt to effect some political goal”.

2.3.2 Possible causes of increased terrorist activity

There have been attempts to understand the reasons for the increased terrorist activity since the 1970’s. Wilkinson (1990) offered the following as possible causes of increased terrorist activity:

- deep and bitter ethnic, religious, and ideological conflicts;
- new and relatively fragile political and economic systems experiencing vital
challenges to their legitimacy and authority;
- destabilisation following the global nuclear imbalance, leading to low-risk, affordable, proxy-style war (seen as terrorism);
- growth in new technology, which facilitates terrorism through mass communications (seeking wider audiences) and ease of access to weaponry;
- terrorism being positively reinforced by relatively high success in achieving short-term tactical goals;

As can be seen from the above list, religion is a major motive for terrorist attacks. Figure 2.1 illustrates a selection of terrorist incidents from 1992 to 1998 that were influenced by religion (Whittaker 2002).

**Figure 2.1 – Terrorist incidents for six years 1992-1998.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Incident</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Algeria – Muslim extremists burn villages, restaurants, and markets.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>Bombay – Muslim gangs kill Hindus for destroying a Muslim temple.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Jerusalem – an ultra nationalist Jew enters an Islamic mosque and kills 29 at prayer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Jerusalem – Israeli ex-premier, Yitzhak Rabin, shot by Orthodox youth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Tokyo – nerve gas attack by religious sect, 12 die, 3,700 injured.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>Luxor – Muslim Brotherhood shoot 50 foreign tourists.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>Jerusalem – Hamas suicide members kill more than 60 Israelis.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### 2.4 THE EFFECTS OF TERRORISM ON TOURISM

The phenomenon of terrorism has become a familiar occurrence of modern times (Hall, 1994; Hall and O’Sullivan, 1996; Richter and Waugh, 1986; Sonmez and Graefe, 1998; Wahab, 1996). Until fairly recently though, scholarly attention given to the relationship
between terrorism and tourism did not match the topic’s significance. According to Sonmez and Graefe (1998) it has only been since the mid-1980s that scholars from diverse disciplines have examined the relationship between terrorism and tourism.

Since then there have been numerous articles, which have focused on a variety of key issues. These have included the relationship between terrorism and tourism (Richter and Waugh, 1986; Ryan, 1993; Sonmez and Graefe, 1998; Pizam 1999, 2000), the impacts of political instability on tourism (Seekings, 1993; Hall, 1994; Richter, 1999) and the implications of terrorism for tourism marketing (Gartner and Shen, 1992; Buckley and Klemm, 1993; Hall, 1994). Sonmez and Graefe (1998) have put together a comprehensive list of articles that have dealt with terrorism and tourism, giving a summary of the main findings of each author (see Appendix 2).

While contributions to the topic have shed light on the tourism industry’s predicament resulting from terrorism, Sonmez and Graefe (1998) complain that on the whole the level of research is shallow, with too many authors echoing each other in reviewing the well-documented incidents of terrorism. What is most surprising is the lack of empirical research that has been undertaken thus far, which leads to an agreement with Sonmez and Graefe that there is too much repetition of existing material.

Even so, although the material on this area of study appears weak in both depth and in application, there does seem to be a consensus of opinion on the various issues that link terrorism and political instability to the tourism industry. It is the aim of this chapter to highlight, examine and analyse these issues in an attempt to illustrate the main elements that constitute this area of study.

2.4.1 The background to the effects of terrorism on tourism

Terrorism in the past thirty years has made headlines around the world, reaching a peak in the mid 1980’s. At this time D’Amore (1986) stated that international terrorism was having a more profound impact on travel than any other factor since the energy crises of
the 1970’s. Terrorist acts exacerbate public perception of danger in the world in general and at some destinations in particular. Despite a fluctuation in the number of attacks, terrorism continues to be a force with which the industry must reckon (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998).

As Richter and Waugh (1986) observed, tourism may decline steeply when political conditions appear unsettled. Hall (1994) agrees, stating that political stability is a fundamental precondition to the successful establishment of a tourist industry as it is one of the essential prerequisites for attracting international tourists to a destination. Violent protests, civil war, terrorist actions, or even the mere threat of these activities, will serve to cause tourists to cancel their vacations.

It is clear from the literature (Richter and Waugh, 1986; Hall, 1994; Richter, 1999) that tourism is one of the most vulnerable business sectors. It is fragile precisely because what it sells is fun, serenity, relaxation, beautiful scenery and interesting cultures. Tourism does not include being kidnapped, being caught in a crossfire, or the prospect of being blown up. It is clear that putting oneself in line for some form of tourism-related violence is not part of most tourists’ holiday equation.

Although tourists have rarely been at risk, few have chosen to visit unsettled destinations (Richter and Waugh, 1986). Tourists, according to Hall (1994), simply choose other destinations in what is a highly competitive global tourism marketplace. As Richter and Waugh (1986) state, although some business travellers may warily proceed to politically volatile nations, tourists have scores of other options for their attention and money. When some set of events dissuades tourists from visiting a given destination, the probability is that some other destination will benefit, as destination substitution becomes increasingly possible (Hall, 1994).

Tourists can be dissuaded as a result of the fear and insecurity they may feel. According to Buckley and Klemm (1993) these insecurities are major barriers to travel. They continue by stating that in addition to an openly stated fear, there is often an expression
of lack of interest in travel, which can mask an underlying fear. In these circumstances the possibility of terrorism, however remote, will have an effect on the tourist demand of a large number of potential tourists.

Fear and insecurity it seems is increased if the potential tourist is exposed to these images in the media. Numerous scholars have examined the role of the media in this complex set of relationships (Richter and Waugh, 1986; Ryan, 1993; Hall, 1994; Pizam, 2000). These various contributions will now be examined to clarify the important role that the media plays.

### 2.5 THE ROLE OF THE MEDIA

Terrorism in all its varied forms is a fact of modern life. The media profile given to terrorist activities is probably critical to its occurrence, given that “terrorism is a form of communication, of both the threat or reliability of violence and the political message” (Richter and Waugh, 1986, p.230). The escalation of terrorism, since the 70’s has been linked to mass communications (Alexander 1977, Sanler and Lapan 1988, Schmid and DeGraph 1982). It has been stated that communication satellites are able to provide terrorists with instantaneous access to a global audience (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998).

What is new about terrorist violence in the post war period is the impact of its message and the distance, which that message can be projected. As was stated earlier, terrorism is a form of communication and Richter and Waugh (1986) argue that to some extent the mass media are responsible for that communication. The communication that occurs is best illustrated by Karbour (1971, p.9) who stated, “as a symbolic act terrorism can be analysed much like any other mediums of communication”.

Karber’s theory outlines the four basic components of the communication process within the context of terrorism. He states that the organization is the terrorist group, the message is the terrorist act involving individual or institutional victims, the medium is the media
and the intended recipient of message is the target of terrorist’s message, i.e. the government they oppose or in the case of Egypt the tourists themselves. Finally the feedback is the reaction of the recipient. Figure 2.2 illustrates this relationship graphically, with Karbour's theory being adapted to the traditional communications model in Solomon (2001).

**Figure 2.2 The communication process in the context of terrorism**

As we can see from Figure 2.2, the media play a vital role in communicating terrorist actions, with this role likely to increase due to globalisation of the media and its greater political and economic interdependence (Hall, 1994).

With terrorist violence becoming a familiar phenomenon of modern times, the familiarity is, according to Richter and Waugh (1986), largely due to the mass media, rather than to the nature of the violent act. This argument has been continued by Pizam (2000), who examined how the media has magnified the already volatile relationship between terrorism and tourism. Like Richter and Waugh (1986), Pizam (2000) states that the media has exaggerated the actual possibilities of travellers being targeted by terrorist acts.

Therefore it is not surprising that destinations, in which isolated incidents against tourists have occurred, complain bitterly that the media overreact and give much greater
prominence to a few minor incidents than the situation warrants. As Pizam (2000) suggests though, exposure to media coverage of incidents may have unintentionally frightened and discouraged the public from international travel. Ryan (1993) expressed similar ideas when he stated that the reporting of such events by popular newspapers in tourist-generating countries, particularly if it occurs at the time of booking holidays, could adversely affect the level of business in tourist locations.

From the literature reviewed it is clear that the increasingly higher forms of communication and information technologies are assisting the media in their graphically detailed and instantaneous reporting on terrorist activities "live" from anywhere in the world (Pizam, 2000). It is evident that this has lead to destination images of those destinations affected by terrorism being tarnished as unsafe, in some cases jeopardising entire tourism industries. According to Pizam (2000) terrorism has gained premier power and efficiency as a political weapon through mass media coverage and exaggerated perceptions about traveller safety have caused many problems to those destinations endeavouring to portray a positive image.

The media’s communication of terrorism and the subsequent effect on tourism markets is best illustrated by looking at the events of the mid 1980’s. According to Richter and Waugh (1986) the level of terrorist attacks and the overreaction by the media, which increased the impact and importance of terrorist events, caused considerable negative impacts on the tourism industry at this time. Until the mid 1980’s the impact of terrorist acts on travel tended to be felt for a period of a few months in the geographical region or nation in which the event took place and would then diminish. However from June 1985 terrorism began to have a more lasting impact and a much wider geographical influence. This was due, in part, to the highly visible, and in some cases sensational, press coverage of events in 1985 and early 1986.

According to D’Amore (1986) in 1985 and 1986 there was an intense spate of terrorist attacks in the Middle East and Europe. The highjacking of TWA flight 847 in Athens, the seizure of the cruise ship Achille Lauro, and December violence at airports in Rome and
Vienna prompted many travellers to cancel their plans. These events and the constant media attention caused unprecedented insecurity towards international travel amongst American and other tourists. In April 1986, a poll conducted for Newsweek indicated that 79% of Americans would reject an opportunity to travel overseas because of the treat of terrorism (D'Amore, 1986; Sonmez and Graefe, 1998).

In reality US travel to Europe was down by approximately 30% in 1986, with nearly two million Americans changing their foreign travel plans in that year (D'Amore, 1986; Sonmez and Graefe, 1998). Despite the low probability of occurrence, risks carrying high costs, such as terrorism-appear to provoke serious consumer reaction (Richter and Waugh, 1986). For example in 1985, 28 million Americans went abroad and 162 were either killed or injured as a result of terrorism, which indicates a .00058% probability of being targeted, yet 30% of Americans cancelled their plans to go to Europe (The Economist, 1986).

Although Europe in general was affected considerably, the countries around the Mediterranean suffered the most significant loss, with bookings down by as much as 50% in some cases. Egypt, troubled by internal as well as external incidents, lost up to 65% of their expected American visitors (D'Amore, 1986; Sonmez and Graefe, 1998). It is not surprising that shifts in tourist plans seriously curtailed revenues for many countries. The treat of terrorism was blamed by the WTO for $105 billion in lost tourism receipts in 1985 (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998).
2.6 THE ROLE OF DESTINATION IMAGE

The aspect of destination image will be examined in greater detail in Chapter Six, it is though important to briefly examine issues relating to image at this stage of ascertaining the affect and influence of terrorism on tourism.

It was stated earlier in this chapter that political stability is important for the development of the infrastructure that is required for tourism. It is also vital because of the central role that images play in tourism marketing and promotion. Given the requirement of many travellers to feel safe when they visit a destination, perceptions of tourist safety become vital in attracting international and domestic travellers (Hall, 1994).

Buckley and Klemm (1993) argue that a favourable image is an essential requirement of any tourist destination. They suggest that the problem with any kind of civil unrest is that unfavourable images are beamed across the world, so that even those who are not afraid of terrorism will be discouraged from taking a holiday there. It is not so much that the area is dangerous, more that it does not look attractive. Therefore, it is clear from the literature thus far, that the media and the resulting images that occur can have negative impacts on tourist destinations plagued by political stability. There is a need now, though, to put these two elements into a wider context and incorporate the other factors that contribute to the effects of terrorism on tourism markets.

2.7 HOW TERRORISM AFFECTS TOURISM MARKETS

According to Hall (1994) tourism is affected by terrorism in two ways. Firstly, terrorist activities can damage a destination’s tourist industry by creating an image of lack of safety. This has been examined by looking at the role of the media in the formation of images. Secondly, actual tourists or tourist facilities may find themselves subject to attack.
The relationship between terrorism and tourism has received increased attention in the past twenty years with tourism academics endeavouring to put forward theoretical frameworks to highlight how terrorism has become connected with tourism. Several theoretical studies have offered valuable insight and help in advancing the understanding of the unique relationship between terrorism and tourism (Aziz, 1995; Hall, 1994; Pizam, 1999; Richter, 1983; Richter and Waugh, 1986; Seekings, 1993: Ryan 1993; Wahab 1996).

Initial research in the mid-1980’s linked terrorist objectives with tourism (Richter and Waugh, 1986), this was expanded much further in the 1990’s with Ryan (1993) who stated that the relationship between terrorism and tourism can be said to range from the commitment of crime where the tourist setting is incidental, to at the other extreme, a situation where tourists and tourist facilities are deliberately sought as objects of terrorist action. This thesis will now endeavour to illustrate the various relationships that exist by examining both the strategic and ideological objectives of terrorist organisations in relation to the tourism industry.

2.7.1 Tourism and the strategic objectives of terrorists

According to Sonmez et al. (1999) tourists and the tourism industry can help terrorists achieve their strategic objectives. This can be achieved through three main ways: tourism facilities can provide terrorists with safety in which they can operate and easily blend in with the tourist crowd; by providing targets which will receive worldwide media coverage; and by targeting the tourism industry they can harm the governments which they oppose. These aspects will now be discussed in more detail.

- **The tourist location as a cover for terrorist activities**

Tourist facilities can act a cover for activities of terrorists. Richter and Waugh (1986) argue that state tourist facilities are logical targets of terrorist violence because they afford opportunity and relative safety for terrorists to act. The large numbers of foreign
speaking and foreign looking tourists can provide cover for international terrorists. Also, the hesitancy of police to restrict the movement of tourists and other persons within an area militates against strong anti-terrorist operations and effective security arrangements. As a result of these characteristics found at tourist destinations Richter and Waugh (1986) argue that the tactical objectives of terrorist groups can be met. They are able to, for instance, collect essential ingredients needed for terrorist campaigns easier than in other locations.

• **Media coverage**

Terrorists choose tourist destinations because of their high visibility and exposure to the international media. Seekings (1993) argues that by striking at tourists the message of the terrorists will be heard all around the world. She continues by arguing that the use of tourists is a valid target especially for smaller terrorist groups, who have limited alternative avenues for advertising their grievances, as it gives them the opportunity to publicise their political demands globally. By capturing the media agenda for days or weeks, such groups can hope to increase their profile and amplify their message; enhance their relative moral legitimacy; and improve their organisational effectiveness.

• **Attacking Host or Foreign Governments**

Terrorists also target the tourist industry to attack the governments or social systems to which they are opposed. State sponsored tourism may become a symbol of the host government; hence an attack on tourism becomes justified as an attack on the government (Ryan, 1993; Seekings, 1993). Academics have examined this aspect further, for instance, Hall (1994) states that terrorist groups can attack tourists to punish nationals of a country that supports the government that the terrorists oppose. As tourism represents a significant economic activity, terrorist attacks on tourists can cause foreign exchange receipts to decline, thereby allowing terrorist to impose indirect costs on their governments (Richter and Waugh, 1986; Hall and O'Sullivan, 1996). Furthermore,
tourist decisions to stay at home or choose safer destinations translate into significant losses for the tourism industry of the country suffering from terrorism.

2.7.2 Tourism and the ideological objectives of terrorists

According to Hall and O'Sullivan (1996) terrorists also target tourists to achieve ideological objectives. This is mainly due to the tourists' country of origin representing capitalist systems that they oppose and also that tourists' may pose a threat to culture and patterns of life. These two issues will now be discussed in more detail.

- Representing Capitalist Systems

The literature suggests that tourism itself can be a political issue because of what it can represent. Since tourists are generally from wealthier countries of North America or Western Europe, tourism is in many ways a symbol of the capitalist way of life, representing ideological values, class behaviour and political culture (Richter, 1983; Seekings, 1993). Those terrorist organizations that have philosophies against the capitalist political system may see terrorist action against tourism as validated. A good example of a country that has suffered significantly from terrorist attacks aimed specifically at tourist targets because of their symbolic capitalist value is Peru. In 1989 the value of overseas tourism to Peru was approximately US$430 million with over 350,000 visitors (Ryan, 1993). In 1991 it is estimated that Peru received fewer than 30,000 overseas tourists. Ryan (1993) states the major reason for this decline has been the activities of Sendero Luminoso, which has declared a Maoist philosophy that attacks capitalism. Terrorist action against tourism is validated by the view that tourism is symbolic of capitalism, that tourists are generally from wealthier countries, and hence symbolic of regimes perceived as capitalist.

Richter (1983) was one of the first academics to suggest the importance of tourists and their countries of origin. Tourists according to Richter (1983) might be targeted for violent attacks because they are perceived as ambassadors for their countries. The
tourist’s country of origin becomes involved in the situation and the involvement of foreign governments representing their nationals victimised by the terrorist activity may serve to put pressure on the host government to listen to the grievances of the terrorist group.

• A threat to culture and patterns of life

Tourism is seen as a potential threat to valued customs and patterns of life. This is illustrated in several areas of the world where nationalist groups see tourism as a part of the process that threatens their local environments and cultures. For example academics have examined the case of the National Front for the liberation of Corsica (FNLC), and its more extreme counterpart, Cuncolta (Seekings, 1993; Ryan, 1993). In the early nineties multiple attacks were made on tourist facilities and tourists. As nationalist groups, the perpetrators justified their attacks on tourists and tourism complexes on the grounds that tourism represents a threat to a Corsican way of life. The conflict between host and quest resulting from clashing cultures or values was also demonstrated in Egypt (Wahab, 1995). Certain tourist behaviours incongruent with Islamic cultural values have resulted in terrorist attacks against tourists in Egypt. According to Wahab (1995), the desire to protect sacred beliefs can regrettable manifest itself in terrorism.

This literature has demonstrated that tourism can be the message as well as the medium of communication initiated by terrorists. Tourism can inspire terrorist violence by fuelling political, religious, socio-economic or cultural resentment. It can also be used as a cost-effective instrument to deliver a broader message of political opposition. It seems, therefore, that the choice of tourists and the tourism industry as a target is not coincidental. As Sonmez et al. (1999, p.14) state, “for terrorists, the symbolism, high profile, and news value of the international traveller are too value to be left unexploited”.

25
2.8 TYPES OF DISRUPTION TO THE TOURIST INDUSTRY

This chapter has thus far discussed the factors that curtail tourism industries around the world when political instability prevails. There are, however, different degrees to the extent that terrorism has affected these destinations. According to the Economist Intelligence Unit (1994) there are three levels: short term, single event disruption; ongoing volatility/uncertainty, and fundamental, long-term disruption. In the final part of this chapter these three types of disruptions will be examined and related to applicable examples in the form of case studies.

2.8.1 Short term, single event disruption

Even a single incident can affect tourism. According to the Economist Intelligence Unit (1994), a major event may reduce arrivals for a period of roughly two years, with less major incidents affecting tourism for a shorter time depending on media coverage. The suppression of the pro-democracy movement in Tian-an-men Square in June 1989 is perhaps the best remembered incident in which a booming tourist industry was damaged by a single political event of international importance, which received global media coverage. According to a number of academics (Lavery, 1989; Gartner and Shen, 1992; Hall, 1994; Roehl, 1990) political protests at the square and throughout many of China’s cities at the time dramatically impacted on the country’s tourism industry. By late 1989 many of Beijing’s hotels were almost empty, occupancy was below 30% when 90% could have been expected (Lavery, 1996). Gartner and Shen (1992) indicated a negative shift in attitudes towards visiting China as a result of Tian-an-men Square. Table 2.1 shows the effects were immediate and marked by reduced total arrivals. The figures suggest that the boom in arrivals which was just beginning to happen at that time, was set back as a result. Table 2.1 illustrates this impact on arrivals.

It is clear from the statistics in Table 2.1 that in the case of China, it took about two years as a result of this one event, to return to the levels of pre Tian-an-men Square. Hall (1994) states that the reason for this time was a run of favourable images in the travel
press and the general media that meant China’s tourist image was able to revert to that held before the political unrest of 1989.

Table 2.1 Visitor arrivals in China 1978-1992

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total International Visitors</th>
<th>% Growth</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>229,646</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>362,389</td>
<td>57.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>529,124</td>
<td>46.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>675,153</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>764,497</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>872,511</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>1,134,267</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>1,370,462</td>
<td>20.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>1,482,476</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>1,727,821</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>1,841,857</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1989</strong></td>
<td><strong>1,460,970</strong></td>
<td><strong>-20.7</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>1,747,315</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>2,710,103</td>
<td>55.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>4,006,427</td>
<td>47.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (EIU, 1994)

2.8.2 On-going volatility/uncertainty

An example of on-going volatility and uncertainty is Egypt, where fundamentalist Muslim groups since 1992 specifically targeted and launched attacks against Egypt’s tourism industry. As discussed earlier terrorists can target tourists and the tourism industry due to ideological objectives. This was the case in Egypt, with Muslim activists
resenting tourists because of the treat that they pose in violating Islamic cultural values and traditions, such as, the consumption of alcohol and pork, gambling, prostitution, disrespect towards dress and codes of behaviour (Aziz, 1995). In total over 120 attacks were systematically carried out against tourists between 1992 and 1995, causing the death of 13 tourists. Egypt experienced a 22% drop in international visitors, a 30% drop in tourists nights, and a 43% decrease in tourism receipts (Aziz 1995; Wahab 1996). The crisis caused Egypt to be removed from programs of international tour operators. Tourist arrivals, however, had returned to 1992 levels by 1996. Unfortunately for the Egyptian tourist industry in November 1997, a terrorist attack took place at the Luxor Temple, killing 60 tourists. As a result international tourist arrivals were down nearly 20% in 1998.

2.8.3 Fundamental, long-term disruption

Sustained terrorism campaigns usually destroy international tourism in the destination concerned. Northern Ireland has had their tourism industry curtailed, even though there has been progress following peace talks since the mid-nineties. As a result of this interesting position that Northern Ireland now finds itself, it has been decided to examine in detail the problems encountered by Northern Ireland as a result of fundamental, long-term disruption due to terrorism.

It is clear that Ireland has much to offer tourists including a beautiful rugged coastline, green rural landscapes, excellent golf and fishing and ancient buildings and monuments. In addition, many Britons and North Americans have family ties or can trace their roots to the island resulting in a strong resource base for tourism. However, there is a long history of unrest that has hampered the achievement of the region's full tourism potential, particularly in Northern Ireland. It is evident that civil unrest and terrorism caused by the paramilitary activities of the IRA and its Loyalist counterparts over the past three decades had severely damaged the tourist industry in the North Ireland and to a much lesser extent in the Republic of Ireland.
The tourism industry which had shown impressive growth in the 1950's and 1960's, showed a disastrous decline in visitor numbers in the 1970's and only a moderate recovery in the 1980's and early 1990's. The major cause of this decline was felt to be the civil unrest (EIU, 1994). Figure 2.3 below illustrates the tourist arrivals to Northern Ireland since terrorism became a major factor.

**Figure 2.3 Northern Ireland tourist arrivals (000's).**

(source: Pizam and Mansfield (1996, p.151))

Figure 2.3 illustrates that visitor numbers declined sharply following the outbreak of significant terrorist activity. This happened most notably in the early 1970's and again in 1976 and 1981, when terrorist activities were at a peak. The pattern since 1973 has been that demand has returned to the pre-incident level within two years. The steady growth in tourist numbers in the mid-1980's coincided with a reduced level of terrorist incidents (Buckley and Klemm, 1993).

According to Buckley and Klemm (1993) the tourist segment that has declined the most is the British, showing a fall in visitor numbers of 35% since the late 1960's. They state a likely reason why the British are discouraged is that media coverage is greatest in the UK, where Northern Ireland is frequently portrayed in the news as a problem area.
According to Henderson and Mullaghan (1983), terrorist incidents receiving media coverage had an almost immediate effect on British people’s willingness to holiday in Northern Ireland. Conversely, if the level of incidents declined, potential tourist attitudes improved. Great Britain though, still constitutes the largest tourist market to Northern Ireland with 55% of the arrivals. A further 30% come from the Republic of Ireland, resulting in only 15% coming from outside the British Isles (McEniff, 1996). Figure 2.4 illustrates the origins of markets visiting Northern Ireland.

**Figure 2.4 Origins of markets visiting Northern Ireland.**

It is evident that since the troubles began in the early seventies, terrorism has caused the visitor profile to change considerably. Figure 2.5 illustrates this change. The statistics show that it is pure holiday tourism, which has declined between 1967 and 1994, from 38% in 1967 to just over 20% in 1994. VFR (visiting friends and relatives) and business tourism has continued to grow, people who either know the province or are obliged to go there. Only one in five visitors were holidaymakers in 1994 and the number of VFR and business visitors both substantially exceeded this segment. The higher the proportion of VFR's in the tourist population of an area the worse tends to be the performance of the
tourism sector. These groups will normally have a lower propensity to spend on tourist related goods than other types of tourists (Deegan and Dineen, 1994).

Figure 2.5 Northern Ireland visitor profile

Northern Ireland has a considerable number of excellent individual attractions and areas of natural beauty that compare favourably with the most popular scenic areas of the British Isles. Scotland, although a larger country, offers a similar range of attractions to that of Northern Ireland but receives almost 2 million visits a year from non-UK sources, and a further 9 million domestic trips. Forty-four percent of those tourist arrivals are pure holidaymakers, over double the amount experienced by Northern Ireland (EIU, 1994). This illustrates the level of holiday visitors to which Northern Ireland might aspire without the negative publicity from which it suffers.

It seems Northern Ireland's greatest weakness is that of image, with many potential visitors seeing Northern Ireland synonymous with civil unrest and terrorism, and not with pleasant tourist attractions and countryside. So far tourists have not been targets, but tourists are aware that, not infrequently, the terrorists hit the wrong person or any person in a particular location at the wrong time. If Northern Ireland's image as a holiday
destination is compared with the favourable images of competing destinations in the UK and abroad, with which tourists are bombarded, it is easy to understand why the Northern Ireland tourist industry is finding it hard to compete. The destination is not synonymous with quality or excellence and has no distinct product of high quality to help create a major reputation for the Province as a tourism destination.

The civil unrest that has characterised the Province and tarnished its international image has seriously constrained the development of the tourism sector since the late 1960's. The demand-side constraints through the perceived risks of taking a holiday there have seriously limited the development of the industry, given the unfavourable risk-return ratios and consequential low investment levels (Deegan and Dineen, 1994). Deegan and Dineen (1994) state that with only 20% of all visitors classified as pure tourists, investors had neither the incentive nor the energy to cultivate an understanding of this market, which explains why it contributes less than 2% of regional GDP.

An additional element of the impact of political unrest on tourism is the degree to which political violence can affect regional tourism as well as the particular destination in which the violence actually occurred. For instance, according to Hall (1994) tourism in India and the Maldives has suffered because of the civil war and associated terrorism in Sri Lanka. Richter and Waugh (1986) state that nations that are quite tranquil may find that their own tourism traffic may be negatively affected by regional political conditions. It is clear from assessing the literature that in the past this has been the case in the Republic of Ireland.

It is evident that the fortunes of the tourism industry in both Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland are inextricably linked. Although the Republic of Ireland has experienced relatively little terrorist activity compared to Northern Ireland, the Republic's tourism industry has felt the backlash from the unrest in the North, hampering the achievement of the region's full tourism potential (Wall, 1996).
The effects on the tourism industry in the Republic of Ireland will now be outlined to illustrate how the negative images in the North can affect other destinations within their geographical region. Gillmour (1993) states that the major setback to growth was between 1969 - 1972, when visiting numbers fell by 25% (see Figure 2.6). This resulted from the violence in the North with many potential visitors not realising that the south was largely unaffected. These significant falls in tourist arrivals during the 1970's were matched by slow growth during the early 1980's, which again was a particularly active time for the IRA. This points to a clear link with the troubles in the North.

**Figure 2.6 Republic of Ireland tourist arrivals 1969-72.**

![Figure 2.6 Republic of Ireland tourist arrivals 1969-72.](image)

source:– Pizam and Mansfield (1996, p.151)

Difficulties at the time in Irish tourism also resulted from difficulties in marketing a negative image relating to the troubles in the Northern Ireland (Gillmor, 1993). What occurred in the later part of the 1980's was a policy of distancing tourism in the South from the problems in the North. A vigorous marketing campaign was able to distance the Republic from the terrorist attacks occurring in Northern Ireland, resulting in a rapid increase in the number of tourists visiting the Republic of Ireland during the period from 1987 to 1995. Through these vigorous marketing campaigns the Irish Tourist Board was
able to change peoples’ perceptions and attitudes to the country. They concentrated on their rich culture, friendly people and sporting amenities, especially golf and fishing.

This policy, which has been undertaken since the late 1980’s with great success, hindered co-operation with the Northern Ireland Tourist Board (NITB) considerably. It is evident though that this policy was practically abandoned after the first cease-fire in August 1994. After the cease-fire the Republic of Ireland Tourist Board (Bord Failte) began to work closer with its northern neighbour, and joint marketing campaigns were commissioned to attract tourists to the whole island of Ireland. Tourism, it seemed, was an ideal area of the economy where both North and South could work closer to bring economic benefits to both countries.

With the resumption of IRA activities in February 1996, it is apparent that the approach of the Republic of Ireland in linking its tourism industry and marketing more closely with that of Northern Ireland was a touch hasty. Even though the peace-process was restored in July 1997 it is liable to breakdown again at short notice.

The initial peace-process resulted in positive global media attention. During 1994 and 1995 this attention was on the whole extremely beneficial to the tourism industry in Ireland. It is probable at this early stage that this second cease-fire will again bring positive attention to the nation, but if violence on a large scale does return to Northern Ireland or indeed, begins to occur in the Republic then the attention will surely become as detrimental as it was beneficial during the cease-fires.

During the 18 month cease-fire, the Northern Ireland Tourist Board recorded a 59% increase (from previous year) in inquiries, 11% increase in hotel occupancy, 18% increase in out-of-state visitors, and 68% increase in holiday visitors (O’Neill and Fitz 1996). More recently, a hotel near Belfast was bombed in July 1996; however, a second cease-fire was ordered to begin July 20 1997.
2.9 SEPTEMBER 11TH

Since 2001 there have been numerous terrorist and political events that have had major implications to world tourism. These include Kenya, Bali, as well as the war against Iraq in March 2003. Although these incidents occurred after the primary research was conducted for this thesis in the summer of 2001 it is necessary to highlight the event that has brought the issue of terrorism to the forefront of world attention – September 11th.

On September 11th, 2001, 19 suicide highjackers took control of four United States commercial airplanes and crashed them into the World Trade Centre in New York, the Pentagon in Washington, DC, and in a field near Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. An estimated 5000-6000 people were killed (Goodrich, 2002). The ramifications of these attacks are still hard to gauge, as there has been a lack of reliable detailed material published on the extent to which the attacks have affected the decision-making process of tourists. There has been a lot of speculation but little scientific research conducted. There are, however statistics that have been released by the World Tourism Organisation that illustrate the impacts on global international tourist arrivals, and thus are useful in understanding the ramifications of the September 11th terrorist attacks in particular.

2.9.1 The effects of September 11th on the tourism industry

According to data released in June 2002 by the World Tourism Organisation, international tourist arrivals amounted to 693 million in 2001, down from 697 million in 2000 (a drop of 0.6%). Most affected regions were South Asia (-6.3%), the Americas (-5.9%) and Middle East (-3.1%). Europe registered the same decrease as the world (-0.6%), and Africa, and East Asia and the Pacific recorded positive percentages of 3.8 and 5.5 respectively. Although this overall downturn may appear relatively small, there has been only one previous year (1982) when international tourism growth had decreased. All other years have shown a consistent rise in international tourism, even in 1991 despite the Gulf War and the worldwide recessions (WTO, 2002). (See Appendix I, for international tourist arrivals 1950 – 2002).
According to the WTO (2002) the drop in international tourist arrivals is not just due to the impact of terrorist attacks of September 11th, but also related to the weakening economies of major tourism generating markets. Before the events of September 11th, world tourism was heading for a relatively unimpressive 2.9% increase in 2001. The reason behind this slow down in growth was the rapid decline in world GDP growth from 4.7% in 2000 to 2.5% in 2001. Goodrich (2002) states that figures in the past have demonstrated a clear correlation between tourism and GDP growth. In years when world economic growth exceeds 4%, tourism grows even faster, but when world growth drops below 2%, tourism performs even worse. Europe, for instance, was performing at a growth rate of 1.8% between January and August 2001, against an average 3.6% growth over the previous ten years.

After the terrorist attacks in September 2001 every region in the world saw a decline in international arrivals in the four months to the end of 2001. The American market saw a decline of 20.4% and Europe a smaller decline of 4.2% (WTO, 2002). These figures would seem to suggest that although 2001 was heading for a rather sluggish year in international tourism, the events of September 11th specifically resulted in the drop in overall tourism arrivals for the year as a whole. However, throughout 2002 there have been positive signs that the industry is returning to normal after the disastrous final quarter of 2001 (WTO, 2002). The U.K. outbound bookings improved considerably in 2002 with an increase of 15% and recent surveys from the United States show that September 11th is now having little impact on plans to take a holiday (Goodrich, 2002).

Pizam and Fleischer (2002) state that tourist destinations can recover from severe acts of terrorism, as long as the terrorist acts are not repeated. However, when acts of terrorism, whether of high or low severity, occur at high frequency and regular intervals, tourism demand will constantly decrease and eventually the destination’s tourism industry will come to a standstill. This would seem applicable to individual destinations, what is less certain is when the impact of terrorist events have more global ramifications.
2.10 SUMMARY

It is clear from carrying out this literature review on terrorism and tourism that information on the whole is shallow in nature, with many authors echoing each other in reviewing the well-documented incidents of terrorism. There is an indisputable need for more empirical research, which promises to help identify solutions and minimise the impacts of terrorism on the tourism industry. It is clear, however, from the research carried out that terrorism has considerably curtailed tourism (Brady and Widdows, 1988; Hurley, 1988; Tremblay, 1989; Enders and Sandler 1991).

To understand the relationship between terrorism and tourism, definitions for both tourism and terrorism were put forward. The chapter then highlighted the relationship between tourism and terrorism, discussing how terrorism has affected tourism markets both directly and indirectly. Issues relating to the influence of the media and resulting negative images were also raised. The chapter also outlined the various types of disruption to the tourism industry, with examples of China, Egypt and Northern Ireland given. Finally the effects of September 11th on the tourism industry were discussed.

The remaining chapters of the literature review will now concentrate on literature relating to the decision-making process of tourists and the various factors that influence that decision-making process. This will enable a thorough understanding of how terrorism and the resulting negative images can influence the choice of holiday destinations.
2.11 REFERENCES


Chapter Two Literature Review


3.1 INTRODUCTION

Available literature on the effects of terrorism on tourism and the potentially various implications for the consumer's decision-making process is somewhat limited. As was shown in the previous chapter there is a good range of academic material that has examined the issues of terrorism, safety and fear within tourism (Richter and Waugh, 1986; Buckley and Klemm, 1992; Ryan, 1993; Hall, 1994), but it is somewhat narrow in terms of the implications that are covered.

However, from examining the literature it is evident there has been considerable research concerning the decision-making processes of tourists in general. Therefore, in order to understand the reasons behind how terrorism affects tourism markets from a consumer behaviour point of view, it is necessary to highlight literature that has endeavoured to examine how consumers make decisions. By understanding the processes involved there will be a suitable basis for future chapters that clarify why people decide to cancel, change or ignore a destination which has or is experiencing terrorist activity.

This chapter is divided into three main sections, each examining various aspects of consumer decision-making. The first section examines the principal concepts of
consumer behaviour, discussing the various paradigms and models that underpin consumer decision-making. In section two the characteristics of the tourist product are highlighted before focusing on the decision-making models that have been formulated for use in the tourism field. Finally, the last section will discuss theory relating to choice sets.

3.2 CONCEPTS IN CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

In order to discuss tourism behaviour models, this chapter will initially review the main concepts used in general consumer behaviour theory. By examining these issues and highlighting previous models of decision-making, a firm basis will be given to the theoretical discussion. This section will commence by examining the different paradigms that can be found in the social sciences.

3.2.1 Competing paradigms in the social sciences

The study of consumer behaviour can be found to lie either within, or between, two major competing paradigms in the social sciences. These approaches have been described as the positive and interpretivism paradigms (Solomon, 2001). The differences between the two paradigms can be summarised as follows:

First, the classical view based on the positivist philosophies of science, takes a behaviourist approach. The main assumptions of this approach are that behaviour is predictable, rational and understandable and that people are much alike. It postulates a 'real' and apprehendable reality, driven by immutable laws and mechanisms. Based on these beliefs, classic conceptions of decision-making assume order and simplicity in the world. That order according to Solomon (2001) is based on three pillars: reality (there only exists an objective world that can be apprehended), causality (reality and history are structured by chains of causes and effects), and intentionally (human behaviour is goal directed and decisions are instruments of purpose and self). In the classical theory of
rational choice, the consumer is considered a rational decision maker who seeks to maximise personal satisfaction.

The second major paradigm in consumer behaviour theory can be described as the 'Interpretivist' approach, which differs dramatically from the 'positive' paradigm. The focus is not on explanation in order to predict and control, but rather on understanding and interpretation. Proponents of this perspective argue that there is too much emphasis on science and technology in our society, and that this ordered, rational view of behaviour denies the complex social and cultural world that we live in. The assumption is that reality is not objective, single, and divisible but rather socially constructed, multiple, holistic, and contextual (Ozanne and Hudson, 1989). The focus is no longer on the quantity of the gathered information but rather on its quality.

In reality decision-making behaviour would probably occur somewhere between the above two extremes. Although behaviour is predictable to a large extent, it can never be completely understood. For instance, Cyert and March (1963) state that 'limited rationality' is a more realistic approach to decision processes. Even if individuals are intrinsically rational, they are constrained by limited cognitive capabilities. It is assumed though, for this research, that behaviour can somewhat be understood and predicted otherwise the whole area of study would be invalid.

According to leading consumer behaviour scholars such as Solomon (2001), the consumer behaviour discipline in the past has been dominated by the positive approach but he stresses that we are now in the middle of a paradigm shift to the emerging paradigm of interpretivism. In order to put the previous paradigms into context a brief history of the main concepts of consumer behaviour will be put forward.
3.2.2 Development of consumer behaviour theory

According to academics (Gilbert, 1991; Cooper et al., 1993) the development of general consumer behaviour theory in relation to purchase behaviour can be divided into three main stages. These three phases of consumer behaviour theory will now be illustrated in chronological order.

The early empiricist phase was dominated by commercial research, where industry attempted to identify the effects of distribution advertising and promotion decisions. This period covered the years between 1930 and the late 1940s (Cooper et al., 1993). The motivational research phase of the 1950s placed a greater emphasis upon in-depth interviews, focus groups and other projective techniques. There was a great deal of activity directed at uncovering real motives for actions which were perceived to lie in the deeper recesses of the consumer's mind (Cooper et al., 1993). The formative phase from the 1960s provided the first general consumer behaviour textbook (Engel, Kollat and Blackwell, 1968) and other influential books (such as Howard and Sheth, 1969) followed soon after. According to Cooper et al. (1993) the models of behaviour put forward during the formative phase proved very useful as a means of organising the disparate knowledge of social action into a process of intervening psychological, social, economic and behavioural variables. Major theories include those of Nicosia (1966), Howard and Sheth (1969) and Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (1968). These authors have developed models of consumer behaviour that have been used and widely adapted within consumer behaviour research. These models will now be discussed before those behaviour models that have been adapted for tourism are examined.

3.2.3 The 'classic' consumer behaviour models

The complexity of consumer behaviour has resulted in researchers putting forward integrated and conceptual frameworks, which are normally referred to as 'models'. Consumer behaviour models give a simplified version of the relationship of the various
factors that influence consumer behaviour, with the intention of trying to understand behavioural patterns. Three of the most significant consumer behaviour models will now be presented: the Nicosia model, the Howard-Sheth model and the Engel et al. model.

Nicosia (1966) was among the first authors to develop a consumer behaviour model that gained wide recognition as a way of accounting for the dynamics of consumer decision making. The model concentrates on the firm's attempts to communicate with the consumer and the consumers' predisposition to act in a certain way. The model is expressed as a series of linked fields where each field output acts as the input to the next field. This is illustrated in Figure 3.1 where the purchase field (field three) emerges from an information search and evaluation field (field two), resulting in its turn from a message exposure field (field one).

This notion of a "funnel" approach to decision making was pointed out by Lunn (1971) who stated that Nicosia placed great emphasis on the idea of the consumer predispositions moving from very broad intentions through the search and evaluation of alternative products, culminating in the selection of one particular brand.

Nicosia's model was criticized by commentators because it was not empirically tested and because of the fact that many of the variables were not defined (Lunn, 1971). Other authors such as Dubois (2000) have criticised the model for concentrating too much on individual decisions, with social and family influences left implicit.
The most frequently quoted of all consumer behaviour models is probably the Howard-Sheth model of buyer behaviour, which was developed in 1969. It is considered as the most significant attempt to integrate knowledge about consumer behaviour (Solomon, 2001). The model of the structure is presented in Figure 3.2.

As can be seen from the model input variables correspond to stimuli from the commercial and social environment. These input variables are then processed and stored through the interaction with the learning and perceptual constructs which affect the state of the buyer to produce a particular output. These constructs include motives, attitude, intention, and choice criteria among many others. Output variables correspond to the observable responses from the buyer. Affecting the whole decision-making process are exogenous variables that refer to the external influences, which include social class, culture, time...
pressure etc. The model is important because it highlights the importance of inputs to the consumer buying process and suggests ways in which the consumer orders these inputs before making a final decision.

Figure 3.2 The Howard and Sheth Model (1969)

Source: Howard and Sheth (1969)
Horton (1984) states that the Howard-Sheth model does have limitations, and does not explain all buyer behaviour. It is however, a comprehensive theory of buyer behaviour that has been developed as a result of empirical research.

Contrary to the two previous models the Engel, Kollat and Blackwell (EKB) model has been regularly updated since its first version was published in 1968. The five key steps in this model are identified as (a) need recognition, (b) search, (c) pre-purchase alternative evaluation, (d) purchase and (e) post-purchase satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

The EKB model which is illustrated in Figure 3.3 is similar to that of the Howard and Sheth model in that it distinguishes variables which exert an external influence on the decision making process. These variables known as ‘environmental influences’ and ‘individual differences’ include aspects such as culture, social class and family. The most distinctive feature is the strong emphasis on cognitive aspects, particularly information processing and memory, rather than the more behavioural models described previously.

Overall the models discussed can be found to share several similarities, which are best summarised by Swarbrooke & Horner (1999):

- They all exhibit consumer behaviour as a decision process.
- They share the belief that behaviour is rational and hence can, in principle, be explained.
- They believe that consumers limit the amount of information taken in, and move over time from general notions to more specific criteria and preference for alternatives.
- All the models include a notion of feedback, that is, outcomes from purchases will affect future purchases.
3.2.4 Perspectives on consumer decision-making

We can see from the consumer behaviour models put forward in the preceding sub-sections that consumer researchers have approached decision-making from a rational perspective. This traditional approach views people as rational human beings who calmly and carefully integrate as much information as possible with what they already know about a product. The most common way to illustrate this rational perspective is to look at
the process in five steps (Engel et al, 1995). Although these steps may vary slightly between authors the main elements include: ‘problem recognition’, ‘information search’, ‘evaluation of alternatives’, ‘choice of purchase’, and ‘evaluation of post-purchase experience’.

Solomon (2001) argues that the steps in decision-making process are followed by some consumers for some purchases, but is not an accurate portrayal of all purchase decisions. Consumers do not go through this elaborate sequence for every decision but instead they evaluate the effort of cognitive processing required in relation to the importance of the product. Therefore, there is a need to understand why and when consumers use extended problem solving or limited problem solving in their decision making process, especially within the context of tourism purchasing behaviour. These aspects will now be examined.

3.2.5 Types of consumer decisions

Decision-making can be viewed as a continuum, with habitual decision-making and extended problem solving at opposite ends, with limited problem-solving somewhere in between. These various types of consumer decision-making will now be discussed:

- Extended Problem Solving

Decisions involving extended problem solving correspond most closely with the traditional, rational decision-making perspective put forward by scholars in the previous sections. Consumers are highly involved with the product and will actively seek information in order to choose the right product. Kotler (1987) states that extended problem solving is usually required in selecting goods that are expensive, bought infrequently, risky, and highly self-expressive.
• Limited decision making

Consumers do not go through this elaborate sequence for every decision that they make. Instead of going through the five step process discussed earlier, they normally use limited decision making for low involvement, low risk purchase decisions. Solomon (2001) states that the products involved are generally lower value goods, in both financial and self-concept value, with consumers spending only a limited time in making up their minds between the alternatives. Kotler (1987) states that because some products are bought under conditions of low involvement, consumers do not search extensively for information about the brands, nor evaluate their characteristics, or make a weighty decision on which brand to buy.

• Habitual decision Making

Both extended and limited problem solving involve some degree of information search and deliberation, though they may vary in the degree to which these activities are undertaken. Habitual decision- making is made with little or no conscious effort with little thought, search or time given to the purchase. Decisions are largely routinised and sub-conscious due to the low importance of the products.

3.3 DECISION MAKING PROCESSES OF TOURISTS

It can be seen from the above explanation of buying decision behaviour that not all decisions are made using the traditional rational, extended problem solving perspective. Within the context of tourism, however, it is evident that generally decisions are made using the extended problem solving approach. The reasons for this will now be discussed in the next section looking at the characteristics of the tourism product.
3.3.1 Characteristics of the tourism product

From searching the literature it is clear that tourism products differ in a variety of ways to other products. Mathieson and Wall (1982) suggest that the buying decisions of tourists differ in following ways. The tourist product is ‘an experience rather than a good’; no tangible return on the investment can be calculated; the expenditure spent on holidays is often substantial; tourists can only visit the site where the attractions, facilities or services are produced and the provision cannot be stored and transported to the consumer. Goodall (1988) and Swarbrooke and Horner (1999) concentrate on the issues relating to intangibility and the fact that the purchase of a service never results in the ownership of anything. Goodall (1988) states that a holiday is a high-risk purchase because unlike most other retail purchases the tourist can neither directly observe what is being bought, nor try it out inexpensively. Swarbrooke and Horner (1999) continue by arguing that the intangible nature of tourist products and services means that the consumer can often have high levels of insecurity during purchase.

Therefore it seems evident from the characteristics of the tourism product that consumers will normally be highly involved and committed in the purchasing of tourism products. Goodall (1988) for instance states that in most instances consumers will perform extensive problem solving techniques before reaching decisions on where to holiday.

3.3.2 Tourist decision-making models

The models that are anchored in the positivist view on science are by far the most dominant models in consumer and tourist behaviour research. Authors have relied heavily on classical buyer behaviour theory as discussed previously.

Most authors consider tourist decision making as a hierarchical process, where decisions are thought to evolve in sequential steps. For example, Goodall (1991) models the holiday choice process on five key stages: problem identification (holiday motivations);
information search; evaluation of alternatives; choice and feedback. Mansfield (1992) also sees the tourists' destination choice as a process, stating the phases as: travel motivation; information gathering; assessing destination alternatives; undertaking travel and choice evaluation after travel.

In the tourism field, these decision-making processes have been adapted to explain the choice of the tourism products by applying the processes with influencing factors and creating comprehensive concepts of tourists' choice behaviour. Numerous researchers have developed these concepts (Scmoll, 1977; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Foster, 1985; Moutinho, 1987; Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Mill and Morrison, 1992). Their models are strongly based upon consumer behaviour theories to interpret how individual tourists make their choices of tourism destinations or products. The central axis of the models represent the decision-making process of the individual, with influencing factors added to the process which may affect the process at different stages. The influencing factors and characteristics will be examined in detail in the next chapter.

3.3.3 Tourism 'grand models' of decision-making

As mentioned previously, various authors have put forward decision-making models to help explain how tourists make their decisions. The models by Schmoll (1977), Mathieson and Wall (1982), Moutinho (1987) and Woodside and Lysonski (1989) will now be discussed to highlight the main aspects of these widely used models.

Figure 3.4 illustrates the model of the travel decision process put forward by Schmoll in 1977. This model, which is one of the earliest works in explaining travel decisions suggests that purchase decisions, are the result of the interaction of four fields of influence, which are both internal and external to the tourist. These four fields of influence are travel stimuli, personal and social determinants of travel behaviour, external variables, and characteristics and features of service destination. According to Schmoll (1977) these factors will have a bearing upon the four stages of the central decision
process, which he states are ‘travel desires’, ‘information search’, ‘assessment/comparison of travel alternatives, and ‘decision’.

Figure 3.4 The Schmoll Model (1977)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I. TRAVEL STIMULI</th>
<th>II. PERSONAL and SOCIAL DETERMINANTS of TRAVEL BEHAVIOUR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advertising and promotion</td>
<td>Socio-economic status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel literature</td>
<td>Personality features</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggestions/Recommendations from other travellers</td>
<td>Social influences and aspirations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel trade suggestions and recommendations</td>
<td>Attitudes and values</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>III. EXTERNAL VARIABLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Confidence in travel trade intermediary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Image of destination/service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous travel experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment of objective/subjective risks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constraints of time, cost, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IV. CHARACTERISTICS and FEATURES of SERVICE DESTINATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TRAVEL DESIRES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost/value relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality/quantity of travel information</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: taken from (Cooper et al., 1998)

Another frequently quoted model is by Mathieson and Wall (1982), which is illustrated in Figure 3.5. It is clear that the major steps in the decision-making process of this model are similar to other models, but with the role of images being stressed more profoundly in the decision-making process. Like Schmoll (1977), Mathieson and Wall (1982) have put forward four fields of influence that may have an impact on the central axis of the decision-making process. These influences follow those of Schmoll as they include aspects
such as tourist profile, trip features, travel awareness, and destination resources and characteristics. These influences can further be characterised as follows:

- Tourist profile – (age, education, income, attitudes, previous experience)
- Travel Awareness – (image of destination’s facilities and services)
- Destination resources and characteristics – (attractions and features)
- Trip features – (distance, trip duration and perceived risk of the area visited)

Figure 3.5 Mathieson and Wall Model (1982)

In his investigation of tourist behaviour in Portugal, Moutinho (1987) also put forward a decision making model (see Figure 3.6). The model in essence is again very similar to that of Schmoll in 1977, in terms of the main stages in the travel decision process as well as the four groups of factors influencing the process. The flow of relationships is slightly
more complex however, with travel stimuli and social and personal determinants affecting the motivation to take a holiday, whereas the external variables and destination considerations play more of a part in the information search of the process.

Figure 3.6 The Moutinho Model (1987)

![Diagram of the Moutinho Model (1987)]

Source: Moutinho (1987)

Woodside and Lysonski (1989) proposed another general model of traveler destination choice (see Figure 3.7). Unlike the other models discussed thus far, this model was actually empirically tested which has given the model a degree of substance. The Woodside and Lysonski model (1989) also differs from the previous models by integrating the notion of choice set models into the decision making process (the concept of choice set models is discussed in more detail in Section 3.4). As with the previous models, the model put forward by Woodside and Lysonski (1989) illustrates influencing factors that can have an effect on the decision making process. They state that there are
two main types of influencing factors; external and internal inputs. The external inputs are the marketing variables (the 4 p’s) and the internal traveler variables are factors such as previous experience, socio-demographics, lifestyles, and value system.

**Figure 3.7 Woodside and Lysonski Model (1989)**

As mentioned, the Woodside and Lysonski (1989) model was produced for use in an empirical study, Figure 3.7 illustrates the relationships that were hypothesised by using arrows. Empirical evidence indicated that destination awareness and, in particular, the categorisation process in four sets, is positively influenced by both the marketing variables and affective associations. Woodside and Lysonski (1989) also found empirical support for tourists’ preferences for particular destinations being a positive function of the rank order of those destinations in tourists’ consideration sets.
3.3.4 Critique of the ‘classic’ tourism decision-making models

As stated before, because the travel decision process is very sophisticated and influenced by many factors, potential tourists can become highly involved in the decision-making process. The models reviewed previously attempt at profiling the process, however, the problems of these comprehensive models may be found in several areas.

For instance the models are mostly descriptive and conceptual without empirical evidence to support them directly. Also, the models have developed a view of the tourist’s behaviour that is very rational and sequenced, whereas in reality the vacationers’ decision-making processes can be much less rational than described in the traditional models. As Phillips, Olson, and Baumgartner (1995) point out, traditional decision-making models are relatively irrelevant for describing choices where emotional considerations play an important role.

Woodside and MacDonald (1994, p.32) also recognize that “while useful, such models fail to capture the rich interactions of decisions and behaviours of the travel party and the destination environment experienced by the travel party.” Gilbert (1991) makes a similar point by stressing that the importance placed on an individual’s decision-making may decrease the credibility of the models in explaining family-based holiday choice. Gilbert (1991) continues by suggesting that this is a major drawback in the theories since holiday choice usually involves decisions made by other members in the travel groups i.e. families or friends. This would seem to be a valid point as previous studies have shown that holiday choices tend to be the result of combined decision-masking between husband and wife (Jenkins, 1978; Myers and Moncrief, 1978).
3.4 CHOICE SETS

As was discussed previously, traditionally consumer researchers have approached decision-making from a rational, behavioural perspective. This is true of the models just discussed where the processes and elements involved in the individuals decision-making were examined. According to Goodall (1991) apart from the comprehensive models incorporating the behavioural approach, academics have also examined in depth the issue of choice set models.

The behaviourist approach normally examines each aspect of the decision-making process, which, according to Solomon (2001) normally takes the form of problem recognition; information search; evaluation of alternatives; product choice and outcomes. Those researchers examining issues relating to choice set models tend to concentrate on one part of the process – the evaluation of alternatives. This can be described as the process of narrowing down product choices to an acceptable number by placing alternatives into various sets.

Conceptualisation of the decision-making process as a narrowing down of alternatives was first articulated by Nicosia (1966), who, in his theory of buyer behaviour, presented the final purchase act as 'emerging from a funnelling process'. However, he offered no explanation for this process, but the notion of choice sets has provided an answer (Crompton, 1992). It was first introduced into the consumer behaviour literature by Howard (1963) and later elaborated upon by Howard and Sheth (1969). It offers a conceptualisation of how potential tourists narrow down the number of destinations considered and reach a final decision. The process explains how the decision is simplified so a potential tourist is required to process only a fraction of the destination-related information to which he or she could be exposed. The approach assumes that individuals seek information and evaluate the destination alternatives that are available to them.
Many researchers have studied the issues relating to the funnelling process and have reported that the choice processes used by consumers that involve non-routinised, high-involvement purchases occur in stages (Payne, 1976; Bettman and Park, 1980). Within the literature there have been many different terms and groupings proposed for the sets in likely stages which will now be discussed.

Before continuing, it should be made clear that the discussion will be limited to describing the structure of the choice sets that have been conceptualised as likely to occur and to considering the implications of the sets. The actual processes that determine the composition of the sets at each stage in the decisions process are not considered here, but are discussed at length in the next chapter.

3.4.1 The structure of choice sets

Within modern marketing literature, one of the most common structures for choice sets is to divide them into three elements: the evoked set; the inept set and the inert set (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000). According to Sheth (1974) the evoked set consists of the alternatives actively considered during a consumer's choice process and is generally small in number. Narayana and Markin (1975) defined the reject set of brands, or 'inept set', as those brands the consumer has rejected from his or her purchase consideration, either because they have involved unpleasant previous experiences or because they have heard negative comments about them from other information sources, such as friends. Narayana and Markin (1975) also proposed an 'inert set' of brands as a product category for which the consumer has neither a positive nor negative evaluation as they have no awareness of the product.

Woodside and Sherrell (1977) applied these three same elements to tourism. They described the evoked set as travel destinations that the consumer is aware of and has some chance greater than zero of visiting within some time period (e.g., a year). The inert set as those destinations that the consumer has no awareness of, and finally, the inept set,
Chapter Three Literature Review

which are the destinations that the consumer is aware of and has zero chance of visiting within some time period. Although these terms are the most widely used within the literature to describe particular sets, many academics have used different descriptions. These will now be discussed in relation to choice sets in the funnelling process described earlier.

In the context of tourism, there appears to be some agreement that the selection of a vacation destination goes through three central core stages, although the terms to describe those stages differ within the literature. The first stage is the development of an initial set of destinations that has traditionally been called the awareness set, which consists of all the locations that might be considered as potential destinations for a vacation before any decision process about a trip has been activated. The subjective beliefs about destination attributes that are responsible for locations being included in this initial set are formulated from passive information catching or incidental learning (Crompton and Ankomah, 1992).

Once a decision has been made to go on a vacation, then the second stage is launched. This involves undertaking an initial active search to acquire information that will enable the relative utility of destinations in the initial set to be evaluated and reduced to a small number of probable destinations that will make up the late consideration set or evoked set.

The final stage involves a more thorough active search to determine which of those alternatives in the evoked set will be selected as the final destination. (Thompson and Cooper 1979; Woodside and Lyonski 1989; Woodside and Sherrell 1977; Um and Crompton 1990). Those alternatives eliminated from each stage are included respectively in the awareness, unavailable and unawareness sets or the inept and inert sets.
3.4.2 Critique of choice sets

According to Spiggle and Sewell (1987) choice sets are most likely to be applicable when purchases have high involvement, with consumers seeking information and evaluating alternatives. As was discussed previously when the characteristics of tourism products were examined, tourism purchases normally involve high involvement. It is in these high involvement situations that the choice set structure is most useful.

However, according to Crompton and Ankomah (1992) in some situations (e.g., a vacation that is relatively short, close to home, and low cost) destination selection is likely to be a low-involvement decision. Such decisions are characterized by a relative lack of active information seeking about alternative destinations, little comparative evaluation between alternatives, a perception that the alternative destinations are similar, and the individual having no special preference for a particular destination (Zaichkowsky 1985). In these situations, selection decisions do not follow an extended problem-solving approach, and the concept of a choice sets structure is unlikely to be useful.

3.4.3 Combination models

As was stated previously, there have been two groups of tourist choice models developed: behavioural models and opportunity set models. The previous pages have attempted to highlight and analyse these two types of models individually. Some researchers however, have attempted to incorporate both of these approaches in their theories (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Um and Crompton 1990). As the Woodside and Lysonski model was discussed at length previously, this sub-section will concentrate on the model put forward by Um and Crompton (1991) to illustrate how both approaches can be formulated together.

Figure 3.8 illustrates the Um and Crompton model (1991). As the model demonstrates, the framework is based on three sets of variables. Firstly the external inputs represent
influences from both the social and marketing environment. They are classified into destination attributes, promotional messages, and social stimuli. Secondly, internal inputs derive from the vacationer’s socio-psychological characteristics (personal characteristics, motives, values and attitudes). Finally cognitive constructs represent the integration of the internal and external inputs, into the awareness set of destinations and the evoked set of destinations (Um and Crompton, 1991).

**Figure 3.8 Um and Crompton Model (1991)**

There is thus a cognitive evolution that Um and Crompton categorise in five sets of processes. Firstly, the formation of beliefs about destination attributes (through passive information catching, or incidental learning). This is then followed by the initiation of the destination choice process after the generic decision to go on holiday has been made (including the consideration of situational constraints). Next, the evolution of an evoked set from the awareness set of destinations will take place before the formation of beliefs about evoked destination attributes (through active information search). Finally there is the selection of a specific travel destination from the evoked set.
3.5 SUMMARY

This chapter has reviewed the literature on decision-making theory, both generally and also specifically in relation to the field of tourism. Initially the chapter examined the main concepts of consumer behaviour as a basis for discussing the ‘grand models’ of consumer behaviour. These models were discussed to highlight how tourism scholars have adapted these consumer behaviour models to the tourism field to explain the decision-making processes of tourists. These models in turn were critically analysed to illustrate the weaknesses inherent within these models. As well as the behavioural tourism models, choice sets were also discussed to highlight the various approaches that scholars have taken to understand the notion of how and why tourists choose particular destinations.

From reviewing the various behavioural decision-making models, it was clear that many consisted of two main parts; the actual central decision making process and influencing factors and variables that have an impact on the decision process. As the decision-making process has now been discussed the next three chapters will examine those variables that can have an influence on that process.
3.6 REFERENCES


Chapter Four

INFLUENCES ON THE DECISION MAKING PROCESS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the last chapter, literature on decision-making theory was reviewed, both generally and also specifically in relation to the field of tourism. It was clear from examining the various models (Schmoll, 1977; Mathieson and Wall 1982; Moutinho, 1987; Woodside and Lyonski, 1989) that apart from the core decision-making processes that were apparent in each model there were also influencing factors and variables that have an impact on the decision-making process.

These factors are normally grouped into four main fields of influence; energizers of demand, tourist roles, effectors of demand and determinants of demand (Cooper et al, 1993). According to Schmoll (1977) these factors will have a bearing upon the stages of the central decision process, which he states, are ‘problem recognition’, ‘information search’, ‘evaluation of alternatives’, ‘choice of purchase’, and ‘evaluation of post-purchase experience’.

The main fields of influence put forward by Cooper et al (1993) will be used as the framework from which the influencing factors will be discussed in relation to tourist decision-making. Most current theory regarding tourism and purchasing behavior tends to fall within one or more of these four categories. For a comprehensive list of
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the various academics that have contributed to tourism research in these four areas, the reader should refer to Gilbert's work on this topic (Gilbert, 1991, p.90-91).

4.2 ENERGISERS OF DEMAND

The first section of this chapter examines 'energisers of demand'. According to Cooper et al. (1993) energisers of demand include both personal and social determinants of travel behaviour that can influence the decision-making process of tourists, by determining consumer goals in the form of travel needs, desires and expectations. Central to a theory of travel needs and goals is the aspect of motivation, which will now be discussed.

4.2.1 Defining motivation

Cooper et. al (1993, p31) state that the forces of motivation that lead a tourist to decide to visit a destination can be described as 'energisers of demand'. It was clear from examining the field of influence on the decision-making tourism models in the previous chapter, that the role of motivation was of paramount importance in each of the four models discussed. Crompton (1979, p.410) best describes this importance by stating “although there are many variables that may contribute to explaining tourist behaviour, motivation is a critical variable as it is the compelling force behind all behaviour.” As an initiator of action, motivation has been widely examined by a number of authors within the tourism field (Cohen, 1972; Dann 1977,1981; Crompton, 1979; Pearce and Caltababiano 1983; Goodall 1988). Most authors have endeavoured to research motivation in order to understand the reasons tourists travel and why they choose particular destinations. Most theories of motivation in travel have stated or implied the concept of equilibrium. Crompton (1979, p. 409) states “tension in the motivational system occurs when some need arises and that this disturbance of equilibrium drives the organism to elicit a course of action that is expected to satisfy the need and to restore equilibrium.” The action ceases when equilibrium is restored as a result of the need being met.
4.2.2 Content theories of motivation

Central to most content theories of motivation is the concept of need. As needs are seen as the force that arouses motivated behaviour, it is assumed that, to understand human motivation, it is necessary to discover what needs people have and how they can be fulfilled. One of the earliest and best known content theories of motivation put forward to understand peoples' needs was by Maslow (1943).

Maslow’s theory classified human beings’ needs into five groups (physiological, security, social, self-esteem and self-actualisation). It is considered as the most influential theory due to the fact that it has influenced other motivation theories, especially those dealing with tourism motivation. The five needs are arranged in a hierarchy of importance, with higher needs not considered as important unless the lower needs are fulfilled. Maslow’s theory has remained popular due to its high degree of simplicity, even so, it has been under severe criticism. Witt and Wright (1992), for instance, criticize the theory for not including several important needs, due to the fact that they may not fit conveniently into the hierarchical framework.

Instead Witt and Wright (1992) view the classification of needs put forward by Murray (1938) as a more comprehensive list of human needs that have an influence on human behaviour. Under Murray’s scheme there are a total of forty-four needs, fourteen physiological and thirty psychological. However, as this classification is quite complex most researchers still adopt the hierarchy of needs put forward by Maslow. Table 4.1 gives a selected example of both physiological and psychological needs put forward by Murray (cited in Ross, 1994, p.20).

The concept of motivation as a major determinant of tourism behaviour is widely used by tourism authors. For instance McIntosh, Goeldner and Richie (1995) utilise four categories of motivation to explain tourist motivation, which are:

- **Physical motivators:** those needs related to refreshment of body and mind, health purposes, sport and pleasure. These motivators are linked to those activities that will reduce tension.
Cultural motivators: those identified by the desire to see and know more about other cultures, for example, to find out about the natives of a country, their lifestyle, music, art, folklore and dance.

Table 4.1 Examples of Murray’s physiological and psychological needs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Examples of Murray’s Physiological Needs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sentience:</strong> The inclination for sensuous gratification particularly from objects in contact with the body: taste sensations and tactile sensations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Heat and Cold:</strong> The tendency to maintain an equable temperature; to avoid extremes of heat and cold.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Activity:</strong> The need to expend built-up energy; to discharge energy in uninhibited movement or thought.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Passivity:</strong> The need for relaxation rest and sleep: the desire to relinquish the will, to relax, to drift, to daydream to receive impressions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Examples of Murray’s Psychological Needs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conservance:</strong> To collect, repair, clean and preserve things. To protect against damage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Achievement:</strong> To overcome obstacles. To exercise power. To strive to do something difficult as well and as quickly or independently as possible. To attain a high standard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Recognition:</strong> To elicit praise and commendation. To demand respect. To boast and exhibit one’s accomplishments. To seek distinction, social prestige, honours or high office.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Interpersonal motivators: this group includes a desire to meet new people, visit friends or relatives, and to seek new and different experiences. Travel is an escape from routine relationships with friends or the home environment.

Status and prestige motivators: these include a desire for continuation of education (e.g. personal development, ego enhancement and sensual indulgence). Such motivators are seen to be concerned with the desire for recognition and attention from others, in order to boost the personal ego.

4.2.3 Motivational ‘push’ and ‘pull’ theory

Other attempts to explain tourist motivation have utilised the notion of push and pull factors put forward by Dann (1977). The study of tourist motivation based on the concepts of push and pull factors have been generally accepted within academic material (Crompton 1979, Pearce and Caltabiano 1983). This concept of “push” and “pull” is a two-dimensional approach in that people travel because they are pushed by their own internal forces and pulled by the external forces of the destination’s specific attributes once the decision to travel has been made. Dann (1977) states that while a specific resort may hold a number of attractions for the potential tourist, their actual decision to visit such a destination is consequent on their prior need to travel.

The ‘push factors’ for a vacation are socio-psychological motives, whereas, the ‘pull’ factors are motives aroused by the destination rather than emerging from within the traveler themselves (Crompton, 1979). Goodall (1988) and Crompton (1979) have examined the push factors, which they believe motivate tourists to undertake a tourist experience. Goodall (1988, p.3) states “push factors are related to the home environment, such as a break from work, the escape from everyday routine or the respite from everyday worries.” Crompton (1979) continues by suggesting that push factors in holiday choice could be reduced to a small number of deep-rooted motivations, which reflect the psychological condition of the individual. He identified nine motives, seven classified as socio-psychological or push motives and two classified as cultural or pull motives. The push motives were escape from perceived mundane environment, exploration and evaluation of self; relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships and facilitation of social interaction.
Chapter Four  Literature Review

The pull motives were novelty and education.

Dann, in his appraisal of tourism motivation (1981), recognised fantasy as an important push factor, suggesting the desire to escape the monotony of everyday life and the enhancement of self-image as key motivational factors. Mannel and Iso-Ahola (1987) identify two main types of push and pull factors, personal and interpersonal. They suggest that people are motivated to travel to leave behind the personal or interpersonal problems of their environment and to obtain compensating personal or interpersonal rewards. The personal rewards are mainly self-determination, sense of competence, challenge, learning, exploration, and relaxation. The interpersonal rewards arise from social interaction.

4.3 TOURIST ROLES

The second influence on purchasing behaviour to be explored, which has received scholarly attention is that of tourist roles. In order to investigate this area, this section has been divided into two parts. Initially behavioural typologies will be examined, detailing the various typologies that have been formulated. The second part of the section will then investigate aspects relating to group and family influence.

4.3.1 Tourist Typologies

Thus far there has been little recognition that humans are indeed individual, each having different motivations, personalities and attitudes towards products and services. Like any consumers, tourists are not homogeneous. Different tourists will have different needs and goals and will be motivated by different types of holiday. Therefore, there will now be a review of the research carried out into what is termed tourist typologies. Several researchers have recognised the heterogeneous nature of tourists by proposing tourist typologies. These classification schemes have attempted to characterise differences among tourists in terms of socio-demographic characteristics, motivations, tourist activities, travel experiences, and lifestyle and values.
One of the most enduring tourist classification schemes is Cohen’s (1972) ‘Sociological Tourist Typology’. This was based on the degree to which tourists seek novelty or familiarity in their travels. He states that there are four tourist roles across the spectrum of possible combinations of novelty and familiarity. These are the ‘organised mass tourist’, the ‘individual mass tourist’, the ‘explorer’, and the ‘drifter’.

The organised mass tourist is the least adventurous and remains largely confined to an environmental bubble throughout the trip, purchasing all-inclusive tours or package holidays. The individual mass tourist is more autonomous and free from the restrictions of the previous group. The explorer seeks new areas but would sometimes wish to step back into more comfortable conditions and finally there is the drifter, who ventures furthest away from the beaten track and is almost wholly immersed in the host culture (Cohen, 1972). From the above typologies it is clear that different types of tourists may view destinations affected by terrorism differently. Indeed, those termed ‘drifters’ may enjoy visiting locations that have experienced terrorist activity, wanting first hand experiences of areas that suffer the problems of terrorism.

Another popular tourism typology classification system based on motivation is the theory from Plog (1974). According to Plog, travellers can be classified along two dimensions: allocentrism and psychocentrism. Tourists who are ‘Psychocentric’ tend to be conservative in their travel patterns, preferring safe destinations, package tours and the familiar. Allocentrics, on the other hand, are adventurous and motivated to travel/discover new destinations preferring independent holidays with greater involvement in local cultures. According to Cooper et al. (1993) the majority of the population fall between these extremes in an area which Plog terms ‘mid-centric’. Plog also found that those who were at the lower end of income scales were more likely to be psychocentric types whereas at the upper income band there was a greater likelihood of being allocentric. Although the model proposed by Plog (1974) is one of the most widely cited various authors have criticised his theory. For instance, Gilbert (1991) argues that Plog’s theory is difficult to apply, as tourists will travel with different motivations on different occasions. Smith (1990) also states that the theory is quite cultural bound and questioned the applicability of the model to countries other than the United States.
Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992), suggested that personality traits are used in explaining individuals’ risk taking tendencies and this lends support to the tourist personality continuums developed by Plog (1974) which classified travellers into psychocentric (risk averse) and allocentric (risk taking) personality types. According to Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) situational factors and types of risk perceived determine how potential travellers respond to risky situations.

4.3.2 Social Influences

The remaining part of this section will investigate aspects relating to group and family influence. Crompton (1981, p.551) states “the interactive nature of social groups exerts a strong influence on an individual's behaviour, with the advice of friends and relatives as the most popular form of travel information, ahead of other types of media communications”. Dann (1977) and Crompton (1979) see social groups serving to reinforce or modify psychogenic tension states. They appear to exercise at least three kinds of effects on destination selection. They are: to directly persuade an individual to visit a destination; to exert a normative influence which moulds an individual's image and opinion of a destination; and finally social group members living in distant locations exert an influence on destination selection.

The family can also be a major influence on the consumer behaviour of its members. Family decision-making assigns roles to specific members of the family and decision-making may be shared, or made by one person (Cooper et al., 1993). Dann (1977) highlights that children can exercise a substantial influence on destination decisions. This influence can be exerted either by parents making decisions with their children’s welfare uppermost in mind, or more directly through persistent request from the children themselves.

4.4 EFFECTORS OF DEMAND

Once the initial need to travel is established, the energizers of demand discussed previously can either be heightened or lessened due to travel stimuli. Travel stimulus comprises of advertising and promotion, travel literature, suggestions and reports
from other travelers and travel trade suggestions and recommendations. According to Cooper et al. (1993) through these ‘effectors of demand’ the consumer will have developed ideas of tourism products through the process of learning, attitudes and associations from promotional messages and information. In the tourism models put forward in the previous chapter, there were various names used for travel stimuli. For instance, although Schmoll (1977) and Moutinho (1987) named the field of influence as travel stimuli, Mathison and Wall (1982) termed this influence as travel awareness and Woodside and Lysonski (1989) termed their field of influence ‘marketing variables’, which took into consideration aspects such as advertising and personal selling.

It is clear that marketing variables and travel stimuli act as significant influencing factors on the core decision-making processes of tourists. Indeed the induced image formulated by destination marketing images and the more organic images will be discussed in depth in Chapter 6 as recognition of the impact that this area has on decision-making.

4.5 DETERMINANTS OF DEMAND

Much of the research within tourism has been purposed with the central focus on determining the reasons that people travel (McIntosh and Goeldner, 1986). Although there are ‘energisers of demand’ which are those motivational forces that lead a tourist to undertake a holiday, the ability to do so will depend on a number of factors. According to Cooper et al. (1993, p.40) these factors can be termed ‘determinants of demand’ and represent the ‘parameters of possibility’ for the individual. The determinants of tourism demand can affect purchasing behaviour in two ways. First of all, there are influences that can affect the type and level of participation, such as, gender, age, family-makeup, education and life cycle. Secondly there are barriers to participation that can result in people not traveling at all. This section, will now discuss these two areas in an attempt to understand the effects of determinants on purchasing behaviour.
4.5.1 Tourists' personal characteristics as determinants to travel

Within this sub-section those personal characteristics that can affect the type and level of participation will be discussed. The influence of demographic variables on the decision-making process were included under the term 'personal and social determinants of travel behaviour' within the tourism decision-making model put forward by Schmoll (1977), which also included aspects of motivation discussed earlier. Other authors, however, placed these influencing factors into an independent group. For instance, Mathieson and Wall (1982) termed these influencing factors as the ‘tourist profile’, whereas, Woodside and Lysonski (1989) termed them as ‘traveller variables’. The main personal characteristics to be examined will be gender, age, family-makeup, education and life cycle.

**Gender:** Gender identity can be seen as being as much a psychological as a biological construct, with a profound influence on consumption (Dubois, 2000). While there are many studies referring to the differences between genders in the participation rates of leisure pursuits and the nature of constraints that exists (Jackson & Henderson, 1995), there are few that examine the role of gender in holiday-taking (Ryan, 1995). The literature based on gender and leisure participation reveals a substantial amount of research that shows the influence of gender on behaviour. One constraint that has been shown to significantly affect the leisure lives of women is the ethic of care (Henderson and Allen, 1991). The ethic of care evolves as a difference between genders when women neglect their own leisure in order to provide for the needs - including physical, social and emotional needs of children, spouses or friends (Henderson and Allen, 1991). Other constraints put forward by Shaw (1994) show differences between genders, which are linked to broader power-based gender relations. According to Whyte and Shaw (1994), research has consistently shown women to have high levels of fear of violence, which has affected participation and enjoyment of leisure. The differences between genders has also been linked to body image. Garfinkel, Garner and Goldbloom (1987) state that low body image along with low self-esteem and lack of confidence may reduce participation in particular activities by females.
Age: The next personal characteristic to be examined is the respondent’s age. Gitelson & Kerstetter (1990) state that a person’s behaviour, attitudes and perceptions can be associated with the characteristic of age. Dubois (2000, p.48) states that age, out of all the demographic factors, is the one which most influences purchasing behaviour.

Family makeup: The marital status and presence of children within a household can also have an influence on the decision-making process of tourists. Research in leisure behaviour has long recognised that obligations placed on parents by young children act as barriers to participation in various activities (Raport and Raport, 1975; Witt and Goodale, 1981). From the research carried out by Witt and Goodale (1981), leisure barrier scores peaked for parents when children around the age of six were present in the household.

Education: According to Mathieson & Wall (1982) education influences attitudes, perceptions and motivations that affect decisions. Cooper et al. (1993) state that educational attainment is an important determinant of travel propensity as education broadens horizons and stimulates the desire to travel.

Life Cycle: The family life cycle has been used in behaviour research within the tourism field by a variety of academics. For instance, Cooper et al. (1993) state that although the propensity to travel is closely related to a person’s chronological age, ‘domestic age’ better discriminates between types of tourist demand. Domestic age refers to the stage in the life cycle reached by an individual and different stages are characterised by distinctive holiday demands and levels of travel propensity. A family evolves over time and the notion of a ‘family life-cycle’ aims to structure this evolution by identifying a number of key stages. Dubois (2000) conceptualised the life cycle of families in the USA, from bachelor to solitary stage, as follows:

1. Bachelor stage; young single people not living at home.
2. Newly married couples; young, no children.
3. Full nest I; young married couples with dependent children.
4. Full nest II; married couples with dependent children over 6 years old.
5. Full nest III; married couples with dependent children.
6. Empty nest; older married couples with no children living with them. Head of household in labour force.
7. As above but head of household is retired.
8. Solitary survivor; older single people in the labour force.
9. As above but retired.

The above family life-cycle has been criticised for focusing too much on the traditional family unit. As a result, Solomon (2001) puts forward a modern family life cycle, which takes into consideration the increase in non-traditional families. The categories within Solomon's modern family-life cycle are Bachelor 1,2 and 3; Young Couple; Childless Couple, Older Couple; Full Nest 1,2, and 3. Introspective of differences in details, there is agreement that stages in the life cycle are an important factor in decision-making.

4.5.2 Barriers to participation

Determinants of tourism demand can also affect purchasing behaviour in that potential tourists encounter barriers to participation. Examination of the literature in this area showed that research into barriers to participation in tourism activities has been limited (Pearce, 1987; Haukeland, 1990; Ross, 1994). The majority of research into barriers to participation has been related to the leisure discipline, with a number of studies also identifying financial cost and lack of time as being the predominant reasons for non-participation (Jackson & Dunn 1991; Jackson & Henderson 1995; McCarville & Smale 1993). McIntosh et al. (1995, p.239) researched potential barriers to travel and stated that they fall into six broad categories. They are:

Cost: A certain level of discretionary income is required to enable participation in tourism. Tourism is an unobtainable luxury for the majority of the world's population, in both undeveloped and developed areas. Tourism also needs to compete with other discretionary items for available funds.

Lack of Time: A barrier to tourism participation can also be caused through lack of time. This may be due to work or family commitments.
Health Limitations: Those who suffer ill-health may find it difficult to travel. According to McIntosh et al. (1995) heart disease and mental/physical handicaps in particular act as major constraints on travel.

Family Circumstances: As was discussed previously, the marital status and presence of children can have an influence on being able to take a holiday. Having to care for an elderly member of the family can also be a barrier to participation.

Fear and Safety: Under this category, McIntosh et al. (1995, p.239) state “wars, unrest and terrorism and the subsequent negative publicity about an affected area can create doubt and fear in the mind of the prospective traveller”. Buckley and Klemm, (1993) agree stating that fear and insecurity are major barriers to travel. They also highlight that in addition to the openly stated fear there is often an expression of a lack of interest to travel, which can mask an underlying fear. This corresponds with the tourism models put forward in the previous chapter, that stress perceived risk as a major external variable.

Therefore, it seems that even at this early stage of a person being motivated to seek a holiday there are barriers due to the threat of violence and subsequent fear. As Richter and Waugh (1986, p.21) point out tourism is an “extremely fragile and vulnerable industry due to perceived instability and lack of safety.” It is clear though that when motivation to travel is sufficiently powerful, the barriers may be overcome, but forces may still influence the destination selected (McIntosh et al., 1995).

4.6 SUMMARY

This chapter endeavoured to review the key relationships between influencing variables and factors and the resulting impacts on the tourist decision-making process. In order to examine these influences they were grouped together under four headings; energizers of demand, tourist roles, effectors of demand and determinants of demand. It was of importance to highlight these influences as they have a direct bearing upon the stages of the central decision process, discussed in the previous chapter.
The final section of this chapter examined the ‘determinants of demand’. It was clear that although tourists may be motivated to travel there are constraints that cause then to cancel or change their plans. The next chapter will now discuss in length the external variable of perceived risk in an attempt to illustrate its significance as an influencing variable in decision-making.
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Chapter Five

ASPECTS OF RISK ON THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the influencing variables that have an impact on the central decision-making process of tourists was discussed in detail. It was evident from examining past literature and models on tourist decision-making, that the external variable of perceived risk was an important influencing factor in the decision-making process. Due to the relevance of this influencing factor to the research topic, it was decided that the aspect of risk in the decision-making should constitute an individual chapter, independent from the other influencing factors discussed previously.

The chapter consists of six sections investigating the role of risk in decision-making generally and towards tourism in particular. The first section examines the role of perception, highlighting the core concepts of the perceptual process. Perception of risk is then discussed, examining theory relating to the notion of risk and choice. The remaining sections will then analyse perceived risk in relation to risk in tourism; risk in tourist decision-making and terrorism risk in tourist decision-making.
5.2 PERCEPTION

Within this section, the perceptual process will be highlighted to enable an understanding of the core concepts involved in the area of perception. Issues relating to sensory stimuli, exposure, attention and interpretation will be examined to permit a fuller understanding for future sections, which will examine the role of perceived risk.

5.2.1 Defining Perception

Perception can be defined as “the process by which people select, organise and interpret sensory stimuli into a meaningful and coherent picture” (Moutinho, 1987, p. 11). The study of perception is therefore, an understanding of the process by which sensations are absorbed by the consumer and are then used to interpret the surrounding world. That process is illustrated in Figure 5.1 below.

Figure 5.1 An overview of the perceptual process

As can be seen in Figure 5.1, there are three main stages that make up the perceptual process; exposure, attention and interpretation. Before considering each of these stages, there is a need to consider the sensory systems that provide sensations in the first place.
5.2.2 Sensory Stimuli

The inputs picked up by our five senses are the raw data that begin the perceptual process. The stimuli of sights, sounds, smells, taste and textures are transferred into the sensory receptors, which are, eyes, ears, nose, mouth and skin. The process of perception is a complex, subjective phenomenon, which occurs largely instantaneously and subconsciously. All individuals perceive differently. Although all humans possess the same five senses through which we apprehend a stimulus object, we tend to organise and interpret information an individual way (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000).

5.2.3 Exposure to Stimuli

The first step in the perceptual process is exposure to stimuli. In order for individuals to perceive a stimulus, it needs to come within the range of an individual’s sensory receptors (Solomon, 2001). For information from the environment to be noticed, it must be within the absolute threshold of an individual, which is the minimum amount of stimulation that can be detected by a sensory channel. Not all individuals have the same level of sensory thresholds, with some people better at picking up sensory information than others.

5.2.4 Attention to Stimuli

The next stage of the perceptual process is the attention given to sensory stimuli in the environment. Attention refers to the extent to which processing activity is devoted to a particular stimulus (Solomon, 2001). Consumers are often in a state of sensory overload, exposed to far more information than they can or are willing to process. According to Mayo and Jarvis (1981) a person’s personal environment is so cluttered and complex that it is necessary to economise one’s perceptual efforts, in essence to be selective in what one notices and remembers. Perception in fact is often characterised as a process of “successive filtering of stimuli” (Mayo & Jarvis: 1981: 33). This process is also referred to as the ‘perceptual selection’, where individuals attend to only a small portion of the stimuli to which they are exposed. Individuals usually attend to those stimuli, which are regarded as relevant to his or her needs and
interests, and neglects and distorts inconsistent stimuli. Since people cannot perceive everything, they thus become selective in what they allow themselves to notice.

Mayo and Jarvis (1981) suggest two types of perceptual filters based on past experiences that influence what individuals decide to process. Perceptual vigilance is one such filter, where individuals will only notice stimuli that are relevant to a current un-fulfilled need. Perceptual defence is another form of selective attention, where individuals block out stimuli that are non-essential, irrelevant or otherwise personally or culturally unacceptable. Individuals can also distort stimuli in order to support their own beliefs and expectations, rather than challenge their preconceptions.

In addition to the individual’s psychological mindset, which leads to the attention of stimuli, the characteristics of the stimulus itself play an important role in determining what individuals pay attention to. According to Dubois (2000) certain stimuli are more likely to have attention producing properties than others. The differences can be created in several ways: size, colour, intensity, contrast and position.

5.2.5 Interpretation of Stimuli

The third stage of the perceptual process examines how an individual organises and interprets data to which they have been exposed. Interpretation refers to the meaning that individuals assign to sensory stimuli once they have received the stimuli into their sensory receptors. Solomon (2001, p. 58) states, "just as people differ in terms of the stimuli that they perceive, the eventual assignment of meanings to these stimuli varies as well."

A factor that determines how a stimulus will be interpreted is its assumed relationship with sensations and images. According to Solomon (2001) an individual’s brain tends to relate incoming sensations to others already in the memory based on some fundamental organisational principles. These principles are based on Gestalt psychology, a school of thought that maintains that people derive meaning from the totality of a set of stimuli, rather than any individual stimulus. According to Gestalt psychologists individuals perceive stimuli in terms of their unified wholeness to facilitate a pattern of understanding (Dubois, 2000).
The Gestalt perspective provides several principles relating to the way stimuli are organised. These principles include: the law of similarity, a principle based on the theory that similar objects are perceived to belong together; the law of proximity, a principle stating that those objects that are physically close together are perceived as belonging together, and finally; the law of context, a principle based on the theory that individuals perceive objects according to the context in which they are perceived (Dubois, 2000).

5.3 PERCEPTION OF RISK

Thus far, the perceptual process has been examined in order to permit a fuller understanding of the role of perception in decision-making. This section will now investigate the issue of perceived risk, looking at definitions and models of risk in decision-making.

5.3.1 Defining Risk

The central decision-making process discussed in Chapter Three showed a process that consisted of five key stages, which were: problem identification information search; evaluation of alternatives; choice and feedback. When dealing with aspects of risk, the problem lies within the fourth stage – that of choice. Since the outcome of choice can only be known in the future, the consumer is forced to deal with uncertainty, or risk. A choice also involves risk when some outcomes are more desirable than others (Roehl and Fesenmaier, 1992).

Raymond Bauer was one of the first academics to view consumer behaviour as risk taking. He based his view on the concept that: “consumer behaviour involves risk in the sense that any action of a consumer will produce consequences which they cannot anticipate with anything approximating certainty, and some of which are likely to be unpleasant” (Bauer, 1960, p.389).
5.3.2 A Model of Risk

In order to illustrate the role of risk in consumer behaviour, the model formulated by Taylor (1974) will be examined (see Figure 5.2). This model is a flowchart of the interrelationships of the components of risk-taking in consumer behaviour. The model has at its core four major components: choice; uncertainty and perceived risk about the outcome; anxiety; and self-esteem of the consumer.

Figure 5.2 The role of risk in consumer behaviour.

Source: (Taylor, J., 1974, p.55)

The first aspect of the model is that of choice, which is the central aspect of human purchase behaviour. The evidence that consumers do perceive risk in choice situations is extensive (Taylor, 1994). As choice situations involve uncertainty and risk, anxiety
can arise. Anxiety can create, according to Fisher (1970), tensions that cause consumers to develop strategies to reduce the risk in choice situations and thereby reduce the inherent risk. The aspect of self-esteem refers to the evaluation of risk an individual makes in regard to himself or herself, and to what extent they believe they are capable, significant, successful and worthy (Coopersmith, 1967).

According to Taylor (1974) any choice situation always involves two types of risk: uncertainty about the outcome and uncertainty about the consequences. The first dimension is related to the probability of making a wrong choice; individuals deal with this type of risk by seeking additional information. The second dimension is concerned with the amount that is at stake in making decisions; individuals deal with this type of risk by changing their objectives reducing the amount at stake. Taylor (1974) continues by stating that both elements of risk are thought to be present in every choice situation but in varying importance to each other, depending on the exact nature of the decision.

5.4 RISK IN TOURISM

This section will discuss the role of risk in tourism. Firstly, the aspect of risk will be related to the characteristics of the tourism product, examining the importance of risk in service products and services. After which the types of risk found in the purchase of tourism products will be discussed.

5.4.1 Risk in relation to the characteristics of the tourism product

The tourism product is made up of several sub-products that together provide the tourists with an overall experience in the holiday destination. McIntosh and Goeldner (1986, p.4) state that the tourism purchase is "a composite of activities, services and industries, that deliver a travel experience." Since tourism is a service product, an element of risk is involved in experiencing the product. There are two main characteristics associated with the risk factor, namely: intangibility and inseparability.
Chapter Five Literature Review

• Intangibility

Goodall (1988) states that a holiday is a high-risk purchase because unlike most other retail purchases the tourist can neither directly observe what is being bought, nor try it out inexpensively. The product is the tourism experience itself, which cannot be tested prior to departure. According to Swarbrooke and Horner (1999) this results in the consumer having high levels of insecurity during purchase.

• Inseparability

High levels of perceived risk towards tourism products is also caused by the inseparability of the tourist experience. Unlike tangible products, which are usually produced, sold and then consumed, services are sold and then produced and consumed simultaneously. The tourism product is also a composite of different products, such as accommodation, transport and attractions. Cooper et al. (1993) state levels of consumer satisfaction are difficult to ensure, as if one component of the product fails to satisfy, the overall satisfaction of the product may decline.

5.4.2 Types of Risk

As has been shown, tourism incurs a high of level of perceived risk due to the characteristics of the product. The perceived risks found in tourism fall into the same five main categories as other purchasing decisions; financial, physical, social psychological and performance risks. These risks will now be examined.

• Financial Risk

Consumers tend to face financial risk when purchasing items that they are not sure will provide the desired benefits (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992). It might be said, therefore, that the higher the price of a holiday, the greater the degree of perceived risk. Notably, a person who purchases a holiday to somewhere never visited before faces more financial risk than a person who has more discretionary income purchasing a similar holiday. Price is an important variable in experiencing financial risk, since
the higher the price of the holiday, the greater the perceived risk; translated into financial consequences of making an incorrect decision. Both the increasing idea in consumers’ minds of value for money and the fact that tourism activity expenditure is out of people’s discretionary income makes the issue of financial risks very important, since the holiday tourist is extremely sensitive to both the absolute level of price and to changes in price (Cooper et al, 1993). By introducing relatively cheap packages, in comparison with the cost of every-day living, tour operators are trying to lower consumers’ perceptions of the idea of price being one of the major influences when purchasing a holiday.

- Social Psychological Risk

Social and psychological risks have been put together as they both have their origin in the psychosocial part of the individual. This type of risk cannot be identified as easily as financial or physical risks. However the consumer’s reception of social psychological risk is also an important consideration in the process of tourist behaviour, which should not be ignored.

One of the most important environmental influences on consumer behaviour is a reference group. The selection of a particular holiday destination can be influenced by whether the purchase may not meet the standards of an important reference group for the individual such as family, friends or business associates. In reality the reference groups influence behaviour in general and buying behaviour in particular (Solomon, 2001). A product’s conspicuousness is also a significant determinant of whether or not a consumer will be influenced by reference groups in buying a product. The products which can be easily seen and identified, or attract the attention of others, and conform to the consumer’s self-image, are more likely to be selected (Solomon, 2001). This risk occurs when the potential customer feels that the purchase may not reflect the self-image he or she wishes to portray, besides, status can be lost through visiting the wrong country or travelling with a company which has a poor image (Cooper et al, 1993).
• Performance Risk

As stated earlier in this chapter, the tourism product is an intangible product that has to be purchased by consumers without inspection and often on the basis of very inadequate knowledge. Image is the only thing that potential tourists are dealing with before actually experiencing the holiday. In these circumstances advertising becomes the principle means both of informing them about the product and persuading them to purchase it. However, in reality, it is difficult for tourists' perceptions to be exactly the same as their expectations. This type of risk is associated with feelings that the product may not deliver the desired benefits (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992). Most consumers do not have the additional money or holiday entitlement to make good a holiday that goes wrong, which heightens the awareness of the risk involved.

• Physical Risk

Physical risk refers to the possibility of physical danger, injury or sickness while on vacation (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992). Disease, crime or terrorist acts can have a profound effect on international travel. As was shown in chapter two that examined the effects of terrorism on tourism markets, despite low probability, risks carrying high costs, such as terrorism, appear to provoke serious consumer reaction (Richter and Waugh 1986).

5.5 RISK IN TOURIST DECISION-MAKING

The remaining sections of this chapter focus on the aspect of risk on the tourism decision-making process. Before examining the literature available on risk, terrorism and decision-making, this section will explore the research carried out relating to general risk on decision-making.
5.5.1 Past research on risk in tourism decision-making

Although risk can be an important element in decision-making, it has received relatively little research attention within the tourism literature (Crompton, 1977, 1992; Cook and McCleary, 1983; VanRaaij and Francken, 1984; Um and Crompton, 1990; Mansfeld, 1992; Roehl and Fesenmaier, 1992; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998). Most of the tourism research on risk has been related to the issue of facilitators versus inhibitors or constraints, rather than empirically testing the role of risk in the decision-making process of tourists. Further still, the aspect of terrorism related risk on tourist decision-making has received even less attention (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998).

5.5.2 Facilitators and inhibitors

Crompton (1977) suggested that destination choice is made after constraints such as time and money have been weighed against destination image. VanRaaij and Francken (1984) added that decisions are made by weighing constraints against current economic situations. Time, cost and distance have been identified as important constraints potential tourists use to discriminate between destination alternatives (Cook and McCleary, 1983).

According to Um and Crompton (1992) potential tourists are likely to narrow down perceptions of destination attributes into facilitators and inhibitors. Facilitators are destination attributes that help to satisfy the specific motives of tourists, whereas inhibitors are attributes that are not congruent with those motives. Potential tourists then eliminate destination alternatives from their consideration set by pondering the impacts of those inhibitors and facilitators. Um and Crompton (1992) continue by stating that facilitators exert greater influence in the earlier stages of decision-making, whereas inhibitors have more influence in later stages when the outcome becomes more serious.

5.5.3 Strategies to reduce risk in tourist decision-making

In order to reduce risks or inhibitors, tourists have certain strategies that can be used that are designed to either increase the certainty of the purchase outcome or reduce the
consequence of failure. Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992), in a study exploring the relationship between risk perceptions and tourism, identified information search behaviour as a common risk reduction strategy when consequences are uncertain or some outcomes are more desirable than others. Goodall (1988) also states that tourists often use information search as an element of extensive problem solving techniques, due to the risks inherent when purchasing high involvement products.

5.6 TERRORISM RISK IN TOURISM DECISION-MAKING

As stated in the previous section, the aspect of terrorism risk on tourist decision-making has received limited attention. Although there has been a limited amount of research based on facilitators and inhibitors, actual research based on terrorism risk in the tourist decision-making process is confined to the work carried out by Sonmez & Graefe (1998). Therefore, this section will concentrate on the work put forward by these two authors in an attempt to establish a framework for terrorism risk on the decision-making process of tourists.

Sonmez and Graefe (1998) attempted to understand the relationship between terrorism risk and decision-making by firstly examining risk perception theories from the psychological literature and relating this to literature based on the models and theories in the tourism literature. From these two sources of information they conceptualised a framework, which combines the decision-making process with the external influence of terrorism risk. This framework is illustrated in Figure 5.3.

The framework put forward by Sonmez and Graefe (1998) uses as its backbone the decision-making process utilised in most of the tourism decision-making models discussed in chapter three (problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives and choice). There are also three main influencing fields affecting this process as a person progresses through a sequence of stages.

According to the model put forward by Sonmez and Graefe (1998), the initial step in the process is problem recognition, which leads to a motivated state within an individual. At this early stage, an awareness of terrorism risk associated with tourism
may already exist due to the exposure to external factors’ such as media coverage, travel advisories, or social interaction.

Figure 5.3 The impact of terrorism on the decision-making process

At the next stage the awareness set of destinations includes those destinations individuals have learned about incidentally or through passive or informal information search. Those destination alternatives are then grouped further into sets based on their
desirability. The evoked set contains destinations about which active or formal information search will take place. The inert set includes those about which the individual is either undecided or insufficiently informed. Destinations in the inept set are rejected due to negative perceptions or perceived risks (for a full explanation of these sets, see chapter three).

Next, active or formal information search is conducted on those in the evoked and possibly inert sets. Travel professionals, literature and advisories, as well as various other sources might be consulted at this stage. Sonmez and Graefe (1998) state that the extent of the information search is likely to depend on previous experience, risk perceptions, or the importance of the vacation. Thus, at this stage destinations are evaluated according to their safety and risk factors with regard to terrorism and political problems.

Destinations perceived as safe from terrorism and political problems will be considered seriously, while those perceived as risky will be rejected. This relates to prospect theory, put forward by Kahneman and Tversky (1979) who proposed that risky decision-making occurs in two stages: firstly; prospects are narrowed down to several alternatives and evaluated before the best option is selected and, secondly; those prospects considered undesirable are eliminated. Sonmez and Graefe (1998) applied this theory to tourist decisions involving terrorism risk, where prospects are represented by potential destinations. The two-stage process when related to the issue of terrorism risk involves evaluating destination alternatives according to safety from terrorism threat, before choosing one and eliminating risky others. An important aspect of this theory relates to individuals' perceptions of risk and concern for safety and how that influences the attractiveness of prospects being evaluated. According to Sonmez and Graefe (1998) choices involving gains indicate a risk adverse personality whereas choices involving losses indicate risk-seeking behaviour. This can be related to research carried out by Plog (1974) who states that risk adverse individuals (i.e. psychocentrics) are likely to choose destinations perceived as safe, whereas risk seekers (i.e. allocentrics) are likely to show less concern about choosing destinations based on safety factors.
Sonmez and Graefe (1998) state a destination choice is then made by selecting the most desirable alternative from among those considered safe. This of course depends on the levels of risk perception a tourist has, and how important the attribute of safety is to them. Potential tourists select the destination that best matches their needs, offering the most benefits for the least cost (or risk). This links back to the work conducted by Um and Crompton (1990, p.19) who stated “potential tourists are likely to narrow down perceptions of destination attributes into facilitators and inhibitors eliminating destination alternatives from their consideration or evoked set by pondering the impacts of those inhibitors and facilitators.” It seems logical then, that those potential tourists who see the issue of safety as an important inhibitor will naturally be less likely to consider further any destination perceived to be unsafe. This idea is supported by Crompton’s (1992) assertion that destinations perceived as too high a risk, due to situational constraints or barriers may become undesirable.

Within the model put forward by Sonmez and Graefe (1998) there is also a recognition that tourists may change or cancel their holiday plans because of acquiring information about terrorism or political problems after they have booked their holiday destination. Sonmez and Graefe (1998) utilised information integration theory, which was developed by Anderson (1981). This theory states that impressions, evaluations, and judgments already formed of products or services (or in this case destinations) under consideration may change if additional alternatives are integrated to the evaluation (Anderson, 1981). Sonmez and Graefe utilised this theory within their model when they stated that the use of information integration theory extended the decision-making process beyond the point of final choice. If potential tourists obtain new and negative information about a destination (after it has been chosen), it is likely that these individuals will integrate that knowledge into the decision process, even if it means altering the outcome by cancelling plans.

This knowledge could result from media coverage, travel advisories, or social interaction, following the final destination choice. If a potential tourist has low safety concerns or risk perception and is not considerably effected by external factors, they may continue with their travel plans, in which case travelling as planned may lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Cancellations, on the other hand, may result if increased risk perception or safety concerns are substantial enough to entail staying home or
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substituting the destination choice with another perceived as safer. This corresponds to what Goodall (1988, p. 227) has stated. He argued that “when a destination is affected by terrorist attacks, potential tourists who are still sufficiently motivated to travel, will simply choose a similar destination which is perceived to be safe. The product sought by the potential tourist can be satisfied by any number of destinations.” All in all, the understanding that tourists can change plans after their final choice seems a justified and appropriate part of this decision-making model. As Sonmez and Graefe (1998) highlight, this helps to explain why nearly 2 million Americans changed their international plans in 1986.

5.7 SUMMARY

This chapter has discussed the influencing external variable of perceived risk on the tourist decision-making process. The chapter consisted of six sections, which were each related to the aspect of perceived risk. The role of perception was initially discussed to enable an understanding of the main principles surrounding the psychological aspect of perception. This was followed by an examination of risk. The remaining sections then focused on the aspect of risk in relation to tourism. Firstly, the role of risk in general was discussed, looking at the concept of facilitators and inhibitors. Finally, the aspect of risk from terrorism was examined to illustrate possible effects on the tourist decision-making process.

It is clear that despite the somewhat limited research on risk on tourism, this is an important factor in decision-making and destination choice. The remaining chapter of the literature review will now look at the role of image and the influences on tourist decision-making.
5.8 REFERENCES


Chapter Six

DESTINATION IMAGE

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This final literature review chapter examines the influence of destination image. From reviewing literature on decision-making in Chapter 3, it is clear that image is an important influencing factor on a consumer’s decision-making process (Semoll, 1977; Mathieson and Wall 1982; Moutinho, 1987; Woodside and Lyonski, 1989). The study of destination image is a relatively recent addition to the field of tourism research. From assessing academic literature it becomes evident that the great majority of research has been carried out in the past thirty years or so. Throughout this period it is clear that most empirical research has been based upon initial findings put forward in the 1970’s.

This chapter is divided into four main sections, each examining various aspects of destination image. The first section defines what is meant by image and to understand in marketing terms why this topic area is so important. In section two the characteristics of image formation are discussed, with section three examining image formation models. Finally, the last section will discuss image and destination marketing.
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6.1.1 Definitions of image

Many definitions have been offered to describe the word ‘image’. However, defining destination image has not been an easy task for researchers, which has often led to a vague and incomplete description being given. This view is supported by Pearce (1988, p.45) who said that “image is one of those terms that will not go away, a term with vague and shifting meanings.” Hence, in this section, a selection of some of the most widely used definitions are reviewed.

First of all, the World Tourism Organisation (1979, p.5) defines destination image as the “ideas, conceptions held individually or collectively about a destination.” The WTO further suggests that the presentation of a destination’s image must allow for the fact that an image is not generally created from nothing, but involves the transformation of an existing image. Other researchers offer similar definitions. Hunt (1975, p.2) states “image is the impression that people hold about a country in which they do not reside.” Crompton (1979, p.408) shares a similar view that “image is the sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person has of a destination.”

As was mentioned earlier, it can be argued that by examining the various definitions of image, they can be found to be quite vague. Echtner and Richie (1991) state that destination image is frequently described as simply “impressions of a place” or the “perceptions of an area”. From these definitions, there is no concrete indication of whether the researchers are considering the attribute-based or the holistic components of image, or both.

6.1.2 A conceptual framework for destination image

The majority of researchers have conceptualised destination image in terms of attribute-based components, rather than in terms of holistic impressions. For instance, Mayo (1973), investigating the basic components of destination image within the tourism context, argues that there are three basic dimensions or important attributes of holiday destinations, which are, scenery, congestion and climate. These findings are generally
supported by the work of Anderssen and Colberg (1973) who concluded that the dominant attributes are cost, climate and scenery. Echtner and Richie (1991) however, put forward a conceptual framework that looked at the components of destination image that included more holistic and unique components (see Figure 6.1).

**Figure 6.1 The components of destination image**

As Figure 6.1 illustrates, destination image is formed not only from the perceptions of individual destination attributes but also from the holistic impression made by the destination. Therefore, destination image consists of functional characteristics, regarding the more tangible aspects of the destination and psychological characteristics concerning the more intangible aspects. Furthermore, destination images can be arranged on a continuum ranging from features that can be used commonly to compare all destinations to those that are unique to very few destinations.

In terms of the final continuum that examines common-unique aspects, several researchers have discussed the importance of the unique part of destination image. These include Pearce (1988) in his mention of symbols as a significant factor of destination image and MacCannell (1989) in his discussion of “must-see-sights”. Similarly,
Holloway (1994) indicates that the more unique the attributes that the destination can show which help to distinguish the destination from other similar destinations, the greater the attraction of the destination to the tourists. Examples of unique features are the Grand Canyon in the United States, the Great Wall of China and the Pyramids in Egypt.

6.1.3 The importance of destination image

As mentioned earlier, the study of destination image is a relatively recent field in tourism research. However, many studies have suggested that destination images do influence tourist behaviour (Hunt, 1975; Goodrich, 1978, Echtner and Richie, 1991; Ahmed, 1991). The researchers above make the point that those destinations with strong positive images are more likely to be considered and chosen in the travel decision-making process.

It is clear, therefore, that destinations suffering from negative images due to terrorist activity will have difficulty competing with those nations that have favourable images. Buckley and Klemm (1993) stated that a favourable image is an essential requirement of any tourist destination. They argued that the problem with any kind of civil unrest is that unfavourable images are beamed across the world, so that even those who are not afraid of terrorism will be discouraged from taking a holiday there.

Therefore, the role of destination image is crucial for a destination, especially one plagued by terrorism or other kinds of political unrest. This chapter will now examine how images are formed in the minds of the consumer in the first steps to understanding how image effects travel behaviour.
6.2 IMAGE FORMATION

If a tourist’s decision to travel to a particular place is related to the destination image held by that tourist, then an examination of the image formation process may help understand how destination marketers can influence the change of an individual’s perception of a destination.

The formation of image has been described as “the development of a mental construct based upon impressions chosen from various pieces of information” (Reynolds, 1965, p69). In the case of destination image there are many sources including promotional literature, the opinion of others and the general media. Along with these sources is the formation of images resulting from visiting a destination, based upon first hand information and experience.

The influence of these various sources of information and their role in destination image formation has been explored by Gunn (1972,1988) and Gartner (1993). The work carried out by these two academics in particular represent the most important work in conceptualising image formation, and therefore, will be used as the framework from which an analysis of image formation will be undertaken.

Gunn (1972) was one of the first to break the image formation process into component parts. He conceptualised destination image as having two dimensions, induced and organic, an induced image being the evolution of images resulting from governmental promotion efforts including advertising and solicited travel stories. On the other hand, organic images are characterised by unsolicited media reports and information received from friends and relatives.

Gartner (1993) states that the underlying difference between an induced image and an organic one is the control that people in the destination area have over how the image is presented. Induced images are a function of the marketing efforts and project what the destination promoters wish potential tourists to see. Organic images are not directly
controlled by destination promoters but are some other entity’s idea of what exists there; they basically derive from a long history of non-tourist-directed communication.

Phelps (1986) was the first scholars to contend Gunn’s conceptualisation. Although he agreed that there are induced and organic forms of image formation he grouped both Gunn’s induced and most of the organic image formation agents into what he termed ‘secondary sources’. Another level termed as ‘primary sources’ of image formation separated out actual visitation to a destination.

In the last decade, Gartner (1993) took both of these conceptualisations as a starting point and viewed the image formation process as a continuum consisting of eight distinctly different components. They are Overt Induced 1, Overt Induced 2, Covert Induced 1, Covert Induced 2, Autonomous, Unsolicited Organic, Solicited Organic and Organic. These will now be discussed.

- **Overt Induced 1**

According to Gartner (1993) this component is at the beginning of the induced end of the continuum of image formation and consists of traditional forms of advertising i.e. television, print media, brochures, billboards etc. Destination promoters use them in a direct attempt to form particular images in the minds of potential tourists. The main advantage is the widespread market penetration, although there is the disadvantage of low credibility problems as consumers are subjected to constant advertisements of all kinds of products.

- **Overt Induced 2**

This category includes information from tour operators and organizations that have a vested interest in the travel decision process but are not directly associated with any particular destination. Tour operators act as gatekeepers of information, with the type of information distributed by them contributing to the images people hold of certain areas.
Gartner (1993) continues by stating that as a result of the credibility tour operators enjoy with their clients, this source of image formation may surpass the importance of all the Overt Induced I forms.

- **Covert Induced 1**

This consists of developing destination images using traditional forms of advertising, as in Overt Induced I; however, the image is now being projected through the use of a second-party spokesperson (Gartner, 1993). According to Reich (1999) the effectiveness of this image agent is directly connected to the credibility of the celebrity used. Reich (1999) continues by stating that although this form is not as strong as a third party endorsement, it can improve the chances of a promotional message having a positive impact on the destinations’ image.

- **Covert Induced 2**

This type of image formation agent takes the form of unbiased articles, reports and stories about a particular place, delivered by someone with high credibility who apparently has no vested interested in the destination (Gartner, 1993). According to Reich (1999) this normally takes the form of travel shows and has moderate market penetration.

- **Autonomous**

These types of image formation agents are of particular interest to destinations affected by negative publicity and will be examined in detail shortly. They take the form of news reports, articles, films, documentaries etc. about specific places where there are no incentives to publicise information about the destination. Since there is complete autonomy, the information reported is theoretically unbiased and as a result has major impacts on tourism image development.
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- Unsolicited Organic
The next stage of the image formation continuum consists of unrequested information received from individuals who have visited an area or believe know what exists there. As the person receiving the information has not requested the information the credibility factor is only moderate. However, as it comes from acquaintance it may carry a higher level of credibility than information received from any of the induced agents (Gartner, 1993).

- Solicited Organic
At this stage information is requested and received from a knowledgeable source, generally one’s friends or relatives. As a result the credibility factor is very high. Gartner (1993) states that in the long run, in the absence of any negative autonomous image formation, the solicited organic component is the most critical determinant of an areas economic tourism health.

- Organic
Finally, the organic formation agent consists of actual visitation, after which a new destination image is formed in the mind of the visitor. The visitor, holding a new image, feeds back into the image formation cycle as a distributor of information in the unsolicited and solicited organic components.

6.2.1 The impact of autonomous image formation agents

As was mentioned, autonomous image formation agents include news reports, articles, films and documentaries about specific places. Since there is complete autonomy, the information reported is unbiased and as a result has major impacts on tourism image development. This is a major concern to those destinations effected by political instability. From the literature reviewed concerning the effects of terrorism on tourism markets it is clear that the increasingly higher forms of communication and information
technologies are assisting the media in their graphically detailed and instantaneous reporting on terrorist activities "live" from any where in the world (Pizam, 2000). It is evident that this has lead to destination images of those destinations affected by terrorism being tarnished as unsafe, jeopardizing in some cases entire tourism industries.

According to Gartner (1997) the autonomous image formation agent, because of its high credibility and high market penetration, may be the only agent capable of changing an area’s image dramatically in a short period of time. Gartner (1997) continues by stating that it is also possible that the effect of negative autonomous change agents, although significant in the short term, may not be an important factor in long-term image change.

Thurstone (1967) had already stated that in the absence of any reinforcing information, images might revert to those held before the event. Although not thoroughly studied, this does appear to be the case, as in the absence of recurring events (e.g. Tiananmen Square) visitation figures show a rebound after the event has become part of history. The amount of time it takes to rebound does show some relationship to the magnitude of the event and its cause. Natural disasters have short-term effects rarely lasting more than one season. Events instigated by people, such as terrorist activity, show longer periods of recovery. What does seem clear is that in the absence of reinforcing negative images there is a reversion to previously held images (Gartner, 1997).

Therefore, it is evident that with the absence of any major news event causing an individual to process massive amounts of information quickly, destination image will remain relatively constant. The key element in image change seems to depend on the amount and extent of new information that is in contrast to the image currently held. Autonomous image change agents, if constant and prolonged, will eventually be unavoidable, causing an image shift. Induced image formation agents can also have the same effect, but because of their low credibility rating will take longer to effect change.

Boulding (1956) suggests that information affecting images can produce three effects. Firstly information is received that is not in conformity with held beliefs, setting up a situation of cognitive dissonance where the individual will attempt to avoid the incoming
information, thereby reducing the dissonance. If enough information can be avoided the image remains essentially unaffected. Secondly, the information becomes constant and prolonged and cannot be avoided, resulting in a gradual image change. Thirdly, enough new information is received to result in a general reassessment of the image previously held, and leads to an entirely new image.

6.3 IMAGE FORMATION MODELS

In order to better clarify and understand image formation, several authors have put forward models and frameworks to explain the role of image in travel behaviour (Gunn, 1972; Clawson and Knetch; 1966; Chon, 1990). These models and frameworks will now be discussed.

6.3.1 Gunn’s model.

The influence of the various destination image formation agents and their role in travel behaviour were explored further by Gunn (1972). He theorised that that a traveller’s travel behaviour can be explained through a seven-phase imagery modification framework (see Figure 6.2).

Figure 6.2 Gunn’s model

- Accumulation of mental images about a vacation experience
- modification of those images by further information
- decision to take a vacation trip
- travel to the destination
- participation at the destination
- return travel
- new accumulation of images based on the experience

Source: Gunn (1972)
As can be seen, the model is a constant process of building and modification of images. Gunn (1988) argues that the first three stages of his model are the most important in the tourist behaviour process, as a tourist’s image is usually very resistant to change once it has been formed. The first stage of the model relates to Gartner’s (1997) previously mentioned autonomous and solicited/unsolicited image agents, whereas, the second stage is where the tourist searches for more information that may modify the existing image of the destination. It is at this stage that induced images can effect the tourist’s perceptions and influence their decision to take one of the destination alternatives. Finally at stage seven of the process the tourist has been in contact with the destination, new images will be formed and a further modification of the destination image occurs. According to Gartner’s (1997) formation typologies this is the pure organic stage and is based on real experience.

Numerous studies of image change as a result of visitation have been conducted (Goodrich, 1978; Phelps, 1986; Shen, 1989; Gartner, 1989). Chon (1991) used Gunn’s travel behaviour model in conjunction with an empirical analysis of American tourists travelling overseas. He examined how the tourist destination image and tourist perceptions were modified and enhanced through travel to that destination and discovered a positive change in attitude as a result of visitation.

6.3.2 Clawson and Knetch’s Model.

In general, researchers agree that image formation and modification occur throughout an individual traveller’s entire travel experience, however according to Clawson and Knetch (1966) the anticipation and recollection phases of the traveller behaviour model have most significant marketing implications. This is best illustrated by examining the model put forward by Clawson and Knetch (1966) who stated that an individual’s travel behaviour goes through five stages. (see Figure 6.3)
Clawson and Knetch (1966) suggest that the anticipation phase is the most important in travel and tourism marketing. They argue that this is because the potential tourist, when making a travel purchase decision, depends upon his/her previously accumulated images and modified images obtained through further information search. Mayo and Jarvis (1981) also state that because a tourist selects a destination from among alternative choices, the subjective judgement they make about the alternatives available to them relies on a number of factors, among which the most important is the image about each alternative and its perceived ability to satisfy their needs.

Likewise, Mercer (1981) asserts that the recollection phase of the travel experience has as much to do with a tourist destination image as the anticipation phase. In discussing Clawson and Knetch’s five-phase model, Mercer indicates that the ‘image’ presented by a destination is the ‘signal’ or ‘symbol’ presented to the individual by the destination and that the recollection phase of the travel experience in many ways is important to the image.

6.3.3 Chon’s model.

Similarly, Chon (1990) demonstrated an integrated model of destination image and buying process based on the interrelationship of destination image, traveller buying process, traveller satisfaction and dissatisfaction and the evaluative congruity approach to understanding consumer behaviour. According to his model (see Figure 6.4) an
individual traveller’s travel behaviour can be explained through a framework of imagery change that originates from their entire travel experience.

Firstly, the primary image of a destination is constructed at the point when an individual’s travel motivation arises. After that the tourist’s perception of the attractiveness of outcomes related to their travel objectives and their perceived belief in accomplishing their needs and wants stimulate the individual traveller’s initial decision to travel to the destination.

According to Chon (1990) the tourist further modifies their accumulated images of the destination through an information search process. The match or mismatch of the modified image of a destination will help determine the performance expectancy of the destination. The performance expectancy can be positive or negative depending on the strength of the images gathered and modified. A negative performance expectancy could stop the initial decision to take a trip to the destination. However, it is noticed that a negative performance expectancy of a destination will not necessarily abort the individual traveller’s decision to travel. This is because the traveller’s decision choice can be constrained by time, value and other limits such as availability of alternative destinations.

Thirdly, the individual traveller will experience various travel related activities and events throughout the stages of ‘travel to destination’, ‘participation’ and ‘return travel’. New images are gathered about the destination and the general environment surrounding the entire trip. The experiences obtained will be reflected or evaluated during the journey back home. Finally, the tourist’s previous image of the destination will be reconditioned at the recollection stage through the process of evaluation of what has actually been experienced at the destination against previously held images.

On the other hand, it is suggested that some aspects that are unique to tourism such as the degree of family involvement, time and budget constraints in decision-making and the timing of the travel experience and other influencing factors will have to be further integrated into the proposed model so as to provide a clearer picture of consumer behaviour in destination choice (Chon, 1990).
Figure 6.4 Chon’s model

‘Push’ to travel

Travel Motivation

Construction of Primary Image

Tentative Decision to

Anticipation: Accumulated Images
   Information Search
   Modification of Image
   Performance Expectancy

Consider Alternative Destination

Decision to Travel

Travel to Destination

Participation

Return Home

Evaluation of Performance Outcomes

Evaluative Congruity:
   Satisfaction/ Dissatisfaction

Further Modification of Image

‘Pull’ to travel

Source: Chon 1990
6.3.4 Jafari’s Tourist Model

The previous models discussed in this chapter are spatially orientated, in that they consist of different stages a tourist may go through on a trip. Jafari (1987) however, puts forward a sociocultural model of tourist behaviour that describes the various psychological states a person passes through with relationship to cultures encountered. According to Gartner (1996) the model has been offered to explain what happens to an individual as a result of physical separation from home. The focus shifts from what a person does in one place to how they act, and interact with others, in psychological space.

Figure 6.5 Jafari’s Model


Jafari’s model (see Figure 6.5 above) contains six main components (Corporation, Emancipation, Animation, Repatriation, Incorporation and Omission.). The initial corporation stage consists of the individuals home environment. According to Gartner (1996) most of the research on tourists has been taken while they are in the Corporation stage, with research areas such as expectations, preferences and images of the destination being examined. However, Gartner (1996, p.336) points out that “research conducted while they are in normal life ignores the implications of non-ordinary life or existence of a tourist culture.” It seems therefore evident that there is a need to conduct more research in the other stages of the sociocultural model as images towards destinations may change due to a person’s level of animation with the tourist culture.
6.4 IMAGE AND TOURISM MARKETING

It is clear that destination image has a significant impact on consumers when they select a holiday destination. Due to the intensity of competition among holiday destinations, a great deal of emphasis has been put on destination marketing which aims to convey a positive image of a destination to prospective consumer segments. There is however, from the literature review carried out, limited research considering marketing strategies for changing negative images due to terrorist activities. Nevertheless, it is evident that there are more general marketing strategies that are helpful in creating and building a positive destination image and correcting a negative one. These various strategies will now be discussed in more detail.

6.4.1 The use of induced forms of advertising in marketing destinations

It has already been mentioned that the formation of images in the minds of tourists is most influential when organic forms are used. Unfortunately, as was discussed earlier, destinations have little control over these forms of information. Therefore, destination marketers need to manipulate induced forms of advertising over which they have more control. The major tools of advertising include direct marketing, sales promotion, public relations and personal selling. Gunn (1988) indicates that advertising can improve the induced image of a country, or the impression people have of an area without being there.

Chon (1990) highlights the importance of induced images in the marketing of tourist destinations when he argues that in most cases a destination can do little about changing its organic image but can influence the change of an induced image to a large extent through promotional and publicity efforts. Chon (1990) suggests that the end goal of “image building” should aim at promoting the modification of an induced image.

However, according to Crompton (1979) an advertising campaign is likely to succeed only if it provides information about attributes that potential visitors are not aware of or of which they have a distorted view. Crompton (1979) continues by stating that advertising goals should be set to influence attitudinal structures. From a tourism
perspective, this means that destinations should either change the way in which consumers evaluate the destination, or change consumer's perceptions of the destination on the present set of evaluative criteria. For example, a destination can try to downplay the importance of attributes on which it is weak and emphasise those attributes on which it has a competitive advantage.

6.4.2 Correcting a negative image

It is evident from earlier chapters that political instability has caused numerous destinations to be given a negative image. Therefore, one purpose of destination marketing is to change the existing image held by the target markets so it can fit more closely with the destination's position. However, effective corrective marketing is much more difficult than it seems. This is because once a negative image is established in the minds of potential travelers, it is difficult to reverse it entirely (Ahmed, 1991; Ashworth and Voogd, 1990). Although not focused towards destinations with political instability, Ahmed (1991) has presented several techniques that have been successful in improving a destination's image. They are summarized as follows:

- **Capitalise on positive image of component parts.**

Ahmed (1991) states that when a negative image is affecting tourism, the best strategy is to identify the components of its image. He continues by arguing that, although the overall image may be negative, certain components are likely to have positive images. Since tourists can classify tourism environments in relation to their leisure interests, they respond to different components and actually differentiate the components of a destination from its overall image (Ahmed, 1991). For this reason, destination marketers can determine the image of a destination's components and not just one overall image. After this, the appropriate positive components can be focused in promotional programmes. This combined effort directed at capitalising on the strengths of the components' images might improve the image of the destination as a whole.
• Organise familiarisation tours.

It has already been mentioned that journalists, travel agents and tour operators that constitute the overt induced form of image formation can influence tourists' decisions greater than can traditional forms of advertising. For this reason, it is worthwhile for a destination to host selected opinion leaders to offer them an opportunity to experience the tourist destinations themselves. As a result of this, those people informing the public may correct misconceptions and misinformation.

• Take advantage of a negative image

In 1991, Ahmed was one of the first scholars to examine what he considered the 'dark side of image marketing', looking at how destinations with poor images can actually use it to their advantage. He stated that some destination marketers simply acknowledge that what they have to offer may appeal to the darker side of the human existence. In the tourism industry, there are at least three tourism destination categories that not only defy conventional marketing wisdom concerning image, but also deliberately encourage what might be described as the 'darker side of image marketing'. These are destinations with seamy reputations, destinations that have experienced natural disasters and places of historical, political, social, or cultural upheavals.

There are numerous examples of this kind of marketing. For example, according to Ahmed (1991) sixty per cent of tourists to Thailand are attracted by bargain-priced sex, where trips have been fully packaged to include transportation, meals, hotel accommodation etc. Places of natural disasters such as Pompeii have been capitalised on with a tourist product being built around the disaster.

The most important part of the 'darker side of image marketing' in relation to this research is the marketing of places of historical, political, social, or cultural upheavals. Ahmed (1991) states that places such as the Berlin Wall and WW2 death camps have successfully taken a negative image from the past and become successful tourist
products. Although little research has been conducted thus far on destinations affected by terrorism and the marketing of this image, it is likely that there would be certain consumer segments that would be interested in seeing places with a negative image.

6.5 SUMMARY

This chapter has examined the main characteristics surrounding the issues of destination image in an attempt to understand how image effects destinations. The study of destination image could be made easier if a universally accepted definition of the term “image” could be found. However it is clear from the literature that the characteristics of image as research progresses are becoming more focused on holistic impressions and not just destination attributes.

From the point of view of destinations affected by political instability it is vital to understand how images are formed. From Gunn’s initial framework put forward in the early seventies, Gartner has conceptualised image formation as being a continuum consisting of eight stages. This continuum is particularly useful to destinations affected by negative images as it highlights the issues surrounding autonomous formation agents. As was illustrated in this chapter these autonomous agents such as news reports have high credibility and market penetration, resulting in them being the prime agents capable of changing a destination’s image dramatically. As was mentioned in previous chapters the media have often over exaggerated terrorist events, and this highlights clearly how these image agents can cause destinations with terrorist problems to be viewed negatively.
6.6 REFERENCES


Gunn, C.A. (1972) *Vacationscape-Designing Tourist Regions*, University of Texas.


Phelps, A. (1986) Holiday destination image – the problem of assessment; an example


7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter details the methods and techniques employed within this study and the rationale for their selection. The chapter is divided into ten sections. The first section highlights the research problem and objectives of the research, putting forward a model detailing the theoretical concepts and variables to be measured within this study. In section two, research paradigms are discussed, analysing the advantages and disadvantages of using qualitative or quantitative research. Issues relating to the research design are then examined, highlighting the choice of exploratory, descriptive or causal research. Section four concentrates on the use of the research instrument, detailing the rationale for the choice of method. Next, section five describes the scaling procedures used within the research instrument, examining the rationale and validity of using certain scales, with section six detailing the layout of the questionnaire. Section seven examines the issues relating to the pilot survey and changes made to the questionnaire as a result of this. This is followed by section eight which describes the sampling methods chosen, and section nine which details the data collection process. Finally, the last section discusses the statistical techniques utilised in the analysis of the data.
7.2 PROBLEM DEFINITION AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

7.2.1 Problem Definition

It is evident from assessing the literature in previous chapters that lack of safety and security are known inhibitors of travel and, therefore, terrorism and the fear and insecurity it brings, are important factors in why potential tourists decide not to visit destinations that have experienced terrorist activity. Indeed, since the mid-eighties there has been an increase in research by scholars from diverse disciplines who have examined issues relating to terrorism and tourism. These have included the relationship between terrorism and tourism (Richter and Waugh, 1986; Richter, 1989; Ryan, 1993; Pizam 1999, 2000), the impacts of political instability on tourism (Seekings, 1993; Hall, 1994; Richter, 1999) and the implications for tourism marketing (Gartner and Shen, 1992; Buckley and Klemm, 1993; Hall 1994).

There are few empirical studies however and little background information dealing with terrorism and its effects on tourism decision-making. Apart from Sonmez and Graefe (1998) who researched the influence of terrorism risk on foreign tourism decisions, there is little empirical data on this topic. Therefore, this study endeavours to investigate the effects of terrorism on a tourist's decision-making process in an attempt to understand their willingness to consider a destination that has been affected by terrorism. To enable differences between tourists to be empirically tested this research segmented tourists on numerous criteria, including: personal characteristics, safety awareness levels, holiday behaviour patterns, importance attached to terrorism risk when evaluating holiday destinations, terrorism awareness and several criteria relating to the use and perception of the mass media in the UK.

7.2.2 Research Question

The research question and objectives were first discussed in the introductory chapter. They will now be highlighted again to enable the reader be reminded of the main aims and objectives of this research before the various methodologies are discussed.
The problem definition can be narrowed down to the following overall research question:

*Are there differences between tourists’ willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity?*

### 7.2.3 Research Objectives

From the problem definition and research question, the following twelve research objectives were formulated:

**Objective 1.** How important is the attribute of safety in the consumer decision-making process of selecting a holiday destination compared to other attributes?

**Objective 2.** Are there differences between tourists’ personal characteristics, general safety awareness levels and holiday behaviour and the importance attached to the attribute of safety when considering potential holiday destinations?

**Objective 3.** Are there differences between tourists’ personal characteristics and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?

**Objective 4.** Are there differences between tourists’ safety awareness levels and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?

**Objective 5.** Are there differences between tourists’ holiday behaviour patterns and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?
Objective 6. Are there differences between the importance tourists’ attach to the risk of terrorism and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?

Objective 7. Are there differences between respondents’ terrorism awareness levels and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?

Objective 8. Are there differences between respondents’ level of terrorism awareness where tourists’ have been targeted and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?

Objective 9. Are there differences between respondents’ use of news media and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?

Objective 10. Are there differences between a respondent’s belief that national television news/ newspapers are factual and unbiased and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?

Objective 11. Are there differences between respondents’ perceptions of the news media towards terrorist events and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?

Objective 12. Are there differences between respondents’ awareness/ perceptions of destinations that have been subject to terrorist activities in response to the immediate media coverage of these terrorist events?
The research objectives have been put into a model that illustrates those variables to be researched in this study. See Figure 7.1 below.

**Figure 7.1, A Model of the Research Problem**
7.3 RESEARCH PARADIGMS

Within this section, research paradigms are discussed, detailing the differences between qualitative and quantitative research and the rationale for choosing the method employed.

There is a great deal of debate regarding the relative benefits of quantitative and qualitative methods. On the most simplistic of levels qualitative research can be viewed as an unstructured, exploratory research methodology based on small samples that provides insights and understanding of the problem setting. It works from a narrower and necessarily less representative base than quantitative research and aims to provide deep insight into a limited area of study, uncovering subtle and complex issues within a small sample. The essentially subjective stance has raised objections from authors about the reliability of qualitative findings (Wells, 1991). However, it is generally agreed that qualitative research provides useful and valid results as long as data collection and analysis are carried out rigorously (Johns & Lee-Ross, 1998).

On the other hand, quantitative research is a research methodology that seeks to quantify data and, typically, applies some form of statistical analysis (Malhotra, 1996). Quantitative research is strongly dependent on the positive paradigm, which seeks facts and external causes of social phenomena, with little regard to the subjective states of individuals.

Most practitioners see both qualitative and quantitative approaches as valid, both complementing each other, yet having different objectives and problems (Ryan, 1995). The distinctions between the two are indicated in Table 7.1.
Table 7.1 Qualitative versus quantitative research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Qualitative Research</th>
<th>Quantitative Research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>Non-representative</td>
<td>Representative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample size</td>
<td>Small</td>
<td>Large</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types of questions</td>
<td>Probing</td>
<td>Limited probing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Analysis</td>
<td>Subjective, non-statistical</td>
<td>Objective, statistical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Collection</td>
<td>Unstructured</td>
<td>Structured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to replicate</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Research</td>
<td>Exploratory</td>
<td>Descriptive or causal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Which paradigm to use within a specific research study depends on the characteristics of the study. As well as examining the strengths and weaknesses and the differences between the two paradigms, the goals and strategies of the research need to be examined in order to correctly choose the research paradigm to utilise within this study. Table 7.2 illustrates the goals and strategies that can be used within social research, which has been adapted from Ragin (1994).

Table 7.2 The goals and strategies of social research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Qualitative Research</th>
<th>Quantitative Research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.Identifying broad patterns</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.Testing/refining theory</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.Making predictions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.Interpreting significance</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.Exploring diversity</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.Giving voice</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.Advancing new theories</td>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Secondary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: adapted from Ragin (1994, p.51)

According to Ragin (1994), a primary strategy indicates that the strategy is a very common way of achieving that goal, whereas, a secondary label indicates that the strategy is sometimes used to achieve that goal.
After examining the strengths and weaknesses, the differences and the goals and strategies of the two competing paradigms the research approach in this study was formulated. As this research endeavours to understand the differences between respondents' willingness to visit destinations based on 19 segmentation criteria (refer to the objectives in sub-section 7.2.3), with results being generalised to the whole population, the more suitable research method for this study was decided to be the positive quantitative technique. It is not the main aim of this research to advance new theories or 'give voice' to a small number of respondents, but rather to identify any broad patterns and differences between the respondents in the sample.

That said, there is a need to also utilise qualitative methods in some realms of the research. For instance, some constructs within the survey questionnaire depend on the use of qualitative approach, as did the pilot survey, which needed interviews with the pilot sample to ascertain whether there was a need for any changes to be made to the research instrument. Therefore, although this research incorporates the scientific method, some parts of the application were based on qualitative techniques. Many academics (Ragin, 1994; Malhotra, 1996; Ryan, 1995) view qualitative and quantitative research as complimentary, rather than in competition with each other, which helps to justify the use of both methods.

7.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a framework or blueprint for conducting a research project (Malhotra, 1996). It details the procedures necessary for obtaining the information needed to solve research problems. According to Malhotra (1996) a quantitative research design should include six components: defining the research problem and objectives; designing exploratory, descriptive, or causal phases of the research; specifying the measurement and scaling procedures; constructing and pre-testing the questionnaire; specifying the sampling process and sample size and, finally developing a plan of data analysis. The remaining part of this chapter will apply this framework to illustrate the methodological design that was implemented in this study. Section two dealt with defining the research problem and objectives. This section, therefore, concentrates on the second component, that of the preferred choice of exploratory, descriptive, or causal research designs.
7.4.1 Choice of research design

Research designs can be broadly classified as exploratory or conclusive. The primary objective of exploratory research is to provide greater understanding of the area of study, often being used in cases where the problem needs to be defined more precisely before a specific research approach can be developed (Sekaran, 2000). Conclusive research, on the other hand, is typically more formal and structured than exploratory research, being based on large, representative samples, with the data obtained being subject to quantitative analysis.

There are two types of conclusive research design that are most commonly used within research, which are descriptive and causal designs. Descriptive research tends to utilise survey data and is characterised by tentative hypotheses, which are short of specifying causal relationships (Malhotra, 1996). Causal research, on the other hand, defines more specific hypotheses involving causal relationships and relies mainly upon experimentation. The objectives, characteristics and methods of each research design are described and examined in Table 7.3, which was adapted from Malhotra (1996).

Table 7.3 A Comparison of basic research designs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objective:</th>
<th>Exploratory</th>
<th>Descriptive</th>
<th>Casual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Objective:</td>
<td>Discovery of ideas and insights</td>
<td>Describe characteristics or functions</td>
<td>Determine cause and effect relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Characteristics:</td>
<td>Flexible and versatile. Often at the front end of the total research design</td>
<td>Marked by prior formulation of tentative hypothesis or research questions. Pre-planned and structured design</td>
<td>Manipulation of one or more independent variables. The Control of other independent variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods:</td>
<td>Expert Surveys Pilot Surveys Secondary data Qualitative research</td>
<td>Secondary data Surveys Panels</td>
<td>Experiments</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: adapted from Malhotra (1996, p.89)
The research approach chosen for this study incorporated both exploratory qualitative research and descriptive research in order to allow for quantitative analysis. Exploratory research in the form of secondary data analysis was performed on the literature available. This involved analysing literature regarding the tourism industry and how terrorism has affected the industry. Literature was also gathered on the consumer’s decision-making processes, the external variables that influence the decision-making process concentrating on aspects such as risk and image formation. This initial research constitutes the literature review chapters of this study (chapters two – six).

Exploratory qualitative research was then utilised in the pilot stage of the study to elicit opinions to formulate two constructs, which in turn would be used in the quantitative survey. The elicitation of constructs from the population being studied through qualitative research minimised the danger of forcing respondents to react to a standardised framework that may not be an accurate representation of their perceptions. The method of qualitative research utilised was a focus group consisting of five undergraduate students. Respondents in the focus group helped formulate constructs for two questions within the questionnaire. Exploratory qualitative research was also employed in piloting the survey questionnaire. A full description of this process can be found in Section 7.8 of this chapter.

As Malhotra illustrates in Table 7.3, exploratory research is flexible and versatile and is normally used at the beginning of the research process through secondary data, qualitative research and pilot surveys. This methodology used each of these three methods to enable validity and robustness in the quantitative questionnaire.

The quantitative research approach utilised for this research had a descriptive cross-sectional design, which is the most common research approach for studies concerning leisure and tourism (Veal, 1997). A cross-sectional design can be described as involving the collection of information from any given sample of the population only once (Malhotra, 1996, p.92). Descriptive research allows for differences and relationships to be developed between variables through quantitative analysis in order to create a wider understanding, without having to determine cause and affect relationships. As the main aim of this research is to explore certain patterns of
behaviour rather than to confirm such patterns, the descriptive design was deemed as the most suitable.

7.5 SELECTION OF DATA COLLECTION METHOD

Within this section, the data collection methods utilised in this study will be explored. To enable a thorough overview of the process, the research instrument used within the research will be discussed along with the choice of survey type.

7.5.1 The Research Instrument

There are two major methods employed in descriptive research designs: surveys and observation. The survey method of obtaining information is based on the questioning of respondents, which, according to de Vaus (1986) is the most widely used technique within the social sciences. Observational methods involve recording the behavioural patterns of people, objects and events in a systematic manner to obtain information about the phenomenon of interest (Malhotra, 1996).

Two of the most common forms of observation are personal observation and content analysis. Personal observation is where a researcher observes actual behaviour as it occurs, which was unrealistic in this study. Content analysis is an appropriate method when the phenomenon to be observed is communication, rather than behaviour. This was rejected due to the objective of this research being to understand the differences between tourists and their behavioural patterns. Therefore the research instrument used for this study was a survey questionnaire, because of the requirement of having to contact respondents in order to gather information such as perceptions, awareness, attitudes and socio-demographics. These aspects cannot be obtained by observational methods.
7.5.2 Choice of survey type

Surveys generally involve the administration of a questionnaire and may be classified, based on the method or mode of administration into three main types, mail survey, telephone survey and personal interview (Malhotra, 1996). Each method has general advantages and disadvantages, which are highlighted in Table 7.4.

There is no definite rule in choosing any particular method and considerations should be given to the objectives of the particular research in hand. For this research a self-administered mail survey was chosen as the method best suited to meet the needs of this study. Before examining the reasons for this choice, a brief summary will be given for the rejection of the other two methods.

Table 7.4 Comparisons among the possible survey types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Personal Interview</th>
<th>Telephone Surveys</th>
<th>Mail Survey</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cost</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time for returned surveys</td>
<td>Short</td>
<td>Short</td>
<td>Long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time interviewer needs to conduct survey</td>
<td>Long</td>
<td>Short</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response rate</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to selected sample</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential for interviewer bias</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to use complex questions</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obtaining sensitive information</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open-ended questions</td>
<td>Easy</td>
<td>Easy</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to probe responses</td>
<td>Easy</td>
<td>Easy</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias (1992), Malhotra (1996), Proctor (1997)

7.5.3 Rejection of the personal interview method of data collection

Personal face-to-face interviewing was discounted as a method for data collection due to a variety of reasons. Firstly, as the population for this research were people who consider visiting holiday destinations, there would have been problems in getting a representative sample. For instance, if personal interviews had been carried out at
airports or in shopping malls there would have been issues of bias in that not everyone in the population would have an equal chance of being chosen. Also it would have been difficult to achieve a cross-section of socio-economic characteristics. Face-to-face personal interviews of households within the chosen sample could have been implemented by conducting door-to-door interviewing, but again this was rejected due to the immense time taken to complete this task. Secondly, there is greater potential for interviewer bias with this technique compared to mail surveys. Thirdly, as the questionnaire was structured with limited open-ended questions there was less of a need to use a technique that allowed for greater flexibility in asking open-ended questions and probing responses.

7.5.4 Rejection of the telephone interview method of data collection

Traditional telephone interviews which involve phoning a sample of respondents and asking them a series of questions was also rejected on the basis of several criteria. Firstly, as the sample was estimated to be in the region of 200 this would have proved too expensive compared to a self-administered postal questionnaire. Telephone interviews also limit the diversity of questions that can be asked and in which form. As most of the questions were asked in a scaling form with respondents asked to rank their attitudes, perceptions and beliefs on certain questions, it would have proved too difficult to administer properly over the telephone.

7.5.5 Choice of the mail survey method of data collection

As stated previously, the choice of survey type in this study was the self-administered postal questionnaire. This is due to the nature of this study and the objectives it was to meet. Firstly, because of the population of the study, there was a requirement to use a method that included the various socio-demographics of potential tourists, this method enabled the easiest identification and target of these groupings within the sample. Secondly, there was a need for a low cost technique due to lack of general funding. Numerous authors see this method as the most cost effective (Hoinville & Jowell, 1977; de Vaas, 1986; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992). There was also a need to reduce interviewer bias and according to the literature, the best method to use are postal surveys, where interviewer bias is absent from the responses.
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(Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992; Malhotra, 1996; Proctor, 1997). Finally, as the respondent can reply to a mail survey whenever it is convenient for him/her to do so, there is normally a more considered response, since the respondent is under no pressure to make an immediate reply.

Hoinville and Jowell (1977) point out that for behavioural studies and for collecting attitudinal data, a postal survey can be very reliable, particularly when a large sample is desirable and only a small budget is available. However, there are potential limitations that need to be recognised. The first is the reliance placed on respondents to complete the questionnaire, aided only by written instructions. There is a lack of control, thus, questions need to be well designed, as there is no interviewer to help explain any problems that may arise. The second limitation is that there is only an introductory letter to motivate people to complete and return the questionnaire (Hoinville & Jowell, 1977), which can lead to a low response rate. The major problem in a low response rate is that those who respond are not necessarily similar to those who are not, possibly resulting in the results being misleading.

In order to minimise the non-response bias in this research, the profile of respondents were checked against the known characteristics of the population sampled. As this is a general population sample, census information can be compared to the data received on aspects such as gender, age, education and social class. If there are major differences between the sample and the known characteristics of the population then consideration can be given to weighting the final sample by an appropriate factor in an attempt to reduce the bias.

7.6 MEASUREMENT AND SCALING PROCEDURES

Within this section, the measurement and scaling techniques utilised within the questionnaire will be examined. In order to review the techniques comprehensively each section of the questionnaire will be examined in relation to the measurements and scales used within the questions. Issues relations to validity will also be discussed.
7.6.1 Defining measurement and scaling

Measurement is the assignment of numbers or other symbols to characteristics of objects according to set rules. Scaling can be considered as an extension to measurement, involving the generation of a continuum upon which measured objects are located (Malhotra, 1996). There are four primary scales of measurement that are used: nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio. Nominal scales are scales in which data are in the form of names, labels or categories with no implied ordering, the numbers are only names that make one category distinct from another, with no indication of any relationship (Grimm, 1999). Within the questionnaire carried out for this research nominal scales were utilised for questions regarding respondent's gender, occupation and those questions that required a yes-no response. Ordinal-scaled data, on the other hand, are scales that show a relationship in terms of sequence or rank order such as educational level. Finally, interval and ratio scales are both continuous scales with values representing measurements which have equal values between them, although ratio scales differ from interval scales, in that, there is a true zero to the scale. An example of a continuous interval scale would be a Likert scale used to ascertain respondent's attitudes to questions.

7.6.2 Scales used within the questionnaire

All questions used within the research instrument were closed rather than open. This is particularly important in self-administered mail surveys where there is no interviewer to establish rapport or increase motivation of respondents to answer open-ended questions. Closed ended questions are also easier to code for data analysis purposes.

The closed questions consisted of a mixture of nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio scales. One of the common scales used within the survey was a noncomparative, itemised rating scale in the form of a Likert scale. The Likert scale is a widely used rating scale that requires respondents to indicate a degree of agreement or disagreement with each of a series of questions about the stimulus objects (Malhotra, 1996). Typically, each scale item has five research categories. Analysis was
conducted on an item-by-item basis and also by using a total summated score, which was calculated by summing across items.

The Likert scale statements were taken from, or based upon, exploratory qualitative research and published research, to ensure validity. This is illustrated in the next section that examines the sections contained in the questionnaire.

7.7 LAYOUT OF QUESTIONNAIRE

The research questionnaire was divided into three main sections, labelled section A, B and C. Section A dealt with questions regarding holiday decision-making, Section B examined issues relating to risk evaluation and Section C was used to gather socio-demographic information from respondents. These three sections will now be discussed individually to highlight the measurements and scales used and the rationale behind their inclusion.

7.7.1 Objectives of Section A

The overall objective of Section A was to understand the general holiday destination decision-making process of the respondents. The section consisted of 10 questions designed to ascertain the respondents’ holiday behaviour, the importance of safety compared to other holiday factors in deciding on a holiday destination and the role of the news media in their everyday lives. The section contained a mixture of nominal and interval scales. In order to ascertain the importance of safety compared to other factors in choosing a holiday destination, respondents were asked to rate the importance of ten factors on a five point Likert scale. In order to increase validity for this scale, a small pilot focus group was asked to name the factors that they considered when choosing a holiday destination. From all of the mentioned attributes the ten most frequently mentioned attributes were used in the structured questionnaire. These attributes were price, scenery, climate, relaxation, safety, shopping facilities, sports activities, attractions, hospitality and entertainment.
7.7.2 Objectives of Section B

The overall objective of Section B was to understand issues relating to risk evaluation. This, the main body of the research, investigated aspects relating to general safety issues, the risk of terrorism, respondents’ actual and intended behaviour towards visiting destinations that had been affected by terrorism, terrorism awareness levels of destinations affected by terrorism, and general attitudes and perceptions of the role of terrorism in destination decision-making.

To ascertain the general safety awareness levels of respondents, six statements were put forward for the respondent to rate on a five-point Likert scale. To increase validity, these statements were taken from literature dealing with perceived risk and consumer behaviour (Rundmo, 1999, p.191). Analysis was conducted using a total summated score, which was calculated by summing across items. Scores for each respondent could range from 6 (most safety aware) to 30 (least safety aware). For the purpose of this research safety awareness levels were divided into three levels, they were: high safety awareness (scores 6-12); moderate safety awareness (scores 13-18); and low safety awareness (scores 19-30).

To understand the importance of risk when deciding on a holiday destination, scales were used which measured financial, physical, social and performance risks. This scale for measuring risks in holiday decision-making is popular within leisure and tourism research (Cheron and Richie, 1982; Roehl and Fesenmaier, 1992; Cooper et al, 1998) as well as consumer behaviour studies (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1991). Physical risk was then divided into four separate item-by-item Likert statements, covering risk of terrorism, risk of disease, risk of criminal acts and risk of accidents. This enabled the importance of terrorism risk to be highlighted both individually and in relation to other risks considered in the holiday decision-making process.

The main questions regarding respondents’ willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorism activity were asked in questions 14 to 17 of Section B. The questions were nominal except for the last question, which used an interval scale to ascertain how long respondents would wait before considering visiting a destination that had been affected by terrorism. The object of the four questions was to ascertain
whether respondents would place destinations effected by terrorism into their evoked or inept sets.

Question 18 of the risk evaluation section evaluated the terrorism awareness levels of the respondents in relation to the effects of these on holiday decision-making. In order to ascertain a respondent’s level of terrorism awareness, ten destinations were listed in the questionnaire and respondents were requested to put a cross next to any destination they perceived had been subject to terrorist activity over the last 10 years. Respondents were asked to highlight those destinations that had experienced general terrorism and also terrorism where the acts had been specifically against tourists or the tourism industry. To help describe this process, Figure 7.2 below is a copy of the research instrument used to gauge the various levels.

Figure 7.2 Listed destinations that in respondents’ opinion had experienced terrorist activity in the last 10 years: A correct response.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination</th>
<th>General Terrorism</th>
<th>Terrorism against tourism</th>
<th>Destination</th>
<th>General Terrorism</th>
<th>Terrorism against tourism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Northern Ireland</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Finland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were given a score out of ten, depending on the amount of destinations they considered correctly to have experienced terrorism in the last ten years. The correct results according to the index of dangerous places taken from ‘Tourism and the Media’ (Nielson, 2001) are those marked with a cross in Figure 7.2. Respondents were then divided into three groups: low terrorism awareness, (those who scored
between 1 and 5); moderate terrorism awareness (those who scored between 6 and 8) and high terrorism awareness (those who scored 9 and 10).

The remaining question within Section B (question 20) measured respondents’ agreement with a selection of questions regarding terrorist activity and the affect on their decision-making. A five point Likert scale was utilised to measure these perceptions.

7.7.3 Objectives of Section C

Questions relating to the socio-economic background of the sample were put in Section C of the questionnaire. Questions included gender, age, marital status, number of children, occupation and family life cycle. These personal characteristics are known to have an impact on consumer behaviour and will now be discussed in detail.

- **Gender:** The literature revealed a substantial amount of research showing the influence of gender on the behaviour of tourists (Jackson & Henderson, 1995; Ryan, 2000). According to Wallendorf & Arnold (1988) gender is linked to differences in an individual’s behaviour through differences in self-concept and attitudes.

- **Age:** The next personal characteristic was the respondent’s age. Gitelson & Kerstetter (1990) state that a person’s behaviour, attitudes and perceptions can be associated with the characteristic of age. Age was investigated within this research to ascertain whether there were differences between age groups and their willingness to consider visiting destinations affected by terrorism.

- **Family composition:** The marital status and presence of children within a household were also examined. According to Wells & Gubar (1966), the presence of children can have an effect on tourist behaviour. Therefore this characteristic was included to ascertain whether behaviour towards destinations affected by terrorism is influenced by firstly the presence, and secondly the ages, of children within a household.
• **Education:** According to Mathieson & Wall (1982) education influences attitudes, perceptions and motivations that affect decisions. Cooper et al. (1998) state that educational attainment is an important determinant of travel propensity as education broadens horizons and stimulates the desire to travel.

• **Occupation:** The occupation of respondents was ascertained by asking respondents to state their normal occupation, or occupation at the time of retirement. The 'Registrar General’s' social scale is a well used form of social stratification in the U.K., based primarily on occupation. The scale divides the population into six main categories which can be summarised as: (1) Professional; (2) Managerial and Technical Occupations; (3N) Skilled Non-Manual Occupations; (3M) skilled Manual Occupations; (4) Partly-Skilled Occupations; (5) Unskilled Occupations. Three other categories were added for this research: students, housewives and the Armed Forces (the last category because of the large number in this category within the sample).

• **Life Cycle:** The family life cycle has been used in behaviour research within the tourism field by a variety of academics (Smith, 1990; Cooper et al., 1993). The family life cycle variable was calculated by dividing the sample into nine life stage categories. Those categories were Bachelor 1, 2 and 3; Young Couple; Childless Couple, Older Couple; Full Nest 1, 2 and 3. These categories form the modern life cycle (Solomon, 2001), which take into consideration the increase in non-traditional families. The criteria used to segment the sample into the mentioned categories were: age, children, ages of children and marital status.

### 7.8 THE PILOT SURVEY

The questionnaire was piloted in the early summer of 2001. The aim of the pilot study was two fold, firstly, to reveal whether there was any inadequacy in the questionnaire design, and secondly, to test the mail collection method.
Within the questionnaire design it was necessary to ascertain whether the questions were comprehensible, that there was clarity and understanding in the instructions given, and whether the questionnaire had a logical flow. The evaluation of the mail collection method required the respondent to send back the questionnaire to the freepost address used to ascertain whether the system was working efficiently.

7.8.1 Pilot survey sample

A total of twenty questionnaires were given to a sample from various socio-demographic groupings in Portsmouth, England. All questionnaires were received back at the University of Surrey within seven days of distribution.

7.8.2 Revision of the research instrument

On the basis of information gathered from the pilot survey, various changes were made to the original questionnaire. These included changes to both the layout design and questions within the questionnaire.

An open-ended question was utilised within the initial pilot survey, when ascertaining respondent’s awareness of destinations that had been affected by terrorist activity. It was found that, as the questionnaire was self administered, motivation to answer this question appeared limited, which resulted in the researcher not knowing whether the respondent had a low level of awareness or whether they did not spend the time filling the questionnaire in completely. It was decided to use a closed question instead.

7.9 THE SAMPLING PROCESS

The sampling method employed in this study will be discussed within this section, detailing the rational behind choosing certain methods. Sampling is the process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from a population so that by studying the sample, and understanding the properties or the characteristics of the sample subjects, it is possible to generalise the properties or characteristics to the population (Sekaran,
According to Malhotra (1996) the sampling design process includes five steps: defining the population, determining the sampling frame, selecting the sampling technique, determining the sample size and executing the data collection process.

7.9.1 Defining the population

A population conforms to a designated set of specifications (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1992). In the case of this study the population consists of all people who consider visiting a holiday destination. For practicality of data collection the population was reduced to those people living in the thirteen electoral wards of Portsmouth, England.

7.9.2 Determining the sampling frame

A sampling frame is a representation of the elements of the target population that consists of a list for identifying the target population (Malhotra, 1996). For this study the electoral register for Portsmouth was utilised. Within the electoral register there was an index to the streets within the particular wards, which was used as the sampling frame.

7.9.3 Selecting the sampling technique

An important aspect in the choice of sampling technique is that the characteristics of the selected sample are similar to that of the population (de Vaus, 1986). A sample is said to be representative if the analyses made on its sampling units produce results similar to those that would be obtained had the entire population been analysed. A sample that accurately reflects its population is called a representative sample (Malhotra, 1996)

There are two broad types of samples: probability and non-probability. A probability sample is one in which each person in the population has an equal chance of being selected, while in a non-probability sample some people have a greater chance than others of selection.
This research used stratified sampling, which is a probability sampling technique that uses a two-step process in which the population is partitioned into sub-populations, or strata. Elements are then selected from each strata by a random procedure (Malhotra, 1996). Stratified samples are used primarily to ensure that different groups of a population are adequately represented in the sample (Frankfort-Nachmiias & Nachmiias, 1992). The underlying idea in stratified sampling is that available information on the population is used to divide it into groups, such that, elements within each group are more alike than elements in the population as a whole. If a series of homogeneous groups can be sampled in such a way that when the samples are combined, they constitute a sample of a more heterogeneous population, then increased accuracy will result.

The stratification variable used to partition the City of Portsmouth into sub-populations was electoral wards. There are 13 electoral wards in Portsmouth, each with relatively homogeneous residents. The second step in the stratified sampling process was then to select elements randomly. This was achieved within each ward by using the street index from the electoral register. Streets were randomly selected using systematic random sampling.

A second smaller survey was also undertaken to investigate specifically what changes in awareness and attitudes of respondents occurred immediately after two major terrorist incidents occurred (in Spain and Sri Lanka), both of which achieved major international media coverage and involved tourists. The attacks happened two weeks after the initial questionnaire had been conducted. The survey sampled one ward (Hilsea) using the same systematic random sampling technique employed in the previous survey. Results were then analysed between the two samples of the Hilsea ward to investigate differences in attitudes and awareness.

7.9.4 Determining the sampling size

In order to analyse nominal, ordinal and interval data in the questionnaire, it was anticipated that the response rate needed to be greater than 200 (Hair et al, 1998). It was estimated that to achieve a minimum return of two hundred questionnaires there would need to be at least two thousand questionnaires delivered to households within
the city of Portsmouth. This estimate was based on the presumption that the response rate for this survey could be expected to be between 10 and 20 percent.

7.10 THE DATA COLLECTION PROCESS

Questionnaires were delivered by hand to the selected sample, to reduce the initial cost. Along with the questionnaire, a covering letter and pre-paid return envelope were also included. The covering letter detailed the background to the study, a request for respondent participation, and instruction for completing and returning the questionnaire.

The data collection process began on Thursday 6th July 2001. There is evidence that, for general population samples, a Thursday mail-out elicits a quicker and higher response than a mailing on any other day, probably as a result of respondents completing the questionnaire over the weekend (Hoinville & Jowell, 1977). Initially one thousand questionnaires were delivered to the thirteen wards of Portsmouth. Seventy-seven questionnaires were distributed in each ward under the sampling process described previously. For those streets with fewer than 77 households, systematic random sampling was again applied to the ward street directory from the electoral register to obtain another street until enough households were ascertained for that ward.

The second smaller survey undertaken to investigate specifically what changes in awareness and attitudes occurred after two major terrorist incidents occurred in Spain and Sri Lanka took place on Thursday 2nd August 2001. Two hundred questionnaires were posted in the Hilsea ward of Portsmouth, the ward that had recorded the highest response rate to the main survey.

7.10.1 Response rate

From the initial 1000 questionnaires delivered to respondents in the first sample, a total of 360 (36%) were returned, of which 314 were available for data analysis on SPSS. The reason for 46 questionnaires being unsuitable for analytical analysis was
due to two main reasons. Firstly, 19 questionnaires were returned unanswered or uncompleted, due in part at least to the age of some respondents (who stated this reason on their returned questionnaires). Secondly, those questionnaires received after the date of July 24th 2001 were not included in the sample because of the terrorist attacks that occurred in Sri Lanka and Spain on the 24th July and 27th July respectively. It could be argued that these events would have had an effect on the responses given by the respondents after those dates. The valid response rate from the initial 1000 questionnaires was, therefore, 31.4%. This was a higher initial response than expected and the second 1000 questionnaires were not distributed as the desired sample size had been obtained.

All questionnaires were coded to identify the ward, street and house number to which the questionnaire was delivered. This enabled identification of non-responding households and enabled reminders to be sent out to those respondents to urge them to reply to the questionnaire in order to maximise response levels and reduce non-response bias. The reminders were due to be delivered on the 26th July to those households who had not replied to the initial request, three weeks after the initial posting. The decision was made however, that no reminders should be sent, for two reasons: firstly, that responses to the initial survey on or after this date would be void due to the terrorist attacks in Sri Lanka and Spain, and secondly, due to the response rate of 31.4% being achieved by the third week it was be felt that there was no need for a reminder.

The second survey carried out after the terrorist attacks on Sri Lanka and Spain evaluated the tourist awareness of and response to the media coverage of terrorist events. Of the 200 questionnaires delivered to respondents, a total of 74 (37%) were returned, of which 69 (34.5%) were available for data analysis.

7.11 METHOD OF ANALYSIS

The final section of this chapter will examine the methods of analysis employed within the study. In order to answer the research objectives there is a need to use appropriate statistical techniques. Within this section several of those statistical
techniques will be introduced. SPSS version 11.0 for windows was employed to generate the required statistics. Before examining the techniques used in this research it is necessary to understand under what conditions each technique is appropriate. Certain criteria need to be considered in detail before choosing the appropriate method, these include: types of scale; the numbers of variables to be considered and whether to use parametric or non-parametric tests.

7.11.1 Types of scale

The statistical tools and procedures used in the following chapters require the data to meet certain conditions or be in a particular form. The type of scale and data dictate which statistical techniques are appropriate and which are inappropriate. There are four different types of scales: nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio. A description of these scales was given in Section 7.6.1. These scales of measurement have implications for statistical procedures, which will be examined below. In general, interval and ratio scales lend themselves to more powerful statistical tests.

7.11.2 The use of parametric and non-parametric tests

Whether to use parametric or non-parametric tests is also of importance. According to Grimm (1999) there are three assumptions needed to undertake parametric tests; scores in the populations should be normally distributed, population distributions should have equal variances and the tests should be applied to either interval or ratio scales of measurement. Some research questions do not lend themselves to the use of interval or ratio scales; therefore, a parametric test (e.g. chi-square tests) may not be applicable. Within this study all the bivariate statistical tests, which included interval or ratio data, were conducted using both parametric and non-parametric tests in order to increase the robustness of the results.

7.11.3 The number of variables to be considered

Finally in order to carry out statistical data analysis, there is a need to define the number of variables under consideration. Depending on the number of variables, statistical analysis can be grouped into either univariate, bivariate or multivariate.
Within this research univariate and bivariate techniques were employed and these are now discussed.

- **Univariate analysis**

Univariate techniques are appropriate when there is a single measurement of each element in the sample or when there are several measurements of each element but each variable is analysed in isolation (Malhotra, 1996). Univariate analysing techniques were used in the first findings chapter (Chapter 8) where basic descriptive findings were employed to show characteristics of respondents. The univariate statistical techniques used were basic frequency counts and means.

- **Bivariate analysis**

The subsequent chapters dealing with findings employed bivariate analytical tests that assessed the relationship between two variables. The statistical techniques included chi-square tests, t-tests, Mann-Whitney U tests, ANOVA and Kruskal-Wallis H tests. These tests will now be discussed in more detail.

**7.11.4 Types of analysis**

**Chi-square test**

Chi-square tests are non-parametric and are appropriate for data measured on scales that are not interval or ratio. They measure the differences of distributions in one variable across two or more comparison groups in another categorical variable. The chi-square statistic and the significance probability associated with it are based on the amount of difference between the expected values for each cell and the actual count. According to Cokes and Steed (1999) there are three assumptions that need to be addressed before conducting chi-square tests. Firstly, observations need to be randomly sampled from the population so that the sample is representative of the population about which it is planned to generalise the final findings. Secondly, there
needs to be independence of observations so that a different subject generates each observation and that no subject is counted twice. Finally, when the number of cells is less than ten and particularly when the sample size is small, the lowest expected frequency required for a chi-square is five. The nature of the technique requires the pattern of observed frequencies to be examined by the researcher in order to interpret the meaning of the statistically significant findings.

- **T Test and Mann-Whitney test**

The t test is a parametric test that assesses the significance of differences between two mean values for a single variable. It yields the same basic information as an analysis of variance but with only two categories for the independent variable. The main assumptions for the use of t tests are that the data should be above interval level, the sample is randomly chosen and has a normal distribution, and the variances of the two groups should be similar in population (Clark et al, 1998). Use of the Levene test for equality of variance can test the last assumption.

If the basic assumptions of normal distribution and equal variances in the population are in doubt, then the Mann-Whitney test should be used. This test is the non-parametric equivalent to the independent t test (Coakes and Steed, 1999).

- **Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Kruskal-Wallis H tests**

When the independent variable is categorical and the dependent variable is continuous, the appropriate technique to measure the statistical significance of the differences between two or more means is analysis of variance (ANOVA). As mentioned earlier, if the difference between only two mean values is to be assessed, then a statistical t-test can be used. Also referred to as the F test, this parametric test follows the basic assumptions of the t test that the sample is random and normally distributed and the variances of the two groups should be similar in population.
The non-parametric form of the ANOVA is the Kruskal-Wallis H test, which should be used if the basic assumptions of normal distribution and equal variances in the population are in doubt.

7.12 SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined the approach and methods employed in this research. The sections within the chapter dealt with a range of issues relating to the methodological techniques chosen. Initially, the problem definition and research objectives were highlighted with a model presented to illustrate the relationships tested. This was followed by an examination of the various research paradigms available to the researcher, with a rationale given for the choice of specific quantitative techniques and the main paradigm utilised within this study.

The research design employed was then explained, detailing the use of exploratory and descriptive research and the subsequent use of a postal questionnaire as the preferred research instrument for this study. The final sections of the chapter examined issues relating to the scaling of questions, the sampling process and methods of analysis.
7.13 REFERENCES


Gitelson, R.J., & Kerstetter, D.L. (1990) the relationship between sociodemographic variables, benefits sought and subsequent vacation behaviour, 28 (3), 24-29.


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Chapter Eight

DESCRIPTIVE FINDINGS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Within this chapter the descriptive findings of the primary research will be discussed. There are five main sections within these findings: issues relating to the questionnaire response rate, personal characteristics of the respondent, holiday destination decision making, risk evaluation and perceptions of terrorism. Along with these sections discussing the frequency of answers there will also be a separate section highlighting issues concerning the return of completed questionnaires.

8.2 ISSUES RELATING TO QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSE RATE

8.2.1 Overall questionnaire response rate

As detailed in Chapter Seven, the mail survey consisted of 1000 questionnaires delivered to a random sample of people living in the city of Portsmouth, England. A total of 360 (36%) were returned, after unreliable questionnaires were disregarded the final 314 questionnaires were then coded and inputted on to an SPSS database for analysis.
8.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

In the following section the characteristics of the sample will be discussed. The main demographics of the respondents including gender, age, marital status, number of dependent children, education attainment, social class and family life cycle stage will be analysed. Where possible U.K. national statistics will be used to illustrate how close the sample is to the overall characteristics of the U.K. population.

8.3.1 Age and gender of the population

The majority of respondents were female (53.8%) compared to males (46.2%), these figures are reasonably close to the UK average, which are 51% and 49% respectively (Office for National Statistics, 1999). Table 8.1 details the ages of those respondents that took part in the survey, with the age profiles of U.K. residents included to establish how close the sample is to the U.K. population as a whole.

Table 8.1 Age of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid %</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
<th>% of respondents in the UK*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24 or under</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>68.8</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>84.7</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 or over</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*(Source: Office for National Statistics, 1999)

In Table 8.1 the respondents’ age and gender groups were cross-tabulated. The percentage of the respondents in the age group 35-44 was much higher than the actual population. In contrast, those aged 24 or under provided a very low reply to the questionnaire. The slight difference in the 65 years and above age group can perhaps be put down to the numerous questionnaires returned unanswered by elderly
respondents. By conducting a cross-tabulation between age and gender it is possible to see whether there are any major differences between the ages of female and male respondents. This is shown in Figure 8.1 below.

**Figure 8.1 Age and gender of respondents**

From Figure 8.1 it is clear that there are major differences in the gender of certain age groups, most noticeably in those aged 24 or under (females: 73.7%; males: 26.3%) and those aged 65 or over (females: 27.1%; males: 72.9%). The gender balance in the remaining categories are much closer to the sample whole of 53.8% for women and 46.2% for men.

**8.3.2 Marital Status**

Respondents were then asked to describe their marital status. These results are displayed in Figure 8.2. The largest percentage of respondents were those who were married or with a partner at 56%, which compares to the national average of 63%, those who were single counted for 17.6% of the sample which compares to the national average of 22.6%. Other marital status (widowed, divorced, separated and other) counted for 26.6% of respondents compared to the national average of 14.4% (The Office for National Statistics, 1999).
8.3.3 Children living at home

Respondents were next asked whether they had children and if so their ages, in order to ascertain whether children living at home affect travel decisions. Of the total sample, 40.1% of respondents answered positively to the question of whether they had children living with them. Table 8.2 below illustrates the breakdown of the ages of the children still living at home.

Table 8.2 Age of children living in household

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age of Children</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>% of Respondents with Children</th>
<th>Valid %</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under 6 years</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-17 years</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>52.4</td>
<td>77.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 years and above</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>40.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Over half (52.4%) were aged between 6-18 years, with young children under the age of 6 counting for 24.6% of the sample. The remaining 23% were 'adult' children over the age of 18 still living with their parents.

8.3.4 Educational level of the sample

Table 8.3 details the education level of the respondents. On analysing the results it is evident that over 35% of respondents were educated to degree level or above, which is much above the U.K. profile of 18%. This could be due to two main reasons, firstly, the high level of responses from teachers and nurses and secondly that people with higher educational attainments are normally more likely to take part in research. Those educated up to the age of 18 represented 64.2% of the sample, compared to the national profile of 82.6% (Office for National Statistics, 1999).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Formal Education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Valid %</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Up to 16</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Up to 18</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>64.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University / College graduate</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>83.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.3.5 Social grading of respondents

The 'Registrar General’s' social scale is one of the most popular forms of social stratification in the U.K. (Solomon, 2001). Based primarily on occupation it was renamed by the government in 1990 as 'Social Class based on Occupation'. The scale divides the population into six main categories which can be summarised as: (1)
Professional; (2) Managerial and Technical Occupations; (3N) Skilled Non-Manual Occupations; (3M) skilled Manual Occupations; (4) Partly-Skilled Occupations; (5) Unskilled Occupations. Three other categories were added for this research: students, housewives and the Armed Forces due to the number in the sample, which reflects Portsmouth’s military connections. The UK profile was included next to the sample findings to illustrate how the sample compares to the UK average. The results can be seen in Table 8.4.

Table 8.4 Social class of respondents based on occupation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Class by Occupation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Valid %</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
<th>UK Profile %*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Professional</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Managerial and technical</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>26.4</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>28.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3(N) Skilled non-manual</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>54.6</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(M) Skilled manual</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>72.2</td>
<td>21.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Partly skilled</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>84.0</td>
<td>16.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Unskilled</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>90.4</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housewife</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>98.1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armed Forces</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>99.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*(Source: Office for National Statistics, 1999)*

Overall, the social class profile of the UK is fairly similar to that of the sample. The top professional classes are slightly lower at 2.6% compared to an average UK profile of 5.8% as are skilled manual workers which number 17.6% in the sample compared to 21% nationally. Other differences include partly skilled at 11.8% compared to the UK profile of 16.3%, while housewives represented a relative large 7.7% of the sample.
8.3.6 The ‘Family Life Cycle’ of the sample

The family life cycle takes into consideration four main variables that together are used to segment people into different categories (Solomon, 2001). Those variables are: (1) age; (2) marital status; (3) the presence or absence of children in the home, and; (4) the ages of children if present. It was therefore possible to highlight the respondent’s family life cycle stage by cross-tabulating the previous sample characteristics that have been discussed. The modern family life cycle has been utilised rather than the traditional family cycle due to the continuing increase in the different types of modern families in the UK. Figure 8.3 below depicts the breakdown of the sample into their relevant ‘Family Life Cycle’ stages.

Figure 8.3 The ‘Family Life Cycle’

![Bar chart showing percentage of respondents in different family life cycle stages]

The largest segments were ‘childless couples’, that is people aged between 35 and 64 with no children and also those in the ‘full nest II’ which are people with children living with them between the ages of 6-18.
Chapter Eight Findings

8.4 HOLIDAY DESTINATION DECISION MAKING

In this section respondents were asked a series of questions on how they decide on their holiday destination. The section is divided into four main sub-sections: holiday behaviour; the use of travel information; the importance of holiday factors in deciding a holiday destination and the use of media and its influence.

8.4.1 Holiday behaviour

From the 314 respondents sampled, 291 (93%) had previously visited a foreign destination. The 7% of respondents who answered negatively to this question were asked to proceed to the media sub-section. The remaining 93% went on to answer the next five questions that looked at issues regarding destination selection. Firstly, the respondents were asked to state which types of holiday they preferred most, Figure 8.4 below illustrates the results.

Figure 8.4 Holiday preferences

Chi-square tests were applied to discover any differences of the distributions of the respondent’s characteristics and which types of holiday they preferred. The variables used in the chi square tests are those characteristics put forward in the previous section: gender, age, marital status, with children, ages of children, educational level, social class and family-life cycle. The only significance was found in the educational
variable, which was highly significant at $p<0.01$. There was clear evidence that the more highly educated the more likely they were not to prefer full package tours.

The majority of respondents normally go on their holiday with their partner or a member of their family (78.3%) compared to with friends (15.9%) or alone (5.9%). For those who travel with someone, 15.2% of the respondents stated that they made the decisions on which destination to visit, compared to 84.8% who said it was a joint decision with others.

8.4.2 The use of travel information

Respondents were next asked to rate five statements that asked how much they agreed or disagreed with statements relating to the different sources of information that they could use when deciding where to go on holiday. Using a five point Likert scale respondents gave an agreement rating ranging between strongly agree and strongly disagree. The mean rating, along with the standard deviation and variance, was then calculated to highlight which sources of information were most influential when deciding on a holiday destination. This is illustrated in Table 8.5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information Source</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Influenced from friends/family</td>
<td>2.3521</td>
<td>.92623</td>
<td>.858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influenced by holiday TV programmes</td>
<td>3.1071</td>
<td>1.05882</td>
<td>1.121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influenced by Advertising (print, TV etc)</td>
<td>3.3274</td>
<td>1.05877</td>
<td>1.121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influenced by travel agents</td>
<td>3.4353</td>
<td>1.10518</td>
<td>1.221</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 = Strongly Agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Neither Agree or Disagree; 4 = Disagree; 5 = Strongly Disagree

The means of the four sources of information ranged from 2.3521 for the influence of information from friends and family up to 3.4353 for the influence of the information from travel agents, on the five point Likert scale. The lower the mean the more influential the source is perceived to be when choosing a holiday destination. Figure 8.5 below highlight the frequencies of responses on the Likert scale for each of the four sources.
8.4.3 Importance of holiday factors

Respondents were then asked to rate holiday attributes on how important they are when choosing a holiday destination, to ascertain whether or not safety is an important factor when considering a holiday destination. Using a five point Likert scale respondents gave an importance rating ranging between very important to not at all important. Figure 8.6 highlight the frequencies of responses on the Likert scale for each of the ten factors.

Advice from friends and family was an influential source of information when choosing a holiday destination with 62.7% of respondents viewing this source as either very important or important. Holiday television programmes were also an influential source of information with 32.9% viewing it as either very important or important. Information given by travel agents was viewed as being the least influential when choosing a holiday destination with a very important/ important score of only 22.3%.
Chapter Eight Findings

Figure 8.6 Important holiday factors

Price and value for money was considered the most important factor when choosing a holiday destination with 86.5% of respondents viewing it as either very important or important. Climate was the second most important factor with 86.4% viewing it as either very important or important, with the issue of safety coming third with 84.4% of respondents stating that it was either important or very important to them. On the other hand, shopping facilities and sports activities were viewed as being the least important factors when choosing a holiday destination with very important/important scores of only 25.4% and 17.5% respectively. The average tendencies of these frequencies will be examined in depth in the next chapter.

8.4.4 The media

Respondents were asked next a selection of questions regarding their media habits. Questions were asked in relation to respondent’s use and attitudes to both print and television media. Firstly, respondents were asked several questions regarding their use of both print media and their viewing of television news. The results are illustrated in Figure 8.7.
The results showed that more respondents read a newspaper on a daily basis (48.9%), compared to most days (24.6%), once in a while (17.9%) and very rarely/never (8.6%). Results also showed that most respondents watched national television news on a daily basis (53.7%), compared to most days (35.8%), once in a while (8.9%) and very rarely/never (1.6%). These results are described in Figure 8.8.

The types of newspapers read most often by the sample were pretty evenly spread. Most popular was the local newspaper (29.1%) followed by the national tabloid (24.8%). Finally in this sub-section, respondents were asked three questions to ascertain the perceptions of the sample about the news they received.
Figure 8.9 How factual and unbiased news is perceived to be.

From Figure 8.9 is it clear that there are major differences in the perceptions of how factual and unbiased different news media are felt to be. Most respondents strongly agreed/agreed (51.3%) that the news media was factual and unbiased compared to just 16% who rated newspapers the same. Finally, respondents were asked to rate on a five point Likert scale the extent to how much they tend to form attitudes towards the world from the news they received. The majority of respondents (51.3%) responded by stating that they strongly agreed/agreed to the fact they tended to form their attitudes towards the world from the news that they received.

8.5 ASPECTS OF RISK

In this next section respondents were asked a selection of questions referring to aspects of risk. The section is divided into three main sub-sections: risk evaluation of destinations; safety awareness and evaluation of risks when planning holidays.

8.5.1 Risk evaluation of destinations

Respondents were asked to rate 15 destinations on how safe or unsafe they perceive them to be. Using a five point Likert Scale respondents gave an attitude rating ranging from very unsafe to very safe. Figure 8.10 highlights the frequency of responses for each of the fifteen destinations.
The majority of those respondents questioned (78.2%) viewed the Lebanon as being either unsafe or very unsafe, with only 3.2% viewing the destination as being safe. Other destinations with a high level of respondents viewing them being unsafe include Libya and Israel, which had unsafe/ very unsafe ratings of 74.8% and 74.5% respectively. Those destinations that respondents regard to be most safe included Denmark, Finland and Australia, which had safe/ very safe ratings of 93.9%, 88.1%, 83.5% respectively.

The mean rating along with the standard deviation and variance was then calculated to enable the destinations to be placed in order of how unsafe they are perceived to be. This is illustrated in Table 8.6.
### Table 8.6 Safety evaluations of 15 destinations – means

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destinations</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>Rank (Rating)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>1.6399</td>
<td>0.59478</td>
<td>0.35376</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>1.7596</td>
<td>0.68275</td>
<td>0.46615</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>1.9646</td>
<td>0.66868</td>
<td>0.44713</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>2.1090</td>
<td>0.76980</td>
<td>0.59259</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>2.5224</td>
<td>0.85216</td>
<td>0.72618</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>2.9871</td>
<td>0.96198</td>
<td>0.92540</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>3.0836</td>
<td>0.84972</td>
<td>0.72202</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>3.2404</td>
<td>0.85805</td>
<td>0.73624</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>3.2621</td>
<td>0.78494</td>
<td>0.61613</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>3.3639</td>
<td>0.76219</td>
<td>0.58093</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>3.4759</td>
<td>0.83776</td>
<td>0.70184</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N. Ireland</td>
<td>3.5431</td>
<td>0.95352</td>
<td>0.90919</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>4.0160</td>
<td>0.82997</td>
<td>0.68885</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libya</td>
<td>4.0290</td>
<td>0.79793</td>
<td>0.63669</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon</td>
<td>4.0417</td>
<td>0.77844</td>
<td>0.60598</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note based on five point Likert Scale, 1 = Very Safe; 2 = Safe; 3 = Neither Safe or Unsafe; 4 = Unsafe; 5 = Very Unsafe

The means (see Table 8.6) of the ten destinations ranged from 1.6399 for Denmark up to 4.0417 for the Lebanon on the five point Likert Scale, with the higher the mean the more unsafe the destination is perceived to be. The two destinations perceived as being most safe have similar mean scores, as have the bottom three destinations, which have nearly identical mean scores. What is interesting from examining those destinations that are perceived as the most and least safe is that they can be grouped into particular regions of the world, with the destinations from the Middle East perceived as being the least safe, and destinations from Scandinavian considered as the most safe. This is hardly surprising due to amount of negative publicity that has surrounded countries such as Lebanon, Libya and Israel in the last 20 years compared to Denmark and Finland which has received little negative publicity in relation to safety issues.
8.5.2 Safety awareness

To ascertain the respondents’ overall safety awareness, six general statements referring to safety were put forward for the respondents to rate on a five point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. These six statements were then aggregated to give an overall safety awareness score. Finally the respondents were placed within either a high, moderate or low safety awareness category depending on their safety awareness score (see sub-section 7.7.2 in the methodology chapter for full description). The findings are illustrated in Figure 8.11.

Figure 8.11 Safety awareness of respondents.

The majority of the respondents were considered to have a moderate safety awareness level (66.2%). This figure compares to 20.4% of respondents who were considered to be highly aware of safety and 13.4% of respondents who had low safety awareness levels.

8.5.3 Evaluation of holiday risks in destination selection

Within this sub-section respondents were asked to rate four main types of holiday risk that they may consider when deciding to go on holiday. Using a five point Likert Scale respondents gave an attitude rating ranging from very important to not at all important. Table 8.7 highlights the frequency of responses for the various types of risks.
Table 8.7 Importance of risks in holiday decision-making.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very Important %</th>
<th>Important %</th>
<th>Neither Important or Unimportant %</th>
<th>Not Important %</th>
<th>Not at all Important %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Financial Risks</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value for Money</td>
<td>46.8</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Physical Risks</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk of Terrorism</td>
<td>60.5</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk of Disease</td>
<td>52.2</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk of Criminal Acts</td>
<td>39.2</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk of Accidents</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social Risks</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What others think of holiday</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>43.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Performance Risks</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delays/Satisfaction etc</td>
<td>32.8</td>
<td>52.9</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Physical risks were divided into four main elements: terrorism; disease; criminal acts and accidents. Overall all the physical aspects were considered to be very important/important by the majority of respondents with a range from 87.3% for risk of terrorism to 64% for risk of accidents. Financial risks were found to be very important/important by 92.3% of the sample, as were performance risks with an 85.7% rating for very important/important. One area that is not considered particularly important is the aspect of social risk which takes into consideration aspects connected with what others think of an individual’s holiday choices, just 8.1% of the sample considered this aspect to be very important/important. The mean rating was then calculated to enable the various risks to be placed in order of importance (see Table 8.8).
Table 8.8 Importance of risks in holiday decision-making - means

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean *</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>Rank (Rating)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Financial Risks</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value for Money</td>
<td>1.6338</td>
<td>0.70344</td>
<td>0.495</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Physical Risks</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk of Terrorism</td>
<td>1.5860</td>
<td>0.88686</td>
<td>0.787</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk of Decease</td>
<td>1.6242</td>
<td>0.78251</td>
<td>0.612</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk of Criminal Acts</td>
<td>1.8057</td>
<td>0.81352</td>
<td>0.662</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk of Accidents</td>
<td>2.1975</td>
<td>0.99481</td>
<td>0.990</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social Risks</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What others think of holiday</td>
<td>4.0064</td>
<td>1.04107</td>
<td>1.084</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Performance Risks</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delays/Satisfaction etc</td>
<td>1.8662</td>
<td>0.80411</td>
<td>0.647</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: based on five point Likert Scale, 1 = Very Important; 2 = Important; 3 = Neither Important or Unimportant; 4 = Not Important; 5 = Not at all Important

The means of the risks ranged from 1.5860 for the risk of terrorism up to 4.0064 for social risks on the five point Likert Scale, with the lower the mean the more important it is considered to be.

8.6 **THE EFFECTS OF TERRORISM ON DECISION MAKING**

Respondents were next asked a selection of questions referring to their perceptions and awareness of terrorism and its resulting impact on their decision-making. The section is divided into three main sub-sections: previous history of visiting destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity; awareness of destinations that have been subject to terrorism and overall perceptions towards terrorism.
8.6.1 Previous history of visiting destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity.

In this sub-section respondents were asked several questions regarding their past tourist visits to destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity, their willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorist activities and the length of time they would wait after a terror attack before considering that destination again.

Initially, respondents were asked whether they had visited a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity in the last ten years. The majority (73.6%) answered that they had not, compared to 26.4% who had. Those respondents who had visited a destination affected by terrorism were then asked the reason for their visits. The majority stated it was for holiday/leisure purposes compared to 20% and 18.8% for business and VFR purposes respectively.

Those 73.6% of respondents who stated that they had not visited a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years were then asked whether they would consider visiting such a destination. Figure 8.12 below illustrates the findings to this question.

Figure 8.12 Would consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity.
Those respondents (58%) who answered positively to whether they would ever consider visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorism were then asked to state how long they would wait until they would consider a destination again. The results are illustrated in Table 8.9.

Table 8.9 Time before visiting a destination affected by terrorism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid %</th>
<th>Cumulative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Straight Away</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less Than a Year</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 2 Years</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>55.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 to 3 Years</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>75.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 to 4 Years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>89.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 5 Years</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of respondents (55.5%) indicate they would consider visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity after a time-span of between one and two years. This figure increases to nearly 90% of respondents who would consider a destination within four years. There are, however, a measurable percentage of respondents who would visit straight away (7.9%) or who would wait over five years (11%).

8.6.2 Awareness of destinations that have been subject to terrorism

Respondents were next asked questions relating to their perceptions of destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity. A selection of ten destinations were put forward to ascertain respondents' awareness of terrorism. Figure 8.13 shows the perceptions of destinations that the respondents believe have suffered terrorist activity in the last ten years.
Northern Ireland was considered by most (99%) to suffer from terrorist activity followed by Israel (97.4%) and Egypt (76%). Surprisingly Thailand was perceived to be prone to terrorist activity by 37.7% of the sample, even though there has been no terrorist activity present within that country in the past ten years. Finland, Denmark and Australia were perceived to be terrorist free by the vast majority of the respondents with 96.2%, 95.2% and 93.6% respectively stating they thought those destinations had not been subject to terrorist activity.
Egypt was considered by most (76%) to suffer from terrorist activity where tourists have been targeted, followed by Israel (60.1%) and Northern Ireland (41.5%). The figures for both Israel and Northern Ireland seem very high given that there has been no declared terrorist activity against tourists or the tourist infrastructure. Finland, Denmark and Australia were perceived to be free of terrorist attacks against tourists by the vast majority of the respondents 99%, 98.7% and 93.6% respectively stating they thought those destinations were not subject to terrorist activity where tourists had been targeted.

8.6.3 Perceptions towards terrorism in relation to tourism

In this final sub-section respondents were asked several statements regarding their perceptions of terrorism in relation to taking a holiday. Using a five point Likert scale respondents gave an agreement rating ranging between strongly agree and strongly disagree to specific statements.
First of all, respondents were asked to what extent they were frightened by the possibility of terrorism while on holiday. Figure 8.15 highlights the results. Just over a third of those sampled (38.3%) strongly agreed/agreed to being frightened by the possibility of terrorism while on holiday compared to 26.2% who strongly disagreed/disagreed.

Figure 8.15 Frightened by the possibility of terrorism while on holiday

Next, the sample was asked whether or not they believed the media tended to exaggerate the actual risk involved. Figure 8.16 highlights the results. Over half of the respondents (52.2%) strongly agreed/agreed to the statement that media images tend to exaggerate risk compared to 14.7% who strongly disagreed or disagreed with the statement.

Figure 8.16 Media images tend to exaggerate risk
The sample were then asked whether adverse media reports of terrorism negatively affected their decision to visit a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity. Figure 8.17 below highlights the results. A substantial majority of the respondents (63.9%) strongly agreed/agreed to the statement that adverse media reports of terrorism negatively affected their decision to visit a destination compared to just 10.5% who strongly disagreed or disagreed to the statement. This would seem to show some inconsistency in the findings, as over 50% of respondents stated that they think the media exaggerate risk, yet 63.9% stated that the media affects their travel decisions.

**Figure 8.17 Adverse media reports of terrorism put me off visiting a destination**

Finally, the respondents were asked to what extent they believed that those who are young or elderly should not be exposed to terrorist risks. Figure 8.18 highlights the results. A majority of the respondents (60.9%) strongly agreed/agreed to the statement that those who are young or elderly should not be exposed to terrorist risks compared to 9.9% who strongly disagreed or disagreed to the statement.
Chapter Eight Findings

Figure 8.18 Should the young or elderly be exposed to terrorist risks

8.7 SUMMARY

This chapter illustrated the descriptive findings of the survey. It was divided into four main sections, each examining the various aspects of the questionnaire.

In the initial section the characteristics of the sample were discussed and where possible U.K. national statistics were used to illustrate how similar the sample was to the overall characteristics of the U.K. population. Overall, the sample was shown to be similar in most characteristics, although there was a greater response from those with high levels of formal education compared to the U.K. average.

The subsequent sections examined descriptive findings in relation to decision-making, risk awareness and attitudes to terrorism at tourist destinations. In the next chapter, more in-depth statistical techniques will be utilized in order to answer the specific objectives put forward in the initial chapters.
8.8 REFERENCES


Chapter Nine

FINDINGS RELATING TO THE IMPORTANCE OF SAFETY IN DESTINATION SELECTION

9.1 INTRODUCTION

Within this chapter, findings will be discussed in relation to the first two research objectives, which examine the importance of safety in the selection of a holiday destination. The chapter consists of three sections, with the first two sections including responses to specific research questions that endeavour to answer the research objectives. Section One examines the importance of safety in destination decision-making, illustrating the importance of safety in comparison to other factors. Section Two then examines the influence of independent variables on the dependent variable of safety, illustrating differences in the importance placed on safety based on respondents' personal characteristics, general safety awareness levels and holiday behaviour patterns. In the final section, the findings will be discussed.

In general, only those findings to be found statistically significant are discussed. The level of significance used for analysing the differences between groups and means is 0.05. Those results that fall below that level will be considered non-significant and will only be discussed in detail if they are perceived to be of importance in understanding objectives.

Both parametric and non-parametric tests were utilized to maximize the robustness of the results. When reporting the findings generally only the parametric results are
discussed, unless there are differences between the parametric and non-parametric tests that have implications for the results. Most of the tests used were to ascertain the differences in a group (ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis tests); t-tests and Mann-Whitney U Tests were occasionally used when the independent variable had only two groups (e.g., gender).

This chapter commences by highlighting the findings concerning the importance of safety in tourism decision-making.

9.2 THE IMPORTANCE OF SAFETY IN CONSIDERING POTENTIAL HOLIDAY DESTINATIONS.

Although there are ‘energisers of demand’ which are those forces that lead a tourist to undertake a holiday, there are also ‘filters of demand’ which act as barriers or determinants to travel. Cooper et al. (1998, p.21) stated “even though a person maybe motivated to take a holiday, they may be constrained by certain barriers”. McIntosh et al. (1986) researched these potential barriers to travel and concluded that one of these barriers is safety. This section will now look at the importance of safety and endeavour to answer the following objective.

Objective 1. How important is the attribute of safety in the consumer decision making process of selecting a holiday destination compared to other attributes?

In order to answer the above objective respondents were asked to rate ten attributes on their importance when choosing a holiday destination, to ascertain whether or not safety is the most important factor when considering a holiday destination. Using a five point Likert scale respondents gave an attitude rating ranging between 1 (very important) to 5 (not at all important). The mean rating was then calculated to enable the factors to be placed in order of importance.

The means (see Table 9.1) of the ten factors ranged from 1.7491 for price/value for money up to 3.5455 for sports activities, on the five point Likert scale. The lower the
mean, the more important the factor is perceived to be when choosing a holiday destination. Safety as a factor emerged third with a mean rating of 1.7785, surpassed only marginally by climate and price/ value for money at the destination.

Table 9.1 The importance of holiday factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Holiday Factor</th>
<th>Mean *</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>Rank (Rating)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Price/ Value for Money</td>
<td>1.7491</td>
<td>0.77536</td>
<td>.601</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Climate at the Destination</td>
<td>1.7604</td>
<td>0.76616</td>
<td>.587</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>1.7785</td>
<td>0.82879</td>
<td>.687</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scenery at the Destination</td>
<td>1.9338</td>
<td>0.80153</td>
<td>.642</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relaxation</td>
<td>1.9549</td>
<td>0.83565</td>
<td>.698</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitality of the Local People</td>
<td>2.1207</td>
<td>0.84586</td>
<td>.715</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractions to Visit</td>
<td>2.1897</td>
<td>1.01301</td>
<td>1.026</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>2.7063</td>
<td>1.09757</td>
<td>1.205</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping Facilities</td>
<td>3.1777</td>
<td>1.07081</td>
<td>1.147</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports Activities</td>
<td>3.5455</td>
<td>1.09048</td>
<td>1.189</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*1 = Very Important; 2 = Important; 3 = Neither Important or Unimportant; 4 = Not Important; 5 = Not at all Important
9.3 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN RESPONDENTS IN THE IMPORTANCE THEY ATTACH TO THE FACTOR OF SAFETY WHEN DECIDING ON A HOLIDAY DESTINATION

Within this section the personal characteristics, general safety awareness and holiday behavioural patterns of the respondents are examined in relation to the importance they place on the issue of safety in their decision-making. It was shown in section 1.1 that safety is regarded as one of the most important factors when tourists consider holiday destinations. What this section aims to do is to ascertain whether that importance differs between respondents according to their demographic profiles. As a result, the following objective will be dealt with within this section of the chapter.

**Objective 2.** Are there differences between tourists' personal characteristics, general safety awareness levels and holiday behavioural patterns and the importance they attach to the attribute of safety when considering potential holiday destinations?

To answer this objective, this section of the chapter will include three sub-sections, which will include research questions regarding objective two.

9.3.1 Personal characteristics of respondents and the importance of safety when choosing a holiday destination

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following *research question* has been formulated.

*Are there differences between tourists' personal characteristics and the importance attached to the attribute of safety when considering potential holiday destinations?*
The personal characteristics examined are gender, age, marital status, children in household, ages of children in household, occupational status, level of formal education and family life cycle (FLC). ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis Tests were used to analyse the age, marital status, ages of children in household, occupational status, level of education and family life cycle variables. The remaining variables of gender and children in household were analysed using Mann-Whitney U tests and t-tests and results are shown in Table 9.2 below.

Table 9.2 Differences between gender/ with or without children and the importance of safety when choosing a holiday destination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1.9333</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1.6429</td>
<td>-2.709</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>3.014</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With Children</td>
<td>1.6545</td>
<td>Without Children</td>
<td>1.8547</td>
<td>-2.163</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>-2.004</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>.046</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*1 = Very Important 2 = Important 3 = Neither Important or Unimportant 4 = Not Important 5 = Not at all important

As can be seen from Table 9.2, both the variables of gender and whether there were children present within the household were found to be statistically significant and will now be discussed below.

- Gender

Examinations were made to see whether men and women have different levels in the importance they attach to safety. The variable of gender was found to be statistically significant \((p = 0.03)\). Table 9.2 highlights the statistical significant differences in means between genders, with females overall placing a higher importance on the issue of safety when choosing a holiday destination than males.
Chapter Nine Findings

- Children Living at Home

The variable of having children living at home was also found to be statistically significant ($p = 0.046$). As table 9.2 illustrates the means are statistically different between those respondents who have children living with them and those who do not. As would be expected when there are children living at home there is a greater importance given by those respondents to the importance of safety.

The remaining variables were analysed using the ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis tests. The results are shown in Table 9.3 with those variables that are significant in bold. Only those variables found statistically significant will be discussed. It is surprising, perhaps, that the characteristic of age was not found to be significant (see table 9.3), as it was expected to be one of the most significant factors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.621</td>
<td>.684</td>
<td>2.002</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>5.166</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>15.115</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of Children</td>
<td>5.457</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>6.465</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>1.865</td>
<td>.065</td>
<td>12.831</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Education</td>
<td>5.860</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>18.105</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLC</td>
<td>1.915</td>
<td>.058</td>
<td>12.714</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.122</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• Marital Status

As Table 9.3 shows, marital status was highly significant at \( p = 0.004 \). Table 9.4 illustrates the means are statistically different, with those respondents who are single showing less importance attached to the issue of safety when considering a holiday destination, while those who are divorced/ widowed showed greatest concern for the factor of safety.

Table 9.4 Marital status and the importance of safety when choosing a holiday destination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean *</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>2.0577</td>
<td>.97846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married/with Partner</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>1.7284</td>
<td>.76430</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>1.6341</td>
<td>.76668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced/Separated</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1.6129</td>
<td>.76059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.3333</td>
<td>.57735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>1.7785</td>
<td>.82879</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Very Important  2 = Important  3 = Neither Important or Unimportant  4 = Not Important  5 = Not at all important
• Age of Children

The ANOVA test found the age of children within a household showed a statistically significant relationship at p = .039 (see Table 9.3). As expected the younger the children, the more emphasis was placed by respondents on the importance of safety. The means in table 9.5 below illustrate this point.

Table 9.5 Age of children and the importance of safety when choosing a holiday destination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean*</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under Six</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1.4333</td>
<td>.50401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 – 17 Years</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>1.5789</td>
<td>.73064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 Years and above</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2.0800</td>
<td>1.03763</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>1.6518</td>
<td>.79082</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Very Important 2= Important 3= Neither Important or Unimportant 4 = Not Important 5 = Not at all important
• Level of Education

The final variable to be found significant through ANOVA tests was the level of formal education that the respondents had, which was found to be highly statistically significant at \( p = 0.00 \). The means in Table 9.6 below illustrate that as respondents’ level of education increased there was less emphasis placed on the aspect of safety when deciding on a holiday destination, with those respondents holding post graduate degrees the least concerned with the issue of safety.

Table 9.6 Level of education and the importance of safety when choosing a holiday destination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Formal Education</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School to Age 16 and Under</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>1.5521</td>
<td>.72358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School/ College to Age 17/18 Years</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>1.7470</td>
<td>.79393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University/ College Graduate</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>1.9661</td>
<td>.92785</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University College Postgraduate</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.0833</td>
<td>.84635</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>1.7832</td>
<td>.83047</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Very Important  2 = Important  3 = Neither Important or Unimportant  4 = Not Important  5 = Not at all important
9.3.2 Safety awareness levels of respondents and the importance of safety when choosing a holiday destination

Within this sub-section the general safety awareness levels of the respondents are examined in relation to the importance they place on the issue of safety in their decision-making. In order to ascertain respondents' general level of safety awareness, six statements referring to issues of safety were given to the respondents to answer on a 5-point Likert scale (see questionnaire, Appendix 5), with a minimum score of 6 and a maximum of 30 available. Respondents were then divided into three groups: high safety awareness, (those who scored between 1 and 12); moderate safety awareness (those who scored between 13 and 18) and low safety awareness (those who scored between 19 and 30). What this sub-section aims to do is to ascertain whether the importance of safety when deciding on a holiday destination differs between respondents according to their levels of general safety awareness. To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.

Are there differences between tourists' general safety awareness levels and the importance attached to the attribute of safety when considering potential holiday destinations?

In order to ascertain the level of significance between the two variables both ANOVA and Kruskal tests were carried out (see Table 9.7). The results show that the differences between the means are highly significant at (p=0.01).

Table 9.7 F and Kruskal Wallis tests of safety awareness levels and the importance of safety when choosing a holiday destination

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>Df</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.793</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>14.792</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In order to understand these differences, means for the importance of safety were examined against the three safety awareness groups. Table 9.8 illustrates that the higher the general safety awareness levels of the respondents the greater the importance given to the factor of safety when deciding on a holiday destination. This suggests that those who are most safety conscious generally place greater importance on safety when it comes to booking their holiday.

Table 9.8 Safety awareness levels and the importance of safety when choosing a holiday destination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High Safety Awareness</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>1.4737</td>
<td>.09729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate Safety Awareness</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>1.8073</td>
<td>.05812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Safety Awareness</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.0750</td>
<td>.14930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>1.7785</td>
<td>.04875</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Very Important  2 = Important  3 = Neither Important or Unimportant  4 = Not Important  5 = Not at all important
9.3.3 Holiday behaviour of respondents and the importance of safety when choosing a holiday destination

The final sub-section within this section looks at the holiday behaviour of the respondents in relation to the importance they place on the issue of safety in their decision-making. Respondents were asked questions regarding which type of holiday they preferred, who they normally went on holiday with and who made the decision on which destination to visit, in an attempt to understand their holiday behaviour patterns. To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question was formulated.

Are there differences between tourists' holiday behaviour and the importance attached to the attribute of safety when considering potential holiday destinations?

Mann-Whitney U tests and t-tests were used to analyse the variable of who makes the decisions where to go on holiday with the remaining holiday behavioural characteristics tested using ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis Tests.

• Who Decides on Holiday Destination

Mann-Whitney U tests and t-tests showed that who decides on which destination to visit was not statistically significant (p=0.53). However, as the results were close to the statistically significant level of 0.05 the results will be discussed. Table 9.9 details the difference in the means and it can be seen that those who take individual decisions where to visit, place less importance on the aspect of safety compared to those who make joint decisions.
Table 9.9 Mean differences of who decides on holiday Destination and the importance of safety when choosing a holiday destination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Mean*</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Mean*</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>2.0682</td>
<td>Joint</td>
<td>1.7295</td>
<td>-1.659</td>
<td>.097</td>
<td>1.980</td>
<td>50.951</td>
<td>.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Very Important  2 = Important  3 = Neither Important or Unimportant  4 = Not Important  5 = Not at all important

- Type of Holiday Preferred / Holiday Companions

The remaining variables were analysed using the ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis tests. The results are shown in Table 9.10 below, with those variables that are significant in bold.

Table 9.10 F and Kruskal tests of holiday behaviour and the importance of safety when choosing a holiday destination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Holiday Behaviour</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of Holiday most</td>
<td>8.420</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>15.104</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preferred</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holiday Companion</td>
<td>4.581</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>5.284</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.071</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

195
As Table 9.10 illustrates, the ANOVA test found that the type of holiday most preferred by the respondents showed a highly statistically significant relationship ($p = 0.01$) with the importance placed on the aspect of safety when deciding on a holiday location. The means in Table 9.11 below show those respondents who prefer to take package tours place more importance on the factor of safety compared to those taking semi-package or totally independent tours.

**Table 9.11 Type of holiday most preferred and the importance of safety when choosing a holiday destination**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Holiday</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean*</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full Package Tour</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>1.5888</td>
<td>.75177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi Package Tour</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>1.7636</td>
<td>.76539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totally Independent Tour</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>2.1014</td>
<td>.95709</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>1.7785</td>
<td>.83166</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Very Important 2 = Important 3 = Neither Important or Unimportant 4 = Not Important 5 = Not at all important

The ANOVA test (see Table 9.10) also highlights that who a person normally goes on holiday with has a statistically significant relationship with the importance placed on the aspect of safety when deciding on a holiday location ($f = 4.581$: d.f. = 2: $p < 0.011$). The Kruskal Wallis test however views the relationship as insignificant (Chi-square = 5.284: d.f = 2: $p = 0.071$). As the variances of the groups are unequal in the population, the non-parametric test should be used instead of the parametric F test (Bryman and Cramer, 1999). Therefore this relationship will not be accepted but due to the circumstances the means have been highlighted in Table 9.12. It is evident from examining the means that those who normally holiday alone place less importance on the aspect of safety compared to those going with their partner/family or friends.
Table 9.12 Holiday companions and the importance of safety when choosing a holiday destination.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alone</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2.3529</td>
<td>1.16946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partner/Family</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>1.7301</td>
<td>.79592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend/s</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1.8000</td>
<td>.78625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>1.7778</td>
<td>.83013</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Very Important  2 = Important  3 = Neither Important or Unimportant  4 = Not Important  5 = Not at all important

9.4 DISCUSSION OF THE MAIN FINDINGS

This chapter will now discuss in detail the findings detailed in the previous sections. Firstly the findings relating to the importance of safety in destination selection will be discussed, after which the findings that related to the influence of independent variables will be examined.

The importance of safety when deciding on a holiday destination was the third most important factor, surpassed only marginally by both climate and price/value for money. On a Likert scale of 1–5 (1 = Very Important; 5 = Very Unimportant) price/value for money had a mean score of 1.74; climate a mean of 1.76 and safety a mean of 1.77. These three most important attributes were remarkably close in mean scores, and illustrate the importance of safety as a factor in choosing a holiday destination. From the findings there evolved a clear picture of the varying importance of the ten attributes respondents were asked to rate. There could be seen four distinct groups that had similar mean scores. The first group consisted of price, climate and safety. The second group of holiday factors consisted of scenery (1.93) and relaxation (1.95). The third group of factors with similar mean scores was, hospitality (2.12) and attractions to visit (2.18). Finally, the fourth group of factors, which showed lower levels of
importance, were entertainment (2.70), shopping facilities (3.17) and sports activities (3.54).

From these results it is clear why so many people will cancel or change their plans in response to terrorist, political stability or crime. As Buckley and Klemm (1993) state, tourists can be dissuaded as a result of the fear and insecurity they may feel. Safety is an inhibitor and can be a major barrier to travel. The following paragraphs will now discuss the findings that related personal characteristics, general safety awareness levels and holiday behaviour patterns to the importance of safety in holiday decision making, to ascertain whether safety as an inhibitor is significantly different between these groups.

Out of the eight personal characteristics tested, five were found to show significant differences in the importance placed on the factor of safety in deciding on a holiday destination. Those characteristics were gender, children living at home, age of children living at home, marital status and education. These personal characteristics will now be discussed.

There were significant differences between males and females in the importance of safety in holiday decision-making (p ≤0.05), with males placing less importance on the aspect of safety than females. This result had been expected, due to the cultural role that females hold within society. It is unclear to what extent gender differences are innate or culturally shaped, but they are certainly evident in many consumer decisions. In many societies, males are controlled by agenic goals, which stress self-assertion and mastery. Females on the other hand, are taught to value communal goals, such as affiliation, care for others and the fostering of harmonious relations (Solomon, 2001). The aspect of care for others has been researched by Henderson and Allen (1991), who state that an ethic of care evolves as a difference between genders when women neglect their own leisure in order to provide for the needs - including physical, social and emotional needs - of children, spouses or friends.

Whether or not there were children in a household was also statistically significant (p ≤0.05). The presence of children led parents to place more importance on the factor of safety, compared to those individuals with no children. Again this had been
expected, as research in leisure behaviour has long recognised the influence of children on leisure and tourism decision-making (Witt and Goodale, 1981). It is wholly justifiable to assume that parents are influenced uppermost by their children's welfare, especially when it comes to the safety of their children on holiday. The age of those children in the household was also found to be statistically significant ($p \leq 0.05$). Safety was most important to those parents whose children were aged under 6, which corresponds to the research carried out by Witt and Goodale (1981), who state that leisure barrier scores peaked for parents when children around the age of six were present in the household, implying that the younger the children, the greater priority their needs are given by parents.

An individual’s marital status also showed statistical differences at the $p \leq 0.05$ level. The mean scores of those who were single, married/ with partner, widowed, divorced/ separated showed that those individuals who were single placed least emphasis on the importance of safety. It is not unreasonable to assume that those married, widowed, divorced or separated are more likely to have children or dependents than those who are single, and thus there seems to be a general agreement over the importance of safety between the marital status variable and whether an individual has children or dependents.

The final personal characteristic to be found statistically significant was the educational attainment of respondents, which was highly significant at the $p \leq 0.01$ level. As educational attainment increased from basic compulsory education to university post-graduation, the level of importance placed on safety diminished. This seems to suggest that those who have a wider education tend to feel more secure and confident when on vacation, which is may be due to increased travel because of higher income and greater travel experience.

Those personal characteristics found insignificant included age, occupation and family-life cycle. The most surprising result here was that there were no significant differences between an individuals' age and the importance they placed on safety in holiday decision-making. It had been expected that as an individual aged they would place more emphasis on safety. As one of the key variables of the family-life cycle is
age, it was not so surprising that the variable of family life cycle also showed no significant differences between the various stages.

Other independent variables tested for differences against the dependent variable of safety importance in holiday decision-making included general safety awareness levels and holiday behaviour patterns. The first independent variable of general safety awareness showed highly statistically significant differences ($p \leq 0.01$) between those respondents with different levels of general safety awareness. As one would expect, those respondents who scored highest on being most safety aware in everyday life, also placed the greatest importance on the factor of safety when deciding on a holiday destination.

Of the holiday behaviour patterns examined, the only one found to be statistically significant was the type of holiday most commonly undertaken, which showed highly statistical differences at the $p \leq 0.01$ level. There was a clear trend that the importance of safety in holiday decision-making decreased as respondents moved from full-package to totally independent tours as their most common choice of holiday type. This is in line with Plog (1974) and his links between personality traits and tourist behaviour. According to Plog, travellers can be classified along two dimensions: allocentrism and psychocentrism. Tourists who are ‘Psychocentric’ tend to be conservative, less adventurous and more safety conscious, with a preference for more familiar package resorts. Allocentrics, on the other hand, are less safety conscious, adventurous and motivated to travel/discover new destinations preferring independent holidays with greater involvement in local cultures.
9.5 SUMMARY

Within this chapter, the findings that are related to the issue of safety have been analysed in order to understand more fully the role and importance of safety as a factor in the tourists' decision-making process. The chapter consisted of two main elements. Firstly the level of importance individuals place on certain holiday factors was analysed, examining the comparative importance of safety. Secondly, the personal characteristics, general safety awareness levels and holiday behaviour patterns of respondents were examined in relation to the importance they place on the factor of safety. The main statistical tests used to illustrate the differences between the independent and dependent variables were bivariate e.g., ANOVA, Kruskal Wallis, t-test and Mann-Whitney U test.

The next chapter will now examine the next six objectives of the research relating to the willingness of respondents to visit destinations that had been affected by terrorism.
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9.6 REFERENCES


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FINDINGS RELATED TO RESPONDENTS’ WILLINGNESS TO VISIT DESTINATIONS AFFECTED BY TERRORIST ACTIVITY

10.1 INTRODUCTION

As discussed in Chapter Three of the literature review, choice sets are an important and integral part of the tourism decision-making process. The process of narrowing down product choices to an acceptable number by placing alternatives into various sets is termed the ‘evaluation of alternatives’. As this research is concerned with how terrorism affects tourist decision-making, it is now necessary to understand how terrorism affects tourists’ evaluation of the possible alternatives available. Therefore a selection of questions were put forward to the respondents in the questionnaire to ascertain their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity. The questions used were:

Have you visited a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?

This question was asked in order to ascertain the percentage of respondents who have actually visited a destination that has been affected by terrorist activity. In total 26.4% of respondents sampled had been to an affected destination in the past 10 years. From those respondents, only those who indicated that they had visited for holiday/leisure reasons (61.2%) were permitted for the tests. This is due to the fact that those visiting for business reasons (20%) or to visit family or friends (18.8%), in normal
Chapter Ten Findings

circumstances may not have chosen to visit a destination that had been subject to terrorism.

Would you consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?

Those respondents who had not visited a destination affected by terrorism were then asked if they would or would not consider visiting such destinations by placing them in their ‘evoked’ or ‘inept’ set of possible destinations. The evoked set consists of the alternatives actively considered during a consumer’s choice process (Sheth, 1974). The ‘inept set’ or reject set of brands are those alternatives that the consumer has rejected from his or her purchase consideration, either because they have had unpleasant experiences or because they have received negative comments from information sources (Narayana and Markin, 1975). The descriptive findings showed (see Chapter 8) that 58% of respondents sampled would actively consider visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity.

How long following a terrorist incident would you wait before considering visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?

The final aspect examined in order to gauge the effects of terrorism on holiday decision-making was to ascertain how long respondents would wait before considering visiting a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity in the past ten years. Out of the total sample, the 58% of respondents who stated that they would consider visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity were then asked how long they would wait before actively considering such destinations in their ‘evoked’ sets.

These questions enabled the author to gauge the extent to which terrorism has had an impact on the evaluation of the possible alternative destinations available to respondents. Section 8.6 of Chapter 8 details the descriptive findings of the three questions. The next five sections of this chapter will now endeavour to highlight whether there are significant differences between five categories of independent
variables and willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorism, based on the three questions above. Those independent variables are personal characteristics, general safety awareness levels, holiday behaviour patterns, importance of terrorism risk and terrorism awareness levels, which are analysed individually in the following sections. The final section will discuss the findings in detail.

As in the previous chapter, in general, only those findings to be found statistically significant are discussed. The level of significance when analysing the differences between groups and means is 0.05, those results that fall below that level will be considered non-significant and will only be discussed in detail if they are perceived to be of importance in addressing the objectives.

Again, both parametric and non-parametric tests were utilized to maximize the robustness of the results. When reporting the findings generally only the parametric results are discussed, unless there are differences between the parametric and non-parametric tests that have implications for the results. Most of the tests used were to ascertain the differences in a group (ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis tests); t-tests and Mann-Whitney U Tests were occasionally used when the independent variable had only two groups (e.g., gender).

10.2 PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS AND THEIR WILLINGNESS TO VISIT DESTINATIONS AFFECTED BY TERRORIST ACTIVITY

This section examines the personal characteristics of the respondents in relation to their willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorism. The personal characteristics used as independent variables are gender, age, marital status, children in household, ages of children in household, occupational status, level of formal education and family life cycle. To analyse the first independent variables of personal characteristics, the following objective has been formulated.

Objective 3. Are there differences between tourists' personal characteristics and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?
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To answer this objective, this section of the chapter will include three sub-sections, which will include a variety of research questions regarding Objective 3.

10.2.1 Personal characteristics of respondents and whether they have visited a destination that has been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question was formulated.

*Are there differences between tourists’ personal characteristics and whether they have visited a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past 10 years?*

In order to answer the above research question chi-square tests were carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 10.1, with those variables found statistically relevant in bold.

**Table 10.1 Chi - Square tests of personal characteristics and whether they have visited a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>7.505</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>1.313</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>.419</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children in Household</td>
<td>2.089</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of Children</td>
<td>.155</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.926</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>39.768</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Education</td>
<td>17.363</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLC</td>
<td>4.605</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.799</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is evident from Table 10.1 that the personal characteristics of age, marital status, children in household, age of children in household and family life cycle were not found to be statistically relevant. The remaining three characteristics (gender, occupation, and level of formal education) were statistically relevant and therefore will now be discussed in more detail.

- Occupation

The variable of occupation was found to be highly statistically relevant ($X^2 = 39.768$, d.f. = 8; $p = .000$). Figure 10.1 highlights the differences between the different occupations and whether they had visited in the last ten years a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity. The figure clearly illustrates that those respondents in more senior positions have been more likely to visit those affected destinations. For instance the majority of those people who are in professional occupations (62.5%) have visited a destination that has recently been subject to terrorist activity compared to just 9.1% for those in unskilled occupations. Those who are in the Armed Forces are most likely (83.3%) to have visited, which could be expected due to their nature of their jobs.

Figure 10.1 Occupation and visitation
• **Level of formal education**

The chi-square tests in Table 10.1 showed that the independent variable of formal education was also found to be highly statistically relevant ($X^2 = 17.363$, d.f. = 3; $p = .001$). Figure 10.2 highlights the differences between the respondents’ level of formal education and whether they had visited in the last ten years a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity. The figure demonstrates clearly that those respondents with higher levels of formal education have been more likely to visit those effected destinations. For instance, 48% of those people who have been educated to post graduate level have visited a destination that has recently been subject to terrorist activity, compared to 17.6% for those who were educated to age 16 or less.

**Figure 10.2 Level of formal education and visitation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Formal Education</th>
<th>Have Not Visited</th>
<th>Have Visited</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16 and under</td>
<td>82.4%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-18 yrs</td>
<td>76.9%</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>68.9%</td>
<td>31.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post</td>
<td>52.0%</td>
<td>48.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• **Gender**

The final characteristic to be found statistically relevant was gender ($X^2 = 7.505$, d.f. = 1; $p = .006$). Figure 10.3 highlights the differences between the respondents’ gender and whether they had visited in the last ten years a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity. The figure shows that 33.8% of males have visited compared to 20.1% of females.
Figure 10.3 Gender and visitation

10.2.2 Personal characteristics of respondents and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.

*Are there differences between tourists’ personal characteristics and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?*

In order to answer the above research question chi-square tests were carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 10.2, with those variables found statistically relevant in bold.
Table 10.2 Chi - Square tests of personal characteristics and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>1.113</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>13.741</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>2.853</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children in Household</td>
<td>1.150</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of Children</td>
<td>.218</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>26.847</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Education</td>
<td>33.229</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLC</td>
<td>15.407</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.052</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident from Table 10.2, that the personal characteristics of gender, marital status, children in household, age of children in household and family life cycle were not found to be statistically relevant, whereas the remaining three characteristics of age, occupation and level of formal education were statistically relevant and will now be discussed in more detail.
- **Level of formal education**

The chi-square tests in Table 10.2 showed that the level of formal education variable was found to be the most highly statistically relevant ($X^2 = 33.229$, d.f. = 3; $p = .000$). Figure 10.4 highlights the differences between the respondents’ level of formal education and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years. The figure clearly illustrates that those respondents with higher levels of formal education are far more likely to consider visiting those affected destinations. For instance, 83.6% and 76.9% of those respondents educated to degree and post graduate respectively would consider visiting a destination that has recently been subject to terrorist activity, compared to just over 40% for those respondents educated to the age of 16 and under.

**Figure 10.4 Level of formal education and consideration to visit a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity**
• Occupational Status

The variable of occupation was also found to be highly statistically relevant ($X^2 = 26.768$, d.f. = 8; $p = .001$). Figure 10.5 highlights the differences between the respondents’ occupation and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years. The figure clearly illustrates that those respondents’ in more senior positions are far more likely to consider visiting those affected destinations. For instance all those people who are in professional occupations (100%) would consider visiting a destination that has been effected by terrorist activity compared to just 27.3% for those in unskilled occupations.

Figure 10.5 Occupation and consideration to visit a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity
• Age

The final characteristic to be found statistically relevant was the age of the respondents ($X^2 = 13.741$, d.f. = 5; $p = .017$). Figure 10.6 highlights the differences between the respondents’ age and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the last ten years. The figure shows that apart from the youngest (those under 24 years) there is a clear trend that as age increases then there is less likelihood to consider those destinations affected by terrorism.

Figure 10.6 Age of respondents and consideration to visit a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Would Never Consider</th>
<th>Would Consider</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24 &lt;</td>
<td>53.3%</td>
<td>46.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>27.1%</td>
<td>72.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>35.9%</td>
<td>64.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>37.0%</td>
<td>63.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>51.1%</td>
<td>48.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 &gt;</td>
<td>59.1%</td>
<td>40.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10.2.3 Personal characteristics of respondents and how long they would wait before considering visiting a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity in the past ten years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.

*Are there differences between tourists' personal characteristics and how long they would wait before considering visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?*

In order to answer the above research question Mann-Whitney U tests and t-tests were used to analyse the ‘gender’ and ‘children in household’ variables with the remaining characteristics using ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis Tests. The results of the initial two variables will now be illustrated.

- Gender

Examinations were made to ascertain whether men and women show different levels in how long they would wait before considering visiting a destination that had been effected by terrorist activity. The variable of gender was found to be highly statistically significant (p = 0.01). Table 10.3 highlights the statistical significant differences in means between genders, with females overall waiting longer than males before considering those destinations affected by terrorist activity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3.0526</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3.7955</td>
<td>-3.227</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>3.014</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*1 = Straight Away; 2 = Less than a year; 3 = 1 to 2 years; 4 = 2 to 3 years; 5 = 3 to 4 years; 6 = Over 5 years.*
• Children Living at Home

The variable of having children living at home was also found to be statistically significant \((p = 0.01)\). As Table 10.4 illustrates the means are statistically different between those respondents who have children living with them and those who do not. As would be expected, when there are children living at home there is a longer time span before consideration is given to visiting a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity.

Table 10.4 Children and the length of time before visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>With Children</td>
<td>Without Children</td>
<td>3.8986</td>
<td>3.1263</td>
<td>-3.401</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>3.536</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Straight Away; 2 = Less than a year; 3 = 1 to 2 years; 4 = 2 to 3 years; 5 = 3 to 4 years; 6 = Over 5 years.
The remaining variables were analysed using the ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis tests. The results are shown in Table 10.5 below.

**Table 10.5 Personal characteristics and the length of time before considering visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.725</td>
<td>.606</td>
<td>3.523</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>1.834</td>
<td>.125</td>
<td>7.115</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of Children</td>
<td>1.905</td>
<td>.157</td>
<td>3.072</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>1.744</td>
<td>.092</td>
<td>12.693</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Education</td>
<td>1.801</td>
<td>.149</td>
<td>5.681</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLC</td>
<td>1.146</td>
<td>.336</td>
<td>7.829</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.450</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident from Table 10.5 that the remaining six personal characteristic variables were not found to be statistically significant and hence will not be discussed in any more detail.
10.3 GENERAL SAFETY AWARENESS LEVELS OF RESPONDENTS AND THEIR WILLINGNESS TO VISIT DESTINATIONS AFFECTED BY TERRORIST ACTIVITY

This section examines the general safety awareness levels of respondents and their willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity. To see how respondents were grouped into three safety awareness categories see Section 7.7 of the methodology. The section aims to ascertain whether the willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity differs between respondents due to their levels of general safety awareness. The same three questions used in the previous section are utilised again to gauge the extent to which terrorism has had on the evaluation of the possible alternative destinations available to respondents. The following objective has been formulated to examine the above issues.

Objective 4. Are there differences between tourists' safety awareness levels and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?

To answer this objective, this section of the chapter will include three sub-sections, which will include research questions regarding the above objective.

10.3.1 General safety awareness levels of respondents and whether they have visited a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years

Unlike the personal characteristics (gender, occupation, education), the independent variable of general safety awareness levels was not found to be statistically significant. A chi - Square test of the general safety awareness levels of respondents and whether they have visited a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity found no significance ($X^2 = 3.452$, d.f. = 2; $p = .178$).
10.3.2 Safety awareness levels of respondents and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years.

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question was formulated.

*Are there differences between tourists’ general safety awareness levels and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?*

In order to answer the research question a chi-square test was carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 10.6 below.

| Table 10.6 Safety awareness levels and consideration to visit a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity |
|---|---|---|
| Chi-square | DF | Sig. |
| 19.589 | 2 | .000 |

The chi-square test in Table 10.6 shows that general safety awareness levels of respondents were found to be highly statistically relevant ($X^2 = 19.589, \text{d.f.} = 2; p = .000$). Figure 10.7 highlights the differences between the respondents’ level of general safety awareness and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been effected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years. The figure clearly illustrates that those respondents with lower general levels of safety awareness are far more likely to consider visiting those effected destinations. For instance 80.6% of those respondents considered to be least concerned with the issue of safety in everyday life would consider visiting a destination that has recently been subject to terrorist activity compared to just 36.2% for those respondents who are more safety concerned.
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Figure 10.7 General safety awareness levels of respondents and consideration to visit a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Safety Awareness Levels</th>
<th>Would Never Consider</th>
<th>Would Consider</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High Safety Awareness</td>
<td>63.8%</td>
<td>36.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate Safety Awareness</td>
<td>38.9%</td>
<td>61.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Safety Awareness</td>
<td>19.4%</td>
<td>80.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.3.3 Safety awareness levels of respondents and how long they would wait before visiting a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity in the past ten years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question was formulated.

Are there differences between tourists' safety awareness levels and whether they would ever consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?

In order to ascertain the level of significance between the two variables both ANOVA and Kruskal tests were carried out in Table 10.7.
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Table 10.7 Safety awareness levels and the length of time before visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>F.</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.275</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>5.390</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.068</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ANOVA test (see Table 10.7) shows a statistically significant relationship \((f = 3.275; \text{d.f.} = 2; p = .040)\) between the general safety awareness levels of respondents and how long they would wait before considering visiting a destination that had been effected by terrorist activity. The Kruskal Wallis test however views the relationship as insignificant \((\text{Chi-square} = 5.390; \text{d.f} = 2; p = .068)\). As the variances of the groups are unequal in the population, the non-parametric test should be used instead of the parametric F test (Bryman and Cramer, 1999). Therefore this relationship will not be accepted but due to the circumstances the means have been highlighted in Table 10.8 below. It is apparent by examining the means that those who are more safety aware in everyday life would tend to wait longer before considering visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity.

Table 10.8 Means of safety awareness levels and the length of time before visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High Safety Awareness</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>1.51658</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate Safety Awareness</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>3.4696</td>
<td>1.40377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Safety Awareness</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>2.9643</td>
<td>1.34666</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>3.4512</td>
<td>1.42848</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Very Important  2 = Important  3 = Neither Important or Unimportant  4 = Not Important  5 = Not at all important
10.4 THE HOLIDAY BEHAVIOURAL PATTERNS OF RESPONDENTS AND THEIR WILLINGNESS TO VISIT DESTINATIONS AFFECTED BY TERRORIST ACTIVITY

This section examines the holiday behavioural patterns of respondents and their willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity. Respondents were asked questions regarding which type of holiday they preferred, who they normally went on holiday with and who made the decision on which destination to visit in an attempt to understand their holiday behaviour patterns. To address the above issues, the following objective has been formulated.

Objective 5. Are there differences between tourists’ holiday behaviour patterns and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?

To test for any possible differences, the independent variables were again tabulated against respondents’ willingness to consider visiting destinations affected by terrorism. As in previous sections in order to gauge this willingness, respondents were asked three questions; have you ever visited a destination that has been subject to terrorism in the past 10 years, if not, would you consider visiting a destination affected by terrorism, and if so, how long would you wait before you would consider. These tabulations are now discussed below.

10.4.1 Holiday behaviour of respondents and whether they have visited a destination that has been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years

The three chi-square tests of holiday behaviour were found to be statistically not significant (type of holiday preferred, $X^2 = 2.840$, d.f. = 2; $p = .242$); who you go on holiday with, $(X^2 = .835$, d.f. = 2; $p = .659$); and who decides where to visit, $(X^2 = 1.673$, d.f. = 1; $p = .196$).
10.4.2 Holiday behaviour patterns of respondents and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question was formulated.

Are there differences between tourists' holiday behaviour and whether they would ever consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?

In order to answer the research question chi-square tests were carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 10.9 below. Those variables in bold are those found to be statistically relevant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Holiday Behaviour</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type Of Holiday most Preferred</td>
<td>21.215</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holiday Companions</td>
<td>1.351</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who Decides on Holiday Destination</td>
<td>.757</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.384</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident from Table 10.9 that who the respondents went on holiday with (holiday companions) and who decided on the holiday destination were not found to be statistically relevant. The remaining variable, the type of holiday most preferred by respondents was found statistically relevant and hence will now be discussed in more detail.
• **Type Of Holiday most Preferred**

The chi-square tests in Table 10.9 show that the ‘type of holiday most preferred’ by the respondents showed a highly statistically significant relationship ($X^2 = 21.215$, d.f. = 2; $p = .000$). Figure 10.8 illustrates that those respondents who prefer semi-package or totally independent tours are far more likely to consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity with 74.3% and 65% respectively agreeing with the statement, compared to just 42.9% for those respondents who prefer to take fully-package tours.

**Figure 10.8 Holiday preference of respondents and consideration to visit a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity**

![Bar chart showing holiday preference and consideration](chart.png)
10.4.3 Holiday behaviour of respondents and how long they would wait before visiting a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity in the past ten years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question was formulated.

_Are there difference between tourists’ holiday behaviour and how long they would wait before visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?_

Holiday behavioural patterns were not found to be statistically significant. An ANOVA test of the type of holiday most preferred by respondents was found not to be statistically significant (f = 2.555, d.f. = 2, p = .081) nor was the ANOVA test that examined who respondents went on holiday with (f = 2.084, d.f. = 2, p = .128). Finally, a t-test of the Mean Differences between who makes the holiday destination decision and how long they would wait before considering visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity also found no statistical significance (t = -1.646, d.f. = 154, p = .102).
10.5 THE IMPORTANCE TOURISTS ATTACH TO THE RISK OF TERRORISM AND THEIR WILLINGNESS TO VISIT DESTINATIONS AFFECTED BY TERRORIST ACTIVITY

The tourist decision-making models discussed in the literature review showed that external variables have a considerable influence on the decision-making processes of tourists. One of the external variables most frequently mentioned was that of 'risk' (Schmoll, 1977; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Moutinho, 1987). In Section 8.5 of Chapter Eight, the descriptive findings illustrated the various risks that are considered when deciding on a potential holiday destination. From the list of seven risks, terrorism was perceived to be the most important. Within this section, the risk of terrorism and its effects on destination decision-making are analysed further in an attempt to identify and understand possible relationships. As in the previous section the findings will be discussed in relation to the dependent variables of whether respondents have visited a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years, whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years and how long following a terrorist incident would respondents consider visiting a destination. As a result, the following objective regarding the importance tourists' attach to the risk of terrorism and its' impacts on holiday decision-making will be dealt with within this section of the chapter.

Objective 6. Are there differences between the importance tourists attach to the risk of terrorism and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?

To answer this objective, this section of the chapter will include three sub-sections that will include research questions regarding the above objective.
10.5.1 Importance tourists attach to the risk of terrorism and whether they have visited a destination that has been affected by terrorist activity in the past ten years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.

*Are there differences between the importance tourists attach to the risk of terrorism when considering a holiday destination and whether they have visited a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?*

In order to answer the above research question a Mann-Whitney U test and a t-test were carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 10.10 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have Visited 1.9518</td>
<td>Have not Visited 1.4545</td>
<td>-4.744</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.515</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Mann-Whitney U test and t-test show that the level of importance respondents give to the risk of terrorism in their destination selection process is highly statistically significant when related to whether the respondent has visited a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity (p=0.00). Table 10.10 details the difference in the means. It can be seen that those who have visited affected destinations are less concerned by the risk of terrorism compared to those who have not visited. This is not surprising, as one would expect those who are less risk conscious about terrorist activity to be more likely to have visited an affected destination, and having visited a destination and survived, to be less concerned about the possible risks.
10.5.2 Importance tourists attach to the risk of terrorism and whether they would ever consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.

*Are there differences between the importance tourists attach to the risk of terrorism when considering a holiday destination and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?*

In order to answer the above research question a Mann-Whitney U test and t-test were carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 10.11 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Would Visit</td>
<td>1.7590</td>
<td>Would Never Visit</td>
<td>1.2797</td>
<td>-4.637</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>5.046</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Very Important  2 = Important  3 = Neither Important or Unimportant  4 = Not Important  5 = Not at all important
Again, the Mann-Whitney U tests and t-tests show that the level of importance respondents give to the risk of terrorism in their destination selection process is highly statistically significant when related to the aspect of whether the respondent would consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity (p=0.00). Table 10.11 detailed the difference in the means and it can be seen that those who would consider visiting an effected destination are less concerned by the risk of terrorism compared to those who not consider visiting such destinations.

10.5.3 Importance tourists attach to the risk of terrorism and how long they would wait before visiting a destination that had been effected by terrorist activity in the past ten years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.

Are there differences between the importance tourists attach to the risk of terrorism when considering a holiday destination and how long they would wait before visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?

In order to answer the above research question ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis Tests were carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 10.12 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.897</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>21.399</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis tests (see Table 10.12) show that the level of importance respondents give to the risk of terrorism in their destination selection process is statistically significant when related to how long they would wait before visiting a destination that had been effected by terrorist activity (p=0.02). Table 10.13
details the difference in the means. It can be seen that there is a distinct trend that the less time a respondent would wait before considering visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity, the less importance they attach to the aspect of the risk of terrorism in their decision-making process.

Table 10.13 Means of the importance tourists attach to the risk of terrorism and the length of time before visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean *</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Straight Away</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.5385</td>
<td>1.05003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than a Year</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2.0323</td>
<td>.98265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 2 Years</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>1.6809</td>
<td>.93498</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 to 3 Years</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>1.6364</td>
<td>.96236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 to 4 Years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1.6818</td>
<td>1.12911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 5 Years</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1.1667</td>
<td>.38348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>1.7500</td>
<td>.98688</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*1 = Very Important  2 = Important  3 = Neither Important or Unimportant  4 = Not Important  5 = Not at all important
10.6 TERRORISM AWARENESS OF RESPONDENTS AND THEIR WILLINGNESS TO VISIT DESTINATIONS AFFECTED BY TERRORIST ACTIVITY.

Within this section the terrorism awareness levels of the respondents are examined in relation to the effect these have on holiday decision-making. In order to ascertain respondents’ level of terrorism awareness, ten destinations were listed in the questionnaire and respondents were requested to put a cross next to any destination that they perceived had been subject to terrorist activity over the last 10 years. Respondents were asked to indicate those destinations that had experienced general terrorism and also terrorism where the acts have been against tourists or the tourism industry. To best describe this process, Figure 10.9 below is a copy of the research instrument used to gauge the various levels.

Figure 10.9 The research question that asked respondents to place a cross next to any of the listed destinations that in their opinion had experienced terrorist activity in the last 10 years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination</th>
<th>General Terrorism</th>
<th>Terrorism against tourism</th>
<th>Destination</th>
<th>General Terrorism</th>
<th>Terrorism against tourism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>Northern Ireland</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>Finland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were given a score out of ten, depending on the number of destinations they correctly identified as having experienced terrorism in the last ten years. The correct results according to the index of dangerous places taken from ‘Tourism and the Media’ (Nielson, 2001, p.164) are those marked with a cross in Figure 10.9. Respondents were then divided into three groups: low terrorism awareness, (those who scored between 1 and 5); moderate terrorism awareness (those who scored between 6 and 8) and high terrorism awareness (those who scored 9 and 10).
The following objectives that are related to the aspect of terrorism awareness and its' impacts on holiday decision-making will be dealt with within this section of the chapter.

**Objective 7.** Are there differences between respondents’ terrorism awareness levels and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?

**Objective 8.** Are there differences between respondents’ level of terrorism awareness of destinations where tourists have been targeted and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?

To answer the above objectives, this section of the chapter includes six sub-sections, dealing with the research questions regarding the above objectives. The first three sub-sections will examine respondents’ terrorism awareness, with the final sub-sections focusing specifically upon terrorism awareness of destinations where tourists or the tourism product have been targeted.

**10.6.1 Terrorism awareness of respondents and whether they have visited a destination affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years**

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following *research question* has been formulated.

*Are there differences between a tourist’s level of terrorism awareness and whether they have visited a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity?*

In order to answer the above research question a chi-square test was carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 10.14.
Table 10.14 Level of terrorism awareness and visitation to destinations affected by terrorist activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14.784</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The chi-square test in Table 10.14 shows that the level of terrorism awareness was found to be statistically relevant ($\chi^2 = 14.784$, d.f. = 2; p = .001). Figure 10.10 highlights the differences between the respondents' level of terrorism awareness and whether they had visited a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years. The figure clearly illustrates that those respondents with higher levels of terrorism awareness are far more likely to have visited those affected destinations. For instance, 38.7% of those respondents considered to be most aware of destinations that had experienced terrorism had visited a destination that had recently been subject to terrorist activity, compared to just 18.5% and 20.5% for those respondents who were moderately and least aware of destinations that have/had experienced terrorism respectively. It seems justified, therefore, to state that as personal knowledge of terrorism increases, respondents tend to make more positive decisions about visiting these locations.

Figure 10.10 Level of terrorism awareness and visitation to destinations affected by terrorist activity
10.6.2 Terrorism awareness of respondents and whether they would consider visiting a destination affected by terrorist activity in the last 10 years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.

*Are there differences between a tourist’s level of terrorism awareness and whether they would consider visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity in the past 10 years?*

To answer the research question a chi-square test was carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 10.15 below.

| Table 10.15 Level of terrorism awareness and consideration to visit a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity |
|---|---|---|
| Chi-square | Df | Sig. |
| 6.092 | 2 | .048 |

According to the results, the level of terrorism awareness was found to be statistically relevant ($\chi^2 = 6.092$, d.f. = 2; $p = .048$). The differences between the respondents’ level of terrorism awareness and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years are displayed in Figure 10.11. The figure clearly illustrates that those respondents with higher levels of terrorism awareness are definitely more likely to consider visiting those affected destinations. From the sample, 66% of those respondents considered to be most aware of destinations that experience terrorism would consider visiting a destination that has recently been subject to terrorist activity, compared to just 43.6% for those respondents who are least aware of destinations that had experienced terrorism. As a result of these findings it seems justified to state that as knowledge of terrorism increases, respondents are more likely to place destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity into their ‘evoked sets’ for serious consideration.
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Figure 10.11  Level of terrorism awareness and consideration to visit a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity

10.6.3 Terrorism awareness of respondents and how long they would wait before visiting a destination affected by terrorist activity in the last 10 years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.

*Are there differences between a tourist's level of terrorism awareness and how long they would wait before visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity in the past 10 years?*

ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis test were carried out between the independent and dependent variables to answer the above research question. The results are displayed in Table 10.16 below.

**Table 10.16 Level of terrorism awareness and the length of time before visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.440</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>4.576</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.101</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Although there was some indication that the length of time taken to consider destinations that had been subject to terrorist activity was relative to levels of awareness of terrorism and where it occurred, the relationship was found to be insignificant (p = .090) and therefore will not be discussed in any more detail.

10.6.4 Respondents' terrorism awareness of destinations where tourists have been targeted by terrorists and whether they have visited a destination affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.

*Are there differences between a tourist's level of terrorism awareness of destinations where tourists have been targeted and whether they have visited a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?*

In order to answer the above research question a chi-square test was carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 10.17 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 10.17 Level of terrorism awareness where tourists have been targeted and visitation to destinations affected by terrorist activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.977</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The chi-square test in Table 10.17 shows that the level of terrorism awareness of destinations where tourists specifically have been targeted was found to be highly statistically relevant ($X^2 = 15.977$, d.f. = 2; p = .000). Figure 10.17 highlights the differences between the respondents' level of terrorism awareness of destinations where tourists have been targeted and whether they have visited a destination that has been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years. The figure clearly illustrates that those respondents with higher levels of terrorism awareness of destinations where
tourists had been targeted are far more likely to have visited those affected destinations. For instance, 46.6% of those respondents considered to be most aware of destinations that experience terrorism where tourists have been targeted, had visited a destination that recently had been subject to terrorist activity, compared to just 17.6% of those respondents who were least aware of destinations that had experienced terrorism. This would seem to suggest that as awareness of tourist destinations where terrorism has occurred increases, consumers seem more likely to make positive decisions about visiting these locations.

Figure 10.12 Level of terrorism awareness where tourists have been targeted and visitation to destinations affected by terrorist activity

![Bar chart showing tourism awareness and visitation](attachment:chart.png)

10.6.5 Respondents’ terrorism awareness of destinations that had been targeted by terrorists and whether they would ever consider visiting a destination affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.
Are there differences between a tourist’s level of terrorism awareness of destinations where tourists had been targeted and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past 10 years?

In order to answer the research question a chi-square test was carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 10.18 below.

Table 10.18 Level of terrorism awareness where tourists have been targeted and consideration to visit a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12.460</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the results, the level of awareness was found to be statistically relevant ($\chi^2 = 12.460$, d.f. = 2; p = .002). Figure 10.13 highlights the differences between the respondents’ level of awareness and whether they would consider visiting a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years. We can see from Figure 10.13 that those respondents with higher levels of awareness are far more likely to consider visiting those affected destinations. For instance, 81.3% of those respondents considered to be most aware of destinations that have experienced terrorism where tourists had been targeted would consider visiting a destination that recently had been subject to terrorist activity, compared to just 55.3% of those respondents who were least aware. As a result of these findings it seems justified to state that as knowledge of destinations where tourism has been targeted increases, respondents are more likely to place destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity into their ‘evoked sets’ for serious consideration.
Figure 10.13 Level of terrorism awareness where tourists have been targeted and consideration to visit a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity

10.6.6 Respondents’ terrorism awareness of destinations that have been targeted by terrorists and how long they would wait before they would consider visiting a destination affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.

*Are there differences between a tourist’s level of terrorism awareness where tourists have been targeted and how long they would wait before visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?*

ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis tests were carried out between the independent and dependent variables to answer the above research question. The results are displayed in Table 10.19 below.

Table 10.19 Level of terrorism awareness where tourists have been targeted and the length of time before visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>F.</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.148</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>6.832</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.033</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter Ten Findings

The ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis tests (see Table 10.19) show the level of terrorism awareness of destinations where tourists or the tourism industry have been targeted is statistically related to how long they would wait before visiting a destination that had been effected by terrorist activity ($p = .018$). Table 10.20 details the difference in the means and it can be seen that there is a distinct trend that a respondent would wait less time before considering visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity the higher the level of their own awareness. This is in contrast to the results found when examining general terrorism awareness of respondents, which was found to be statistically insignificant.

Table 10.20 The Means of the level of terrorism awareness where tourists have been targeted and the length of time before visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean *</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low Tourism Terrorism Awareness</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>3.9024</td>
<td>1.59381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium Tourism Terrorism Awareness</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>3.4405</td>
<td>1.43410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Tourism Terrorism Awareness</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>3.0000</td>
<td>1.07606</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>3.4512</td>
<td>1.42848</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*1 = Straight Away; 2 = Less than a year; 3 = 1 to 2 years; 4 = 2 to 3 years; 5 = 3 to 4 years; 6 = Over 5 years.
10.7 DISCUSSION OF THE MAIN FINDINGS.

This chapter will now discuss in detail the findings noted in the previous sections. For ease of understanding the findings are discussed in three parts, each part relating to the three questions used throughout this chapter to gauge the willingness of respondents to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity. Table 10.21 below shows all the differences tested between the dependent and independent variables, with those differences that are statistically significant in bold.

Table 10.21 Independent variables tested and areas of significance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDEPENDENT VARIABLE</th>
<th>Have visited a destination effected by terrorism</th>
<th>Would actively consider visiting a destination effected by terrorism</th>
<th>How long respondents would wait before actively considering a destination that has been effected by terrorism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.292</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.934</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.620</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status</td>
<td>.981</td>
<td>.583</td>
<td>.130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
<td>.148</td>
<td>.283</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of Children</td>
<td>.926</td>
<td>.897</td>
<td>.215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLC</td>
<td>.799</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SAFETY AWARENESS LEVELS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Holiday</td>
<td>.242</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holiday Companions</td>
<td>.659</td>
<td>.509</td>
<td>.128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who decides on Holiday destination</td>
<td>.196</td>
<td>.384</td>
<td>.102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>IMPORTANCE OF TERRORISM RISK</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GENERAL TERRORISM AWARENESS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.048</td>
<td>.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOURISM TERRORISM AWARENESS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10.7.1 Respondents who have visited a destination affected by terrorist activity

This was the first question asked to understand the influence of terrorism on destination section. In total, 26.4% of respondents sampled had visited a destination affected by terrorism. Tests were undertaken of those who had visited to ascertain whether there were any statistical differences between respondents based on certain independent variables. As can be seen in Table 10.21, out of the fifteen variables tested, six were found to be significant in relation to having visited a destination affected by terrorism in the past 10 years. Those variables were gender \((p = .006)\), occupation \((p = .000)\), education \((p = .001)\), importance of terrorism risk \((p = .000)\), general terrorism awareness \((p = .001)\) and tourism terrorism awareness \((p = .000)\). These differences will now be discussed.

The first significant difference found was between genders. The statistical test discovered females were far less likely to have actually visited a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity than men. In total, 33.8% of males compared to 20.1% of women had actually visited. This seems to support the findings from the last chapter, which showed that women place far more importance on safety in destination decision-making than men. It would seem logical that as women place more importance on safety, there would be statistically significant differences again when looking at visitation patterns to destinations affected by terrorism. Overall, this finding corresponds to the statement from Whyte and Shaw (1994), that research has constantly shown women to have higher levels of fear of violence, which has affected their participation in and enjoyment of leisure activities.

There were also highly statistical significant differences between a person's occupation and educational levels and whether they had visited an affected destination. The higher the social class standing of a respondent based on their occupation, the more likely they are to have visited an affected destination. Again those with higher educational attainment are more likely to have visited a destination that had been listed in the media as subject to terrorism in the last ten years. As Mathieson and Wall (1982) state 'education influences attitudes, perceptions and motivations, which can affect decisions'. This seems to be the case in this situation,
where educational attainment can be seen as a major influence on the attitude and perception of destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity.

There were no statistically significant differences between a respondent’s age and whether they had visited a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity. This was surprising as it had been expected that as a person aged they would be more likely to refrain from visiting destinations that could be perceived as unsafe. The level of difference was very low \((p = .934)\) between the categories of age, which corresponds to the low level of difference \((p = .849)\) when looking at the importance of safety as a factor in deciding on a holiday destination.

The presence of children also surprisingly did not make a significant difference. There were no statistically significant differences between those respondents with children and whether they had visited a destination affected by terrorism. There were also no major differences between those respondents who had visited affected destinations and the ages of children present within a household. This was in contrast to the influence of children in relation to the importance of safety when considering a tourism destination. These tests in the previous chapter had shown that the importance of safety was more important to those respondents who had children \((p = .046)\), and the ages of those children present in the household \((p = .039)\). Therefore the exact nature of the influence of children remains unclear, for while general safety is more important to those respondents who have children, there are no differences in respondents’ visitation patterns to destinations that have been recently subjected to terrorism.

The family life cycle stage of the individual was also surprisingly non-significant for those respondents at different stages in their life cycle. It had been expected that those at the bachelor or ‘honeymooner’ stage would be more likely to have visited destinations that have been affected by terrorist activity than those individuals who were at the full-nest, empty nest or solitary survivor stage. There were, however, no relationships uncovered. No statistical differences were found between individuals based on their marital status either.
The remaining independent variables consisted of general safety awareness levels, holiday behavioural patterns, the importance of terrorism risk and terrorism awareness, which were then tabulated against the dependent variable of whether respondents had visited a destination affected by terrorist activity.

Surprisingly, the differences in general safety awareness levels displayed by respondents were not statistically significant in relation to whether they had visited a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity. It would seem reasonable to expect if a person is generally more safety aware in their everyday lives, they would be more likely to refrain from visiting destinations that have been affected by terrorist activity. There was however no relationships found between these two variables. There were also no statistically significant differences found between respondents based on their holiday behaviour patterns. It had been expected that the type of holiday most preferred would have showed some statistical significant differences, with those enjoying more independent type holidays more likely to have visited destinations affected by terrorism than those who normally prefer package tours.

There were however highly statistical differences between the importance respondents place on terrorism risk when deciding to go on holiday and whether they have visited a destination affected by terrorist activity. As would be expected, those who placed less importance on terrorism were far more likely to have visited an affected destination, compared to those who view terrorism as an important consideration.

Finally, respondents’ general terrorism awareness of destinations and countries that had experienced terrorist activity also show highly statistical differences on whether they had visited destinations affected by terrorist activity. From the findings it is clear that those with a greater awareness of both destinations that had experienced terrorism in general and terrorism specifically against the tourism industry were far more likely to have visited such destinations. Reasons for this are not clear, but may include familiarity breading contempt and an assumption that lightening would not strike the same place twice.
10.7.2 Respondents who would/ would not consider visiting a destination affected by terrorist activity.

The next set of questions targeted those respondents who had not previously visited destinations that had been subject to terrorist activity in the past 10 years. In order to gauge their willingness to consider destinations affected by terrorism, they were asked a simple yes/no question to whether they would ever actively consider a destination affected by terrorism as a possible holiday destination. The descriptive findings showed (see Chapter 8) that 58% of respondents sampled would actively consider visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity. From those who had visited such areas, tests were undertaken to ascertain whether there were any statistical differences between them based on certain independent variables.

As can be seen in Table 10.21, out of the fifteen variables tested, eight were found to be significant in relation to whether respondents would ever consider visiting a destination affected by terrorism in the past 10 years. Those variables were age (p = .017), occupation (p = .001), education (p = .000), general safety awareness levels (p = .000), the type of holiday most often purchased (p = .000), importance of terrorism risk (p = .000), general terrorism awareness (p = .048) and tourism terrorism awareness (p = .002). These differences will now be discussed.

It was shown previously that the variables of occupation and education revealed major differences between respondents when ascertaining visitation to destinations affected by terrorist activity. When examining the major differences between respondents and whether they would ever consider visiting destinations affected by terrorist activity, the variables of occupation and education again showed the highest levels of differences of all the personal characteristics tested. Those respondents in higher social class groupings based on their occupation and those with higher educational levels were far more likely to actively consider visiting affected destinations than those in lower groupings. It seems justifiable therefore, to state that those in higher groupings based on social class and educational attainment show a much more positive attitude in their perceptions of destinations affected by terrorism activity. Indeed, out of all of the personal characteristics tested, these two variables demonstrate the strongest relationships.
Although there were no statistical differences between age and visitation, there were statistically significant differences between an individuals’ age and whether they would actively consider a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity. As expected the results showed that generally as a person gets older, the less likely they are to place a destination into their evoked set of possible destinations. For instance, 72.9% of those aged between 25 and 34 would consider visiting an affected destination, compared to only 40.9% of those aged 65 and over. This seems to uphold the commonly held belief that as individuals become older they generally become more wary of issues relating to their safety.

The role of gender showed no statistical difference between respondents and whether they would ever consider visiting destinations affected by terrorist activity. This was surprising due to the gender differences in the importance placed on safety and visitation to destinations affected by terrorism. It had been expected that those who had not visited affected destinations would have shown the same differences found previously, namely that men are more likely to be more positive in their evaluations of those destinations in question than women. This however, was not found to be the case.

The biggest surprise, however, was that the influence of children was again insignificant. There were no statistically significant differences between those respondents with children and whether they would ever consider visiting a destination affected by terrorism. There were also no major differences between those respondents who would/ would not consider visiting destinations affected by terrorism based on the ages of children present within a household. The variables of family lifecycle and marital status also showed no statistical differences.

The remaining independent variables consisted of general safety awareness levels, holiday behavioural patterns, the importance of terrorism risk and terrorism awareness, which were then tabulated against the dependent variable of whether respondents had visited a destination affected by terrorist activity.
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As expected, statistical differences were found between the various general safety awareness levels \( (p = .000) \). Although there were no major differences in previous visitation, which was surprising, there were differences in whether they would consider visiting an affected destination. Those respondents who are generally more safety aware in every day life are less likely to consider visiting destinations affected by terrorist activity, which seems consistent.

Of the holiday behaviour patterns examined, the only one to be found statistically significant was the type of holiday most commonly undertaken, which showed highly statistical differences \( (p = .000) \). There was a clear trend that willingness to consider destinations affected by terrorist activity increased as respondents moved from full-package to totally independent tours as their most common choice of holiday type. This corresponds to the findings in the previous chapter that showed differences in the importance of safety when related to the type of holiday most commonly taken. This finding would seem to justify further the research carried out by Plog (1974) and his links between personality traits and tourist behaviour. Plog (1974) stated that those tourists who most often prefer familiar package resorts tend to be less adventurous and more safety conscious. Allocentrics, on the other hand, are less safety conscious, adventurous and motivated to travel/discover new destinations preferring independent holidays with greater involvement in local cultures. This would seem to be the case with these findings.

There are also highly statistical differences \( (p = .000) \) between a respondent’s level of importance placed on the possible risk of terrorism when deciding on a holiday destination and whether they would ever consider visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity. It was found that those respondents who place less importance on the risks of terrorism are more likely to consider visiting an affected destination in the future, as would be expected.

There are also statistical differences \( (p \leq 0.05) \) between the level of terrorism awareness respondents have towards destinations that had experienced general and tourist targeted terrorism and whether they would ever consider visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity. It was found that those respondents who had
greater awareness were more likely to place a destination affected by terrorism into their late consideration or ‘evoked’ set.

10.7.3 Length of time respondents would wait before considering visiting a destination that has been affected by terrorist activity.

The final aspect examined in order to gauge the effects of terrorism on holiday decision-making was to ascertain how long respondents would wait before considering visiting a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity in the past ten years. Out of the total sample (n = 314), the 58% of respondents (n = 164) who stated that they would consider visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity were then asked how long they would wait before actively considering such destinations in their ‘evoked’ sets.

As can be seen in Table 10.21, out of the fifteen variables tested, four were found to be significant in relation to how long the respondent would wait before actively considering a destination that has been affected by terrorist activity. Those variables were gender (p = .001), whether or not there were children present in the household (p = 0.01), importance of terrorism risk (p = .001), and tourism terrorism awareness (p = .033). These differences will now be discussed.

The first significant difference found was between genders. The statistical test discovered females were more likely to wait longer before considering destinations that had been subject to terrorist activity. Again, this supports the findings from the last chapter, which showed women place greater importance on safety in destination decision-making than men. It would seem logical that as women place more importance on safety, there would be statistically significant differences again when looking at the length of time it would take before considering affected destinations. Overall, the variable of gender was found to be statistically different between males and females on two of the questions asked in relation to willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorism in the last 10 years. On both occasions females had a more negative evaluation of affected destinations than males.

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Highly statistically significant differences ($p = 0.01$) were also found between respondents on the basis of whether they had children and the length of time it would take to actively consider a destination affected by terrorism. This seems to suggest that although there was no difference in whether respondents would or would not actively consider destinations affected by terrorism because they had children, those respondents who would consider affected destinations are more likely to wait longer before considering a destination that they perceived as being a target in the past for terrorist activity, if they have children present in their households. It had been expected that children would be a major influence, due to past research that stated that children exercise a substantial influence on destination decisions (Dann, 1977). From these findings, however, the variable of having children was not as significant as was expected, with only one of the questions regarding respondents willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorism having statistically significant responses.

No statistically significant differences were found between the age of respondents' children and the length of time they would wait before actively considering visiting a destination affected by terrorism. It seems therefore, that although the presence of children within a household leads to longer waiting times before consideration of a destination affected by terrorism, the actual ages of the children are irrelevant. It had been expected that the younger the age of children in a household the less likely there would be of positive evaluations of destinations effected by terrorism in relation to destination selection. This would have been in line with research carried out by Witt and Goodale (1981), who had stated that leisure barrier scores were highest for parents when children around the age of six were present in the household. However, in this research there were no statistical differences found in responses to any of the three questions involving children and willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity.

No statistically significant differences were found between respondents' ages and the length of time it would take before considering a destination that had been affected by terrorism. It had been expected that as the age of a respondent increased there would be more likelihood that they would take longer in considering visiting destinations affected by terrorism. The variable of age was found to be statistically significant on only one of the questions asked to gauge the willingness of respondents to visit
destinations affected by terrorist activity. This was surprising, as age had been expected to be one of the most statistically significant variables.

Family life cycle and marital status again showed no statistical differences in relation to the length of time respondents would take before considering visiting destinations affected by terrorist activity. These two variables were found insignificant in relation to all three questions asked to gauge willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorism. Therefore seems justifiable to state that the role of family life cycle and marital status have little relation to whether respondents positively evaluate destinations affected by terrorist activity in their destination decision-making.

Finally, the variables of occupation and educational attainment were also found to be insignificant when related to the length of time respondents would take before considering visiting destinations affected by terrorist activity. These two variables had shown highly significant differences in relation to whether respondents had visited a destination affected by terrorism and whether they would consider visiting an affected destination. These two variables overall have been shown to be highly important variables in relation to whether respondents positively evaluate destinations affected by terrorism.

The remaining independent variables consisted of general safety awareness levels, holiday behavioural patterns, the importance of terrorism risk and terrorism awareness, which were then tabulated against the dependent variable of whether respondents had visited a destination affected by terrorist activity.

Both general safety awareness levels and holiday behavioral patterns of respondents in relation to the length of time it would take to actively consider destinations affected by terrorist activity showed no statistical differences. It was expected that the higher the general safety awareness levels of respondents the longer the time it would take before actively considering destinations affected by terrorist activity. This was not found to be the case. Although the independent variable was found to be significant when related to whether respondents would or would not consider visiting an affected destination, the differences were insignificant in the length of time before such visitation. It had also been expected that the type of holiday most often taken would
have shown statistically significant differences between respondents based on whether they took mainly full package tours, semi-package tours or totally independent holidays, however, no significant differences were found.

Statistical differences (p ≤0.01) were found however, between a respondents’ level of importance placed on the possible risk of terrorism when deciding on a holiday destination and how long they would wait before visiting a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity. It was found that those respondents who placed less importance on the risks of terrorism were more likely to consider visiting an affected destination quicker than those respondents who placed more importance on the aspect of terrorism risks. This was expected and confirmed the results from the previous two tests that showed statistically significant differences between respondents based on whether they had visited a destination affected by terrorist activity and whether they would consider visiting an affected destination.

Finally, when examining the effects of terrorism awareness on how long respondents would wait before considering visiting a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity, there were statistical differences (p = .003) between respondents’ levels of terrorism awareness of destinations where the tourism industry has been targeted. It was found that those respondents who had greater awareness were more likely to consider visiting an affected destination sooner than those respondents who placed greater importance on the aspect of terrorism risks.

10.8 SUMMARY

Within this chapter, six objectives of the research were analysed and discussed. As the research was concerned with how terrorism affects tourist decision-making, it was necessary to understand how terrorism affects tourists’ evaluation of the possible alternatives available. In order to gauge these effects, respondents were asked three questions referring to their behaviour towards destinations affected by terrorist activity. These questions consisted of whether the respondents had visited destinations that had been subject to terrorist activity in the past 10 years, if they had not visited, then would they consider visiting an affected destination, and if so, how long would
they wait before actively considering those destinations. These dependent variables were then tabulated against fifteen independent variables. The results showed both consistency in some areas and inconsistency in others. The next chapter will now examine the next three objectives of the research relating to the media, terrorism and the effects on tourist decision-making.
10.9 REFERENCES


Chapter Eleven

FINDINGS RELATED TO THE MEDIA

11.1 INTRODUCTION

This fourth findings chapter is related to the objectives that deal with the media, terrorism and the effects on consumer destination decision-making. It was shown within the literature review chapters that the escalation of terrorism has been linked to mass communications (Alexander 1977, Sanler and Lapan 1988, Schmid and DeGraph 1982), therefore the aim of this chapter is to try and understand this relationship with respect to destination decision-making.

Past authors have attempted to explain the effects of the media and terrorism on tourism markets. For instance Richter and Waugh (1986, p.230) stated "that with terrorist violence becoming a familiar phenomenon of modern times, familiarity is largely due to the mass media, rather than to the nature of the violent acts themselves". Pizam (2000) also examined how the media magnifies the already volatile relationship between terrorism and tourism. Like Richter and Waugh (1986), Pizam (2000) states that the media has exaggerated the actual possibilities of travelers being affected by terrorist acts.

There is, however, a lack of empirical research overall, which examines the relationships between the media, terrorism and destination decision-making, which this chapter endeavours to address. During each section the findings will be analysed.
and discussed before a short summary of the findings is given. The three sections will look at the following aspects:-

1. The use of news media.

2. The level of belief that television news and newspapers are factual and unbiased.

3. Perceptions of news media towards terrorist events.

As in the previous chapter, in general, only those findings to be found statistically significant are discussed. The level of significance used when analysing the differences between groups and means is 0.05, those results that fall below that level will be considered non-significant and will only be discussed in detail if they are perceived to be of importance in analysing the objectives.

Again, both parametric and non-parametric tests were utilized to maximize the robustness of the results. When reporting the findings generally the parametric results will be discussed, unless there are differences between the parametric and non-parametric tests that have implications for the results. Most of the tests used were to ascertain the differences in a group (Chi-Square, ANOVA or Kruskal-Wallis tests), t-tests and Mann-Whitney U tests were occasionally used when the independent variable had only two groups.

11.2 Respondents’ Use of News Media and Its Effects on Visiting Destinations That Have Been Subject to Terrorist Activity.

Within this section, research findings in relation to the news media are examined in an attempt to ascertain any relationships between the news media and a willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity. It was illustrated in the literature review and also in this chapter’s introduction that the mass media is linked to terrorism. It is now necessary to understand how the media’s coverage of terrorism
affects tourists’ evaluation of the possible alternatives available. Therefore the same selection of dependent variables that were used in chapter seven will be utilised. They are:-

1. Have you visited a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?

2. Would you consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?

3. How long following a terrorist incident would you wait before considering visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?

These dependent variables will be analysed in relation to the independent variable of newspaper readership in an attempt to ascertain whether respondents would place destinations effected by recent terrorist attacks into their ‘evoked’ or ‘inept’ sets. In order to gauge this relationship respondents were given a choice of newspapers and were asked to state which they read most often. The choices given were:- broadsheet (i.e. the Times, Telegraph, Guardian etc.), quality tabloid (i.e. the Mail or Express) , tabloid (i.e. the Sun, Mirror or Star), or local newspaper. It is widely accepted that the style of reporting found in each type of newspaper is different, ranging from the more sensationalized tabloids to the more objective, factual broadsheets. Therefore, it was deemed appropriate for this research to ascertain whether a respondents’ choice of newspaper and the differences in content has any bearing on their willingness to consider destinations that had been subject to terrorist activity. In order to analyse the above variables the following objective was formulated.

Objective 9. Are there differences between respondents’ use of news media and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?
To answer the above objective, this section of the chapter will include three sub-sections.

11.2.1 Respondents' choice of newspaper and whether they have visited a destination that has been effected by terrorist activity in the past ten years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following *research question* has been formulated.

*Are there differences between which newspapers a tourist reads most often and whether they have visited a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?*

To answer the above research question a chi-square test was carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 11.1 below.

| Table 11.1 Choice of newspaper and visitation to destinations affected by terrorist activity. |
|---------------------------------|------|------|
| Chi-square | Df | Sig. |
| 35.405 | 3 | .000 |

The chi-square tests in Table 11.1 show that the choice of daily newspaper was found to be statistically highly relevant \( (X^2 = 35.405, \text{d.f.} = 3; p = .000) \). The differences between the respondents' choice of daily newspaper and whether they had visited a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years are displayed in Figure 11.1. It is clear that those respondents who prefer to read broadsheet dailies such the Times, Guardian or Telegraph were far more likely to have visited destinations that had been effected by terrorism. For example, 53.6% of those respondents who read broadsheet dailies had visited a destination that had recently been subject to terrorist activity, compared to just 18.4% for those respondents who are prefer to read daily tabloids such as the Sun, Mirror or Star.
Therefore it seems acceptable to state that the choice of print media, with the subsequent differences in editorial content, have a considerable impact on the likelihood of whether a person had visited a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity in recent times.

**Figure 11.1 Choice of newspaper and visitation to destinations affected by terrorist activity**

![Figure 11.1 Choice of newspaper and visitation to destinations affected by terrorist activity](image)

11.2.2 Respondents’ choice of newspaper and whether they would consider visiting a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years?

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following *research question* has been formulated.

*Are there difference between which newspapers a tourist reads most often and whether they would consider visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity in the past 10 years?*

Chi-square tests were carried out between the independent and dependent variables to answer the above research question. The results are displayed in Table 11.2.
Table 11.2 Choice of newspaper and consideration to visit a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22.757</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statistical test carried out shows that the choice of daily newspaper was found to be highly statistically relevant ($\chi^2 = 22.757$, d.f. = 3; $p = .000$). Figure 11.2 highlights the differences between the respondents’ choice of daily newspaper and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been effected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years. The figure clearly illustrates that those respondents who prefer to read broadsheet dailies such the Times, Guardian or Telegraph are far more likely to consider visiting affected destinations. For instance 83.9% of those respondents who read broadsheet dailies would consider visiting a destination that had recently been subject to terrorist activity, compared to just 45.7% for those respondents who prefer to read daily tabloids such as the Sun, Mirror or Star. These results mirror those from the previous sub-section, in that the choice of print media and the subsequent differences in editorial content, result in respondents making different evaluations of destinations affected by terrorism.

Figure 11.2 Choice of newspaper and consideration to visit a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity
11.2.3 Respondents’ choice of newspaper and how long they would wait before considering visiting a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity in the past ten years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.

*Are there differences between which newspapers a tourist reads most often and how long they would wait before considering visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?*

In order to answer the above research question an ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis test were carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 11.3 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.053</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>7.709</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.052</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ANOVA test (see Table 11.3) shows a statistically significant relationship (f = 3.053 d.f. = 3: p = .030) between the preferred daily newspaper of respondents and how long they would wait before considering visiting a destination that had been effected by terrorist activity. The Kruskal Wallis test, however, views the relationship as insignificant (Chi-square = 7.709: d.f = 3: p = .052). As the variances of the groups are unequal in the population, the non-parametric test should be used instead of the parametric F test (Bryman and Cramer, 1999). Therefore this relationship will not be accepted but due to the circumstances the means have been highlighted in Table 11.4 below. It is evident by examining the means that those respondents who prefer to read broadsheet dailies such the Times, Guardian or Telegraph will wait less before considering visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity. For instance, the mean scores of those respondents who read broadsheet dailies was
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2.9574 compared to 3.8750 for those respondents who are prefer to read daily tabloids such as the Sun, Mirror or Star.

Table 11.4 Choice of newspaper and the length of time before considering visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity – the means

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tabloid</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.8750</td>
<td>1.53979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Tabloid</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.5952</td>
<td>1.41524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Paper</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.4750</td>
<td>1.48475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broadsheet</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>2.9574</td>
<td>1.21508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>3.4348</td>
<td>1.43083</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Straight Away; 2 = Less than a year; 3 = 1 to 2 years; 4 = 2 to 3 years; 5 = 3 to 4 years; 6 = Over 5 years.

11.3 RESPONDENTS’ LEVEL OF TRUST IN THE MEDIA AND THE EFFECTS ON VISITING DESTINATIONS THAT HAVE BEEN SUBJECT TO TERRORIST ACTIVITY.

The three sub-sections of this section examine the level of belief that respondents have that television news and newspapers are factual and unbiased, and the subsequent effects on holiday decision-making to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorism. As in the previous section, the findings will be discussed in relation to the dependent variables of whether respondents have visited a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years, whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years and how long following a terrorist incident would respondents wait before visiting a destination. To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research objective was formulated.

Objective 10. Are there differences between a respondent’s belief that national television news/ newspapers are factual and unbiased and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?
To answer the above objective, three research questions were devised which are displayed next.

Are there differences between a tourist’s belief that national television news/news newspapers are factual and unbiased and whether they have visited a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?

Are there differences between a tourist’s belief that national television news is factual and unbiased and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past 10 years?

Are there differences between a tourist’s belief that national television news is factual and unbiased and how long they would wait before considering visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?

In order to answer the above research questions chi-square tests and ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis tests were carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results showed there to be no statistical relevance between the variables and this aspect therefore will not be analysed any further.

11.4 THE PERCEPTIONS OF NEWS MEDIA AND ITS EFFECTS ON VISITING DESTINATIONS THAT HAVE BEEN SUBJECT TO TERRORIST ACTIVITY.

In this final section, respondents’ perceptions of the news media towards terrorist events and the subsequent effects on visiting destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity are analysed and discussed. The respondents were asked two statements regarding their perceptions to the media, which were: do media images exaggerate the actual risk of terrorism, and; do adverse media reports of destinations experiencing terrorist activity put them off visiting such places. These two independent variables were related to the dependent variables of respondents’ holiday decision-making history to destinations that have been affected by terrorism. As a result, the following objective regarding the effects of the media will be dealt with within this section of the chapter.
Objective 11. Are there differences between tourists’ perceptions of the news media towards terrorist events and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?

To answer this objective, this section of the chapter will include six sub-sections, with a variety of research questions regarding the above objective. First of all, the initial three sub-headings will deal with whether respondents believe that the media tend to exaggerate the risks involved and the subsequent effects on their holiday decision-making.

11.4.1 Respondents’ level of belief that media images tend to exaggerate risk and whether they have visited a destination that has been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 Years.

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.

*Are there differences between tourists’ beliefs that media images tend to exaggerate the actual risk of terrorism and whether they have visited a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?*

In order to answer the above research question a Mann-Whitney U test and t-test were carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 11.5.

Table 11.5 Agreement that media images tend to exaggerate the actual risk of terrorism and visitation to a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Mean*</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Mean*</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have Visited</td>
<td>2.2169</td>
<td>Have not Visited</td>
<td>2.6638</td>
<td>-3.901</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-4.700</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Strongly Agree;  2 = Agree;  3 = Neither Agree or Disagree;  4 = Disagree;  5 = Strongly Disagree
The Mann-Whitney U tests and t-tests show that the level of believe that respondents have that media images tend to exaggerate the actual risk of terrorism is highly statistically significant when related to the aspect of whether the respondent has visited a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity (p=0.00). Table 11.5 details the difference in the means and it can be seen that those who have visited affected destinations are more likely to believe that media images tend to exaggerate the actual risk of terrorism, compared to those who have not visited such locations.

11.4.2 Respondents’ level of belief that media images tend to exaggerate risk and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.

*Are there differences between a tourist’s belief that media images tend to exaggerate the actual risk of terrorism and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past 10 years?*

To answer the above research question a Mann-Whitney U test and t-test were carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 11.6.

| Table 11.6 Agreement that media images tend to exaggerate the actual risk of terrorism and consideration of visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Group I | Mean* | Group II | Mean* | Z | Sig. | T | Sig. |
| Would Consider | 2.4329 | Would Never Consider | 2.7881 | -3.466 | .001 | -3.366 | .001 |

* 1 = Strongly Agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Neither Agree or Disagree; 4 = Disagree; 5 = Strongly Disagree
Chapter Eleven Findings

The Mann-Whitney U tests and t-tests show that the level of belief that respondents have that media images tend to exaggerate the actual risk of terrorism is highly statistically significant when related to the aspect of whether the respondent would ever consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity (p=.001). Table 11.6 details the difference in the means, it can be seen that those who would consider visiting affected destinations are more likely to believe that media images tend to exaggerate the actual risk of terrorism compared to those who have not visited such locations.

11.4.3 Respondents’ level of belief that media images tend to exaggerate risk and how long they would wait before visiting a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity in the past ten years?

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.

*Are there differences between a tourist’s belief that media images tend to exaggerate the actual risk of terrorism and how long they would wait before considering visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?*

ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis Tests were carried out between the independent and dependent variables to answer the above research question. The results are displayed in Table 11.7 below.

| Table 11.7 Agreement that media images exaggerate the actual risk of terrorism and the length of time before considering visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity. |
|----|----|----|----|----|
| F. | Sig. | Chi-square | df | Sig. |
| 4.873 | .000 | 22.357 | 5 | .000 |

The tests show that the level of belief that respondents have that media images tend to exaggerate the actual risk of terrorism is statistically significant when related to how
long they would wait before visiting a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity (p=.000). Table 11.8 details the difference in the means, it can be seen that there is a distinct trend. The more respondents' believe that images tend to exaggerate the actual risk of terrorism the less time they would wait before considering visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity.

Table 11.8 Agreement that media images exaggerate the actual risk of terrorism and the length of time before considering visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity - means

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Straight Away</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.9231</td>
<td>.49355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less Than a Year</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2.0323</td>
<td>.54674</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 2 Years</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2.5435</td>
<td>.91181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 to 3 Years</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.4688</td>
<td>.71772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 to 4 Years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2.6364</td>
<td>.84771</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 5 Years</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2.9444</td>
<td>.87260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>162</td>
<td>2.4383</td>
<td>.81858</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Strongly Agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Neither Agree or Disagree; 4 = Disagree; 5 = Strongly Disagree

11.4.4 Respondents' level of agreement that adverse media reports of destinations experiencing terrorist activity deters visitation and whether they have visited a destination that has been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.

*Are there differences between a tourist's agreement that adverse media reports of destinations experiencing terrorist activity deters visitation and whether they had visited a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?*
Mann-Whitney U test and t-tests were carried out in order to answer the research question. The results are displayed in Table 11.9.

Table 11.9 Agreement that adverse media reports deter visitation and visitation to a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Mean*</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Mean*</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have Visited</td>
<td>2.6747</td>
<td>Have Not Visited</td>
<td>2.1892</td>
<td>-4.086</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.026</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Strongly Agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Neither Agree or Disagree; 4 = Disagree; 5 = Strongly Disagree

The tests show the level with which respondents agree with the statement that adverse media reports of destinations affected by terrorism deters visitation is highly statistically significant when related to the aspect of whether the respondent had visited a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity (p=0.00). Table 11.9 details the difference in the means, and it can be seen that those who have visited affected destinations are less likely to agree with the statement that adverse media images deters visitation, compared to those who have not visited these locations.

11.4.5 Respondents' level of agreement that adverse media reports of destinations experiencing terrorist activity put them off visiting and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been affected by terrorist activity in the past 10 years?

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.

*Are there differences between a tourist's agreement that adverse media reports of destinations experiencing terrorist activity deters visitation and whether they would consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past 10 years?*
In order to answer the above research question a Mann-Whitney U test and t-test were carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 11.10.

Table 11.10 Agreement that adverse media reports deter visitation and consideration of visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Mean*</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Mean*</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Would Consider</td>
<td>2.4938</td>
<td>Would Never</td>
<td>1.9735</td>
<td>-4.992</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>4.959</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Strongly Agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Neither Agree or Disagree; 4 = Disagree; 5 = Strongly Disagree

The Mann-Whitney U tests and t-tests show that the level of belief that respondents have that media images tend to exaggerate the actual risk of terrorism is highly statistically significant when related to the aspect of whether the respondent would consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity (p=0.00). Table 11.10 details the difference in the means from which it can be seen that those who would consider visiting an affected destination are less likely to agree with the statement that adverse media images put them off visiting compared to those who have not visited such destinations.

11.4.6 Respondents' level of agreement that adverse media reports of destinations experiencing terrorist activity deters visitation and how long they would wait before considering visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?

To illustrate whether there are any differences between the above variables the following research question has been formulated.

*Are there differences between a tourist’s agreement that adverse media reports of destinations experiencing terrorist activity deters visitation and how long they would wait before visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years?*
To answer the above research question ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis Tests were carried out between the independent and dependent variables. The results are displayed in Table 11.11 below.

Table 11.11 Agreement that adverse media reports deter visitation and the length of time before considering visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>F.</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6.040</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>30.181</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis tests (see Table 11.11) show that the level that respondents agree with the statement that adverse media reports of destinations effected by terrorism put them off visiting is statistically significant when related to how long they would wait before considering visiting a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity (p=.000). Table 11.12 details the difference in the means, and it can be seen that there is a distinct trend that the less time a respondent would wait before considering visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity, the less agreement there is with the statement that adverse media reports of destinations affected by terrorism put them off visiting.

Table 11.12 Agreement that adverse media reports deter visitation and the length of time before considering visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity - means

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean *</th>
<th>Std Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Straight Away</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.2308</td>
<td>.92681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less Than a Year</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.8667</td>
<td>.57135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 to 2 Years</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2.3261</td>
<td>.84471</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 to 3 Years</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2.4839</td>
<td>.85131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 to 4 Years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2.1818</td>
<td>.85280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 5 Years</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2.0000</td>
<td>.88599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>2.4750</td>
<td>.85377</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* 1 = Strongly Agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Neither Agree or Disagree; 4 = Disagree; 5 = Strongly Disagree

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11.5 DISCUSSION OF THE MAIN FINDINGS.

This chapter will now discuss the findings detailed in the previous sections. Table 11.13 below summarises the differences tested between the dependent and independent variables, with those differences that are statistically significant shown in bold.

Table 11.13 Independent variables tested and areas of significance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>Have visited a destination affected by terrorism</th>
<th>Would actively consider visiting a destination affected by terrorism</th>
<th>How long respondents would wait before actively considering a destination that had been affected by terrorism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHOICE OF NEWSPAPER</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEVEL OF TRUST IN THE MEDIA</td>
<td>.198</td>
<td>.949</td>
<td>.822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERCEPTIONS OF NEWS MEDIA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Images tend to Exaggerate Risk</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverse Media Reports put tourists off visiting</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11.5.1 Choice of newspaper and willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorism

The choice of newspaper most often read by respondents was tested as it is widely accepted that the style of reporting found in newspapers varies widely, ranging from the more sensationalized tabloid to the more objective, factual broadsheets. It was expected that those respondents who most commonly read tabloids such as the Sun, Mirror and Star would be less positive in their evaluations of destinations that had experienced terrorist activity, due to the more sensationalized reporting style found within these newspapers. On the whole the findings of this chapter would tend to agree with this. From the three tests carried out to gauge the willingness of
respondents to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity there were highly statistical differences ($p \leq 0.01$) between respondents' choice of preferred daily newspaper and whether or not they have visited or whether they would consider visiting a destination that had been affected by terrorism. It was found that those respondents who preferred to read broadsheet papers such as the Times, Guardian and Telegraph were far more favourable to destinations that had been subject to terrorist activity than those respondents who mainly read tabloids. It is reasonable to believe that readers of more factual broadsheets are more likely to come from more senior occupational positions and have greater academic achievements. If this is the case then the findings would be consistent with those findings in the previous chapter that showed the variables of occupation and education to be two of the more significant variables in segmenting respondents on their willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity.

11.5.2 Level of trust in news media and willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorism.

The second independent variable to be tested against the three dependant variables that gauged respondents willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity was the level of trust in the news media. It was expected that those respondents with higher levels of trust towards the media would be more negative in their evaluations of destinations affected by terrorism. There were, however, no statistical differences found between respondents' level of belief that the news watched on television or read in newspapers is factual and unbiased and whether they had visited, would consider visiting and the time it would take before visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity.

11.5.3 Perceptions of the news media and willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorism

Respondents were asked two questions regarding their perceptions towards the news media and their willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity. The first question referred to respondents' level of belief that media images tend to exaggerate
the actual risk of terrorism. This independent variable proved to be very significant when related to the three dependent variables that were asked to gauge the willingness of respondents to visit affected destinations. Respondents who believed that the media tended to exaggerate the actual risk of terrorism were far more likely to have visited destinations affected by terrorism compared to those respondents who believed that the media did not exaggerate the risk involved. Again, the willingness to even consider destinations affected by terrorism was greater if respondents felt that the news they received via the media exaggerated the actual risk. Finally, respondents who felt media images tended to exaggerate the risk were more likely to wait less time before considering affected destinations compared to those respondents who did not believe the risks to be exaggerated. Even though these results were expected, the level of significance was very high in each test. These results would seem to correspond to the statement made by Pizam (2000), who stated that exaggerated perceptions fuelled by the media have affected the number of tourists who would consider visiting destinations affected by terrorism. From the research carried out it is clear that if respondents perceive these ‘exaggerated images’ as factual and correct, there is a clear indication that they will negatively evaluate destinations suffering from this problem. What is evident, however, is that if respondents are more sceptical about media representations of destinations affected by terrorist activity, then there is a clear indication that they would be far more likely to evaluate those destinations positively.

The second question asked regarding respondents’ perceptions towards the news media and their willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity was whether adverse media reports of destinations affected by terrorism deterred visitation to those affected destinations. Again, this independent variable proved to be highly statistically significant (p ≤0.01) when related to the three dependent variables that gauged the willingness of respondents to visit affected destinations. As one would expect, those respondents who agreed most with the statement that adverse media reports of destinations affected by terrorism put them off visiting were more likely to be negative in their willingness to visit affected destinations. This corresponds to the statement by Ryan (1993), who indicated that the reporting of terrorist events by popular newspapers in tourist-generating countries, particularly at the time of booking
holidays, can adversely affect the level of business in tourist locations affected by terrorist activity.

11.6 SUMMARY

Within this chapter, three objectives have been analysed and discussed. As the chapter was concerned with how the media and terrorism affected tourist decision-making, it was necessary to demonstrate how the media affects tourists' evaluation of the possible alternatives available. As in the previous chapter, a selection of questions were put forward to the respondents in the questionnaire to ascertain whether they would place destinations effected by recent terrorist attacks into their 'evoked' or 'inept' sets. These were then related to three independent groups of variables concerning aspects of the media. In general results were consistent with earlier findings and in the wider literature.

The next chapter will examine the final objective of this research relating to tourist awareness of, and response to, media coverage of terrorist events.
11.7 REFERENCES


Chapter Twelve

TOURIST AWARENESS AND RESPONSE TO MEDIA COVERAGE OF TERRORIST EVENTS

12.1 INTRODUCTION

Within this final findings chapter, results will be discussed in relation to the final research objective that deals with tourist awareness and response to media coverage of terrorist events. There are three main sections within this chapter, each of which includes a range of research questions that endeavour to answer the research objective. The final section will then discuss the main findings of this chapter. The research objective for this chapter is detailed below:

Objective 12. Are there differences between tourists’ awareness/ perceptions of destinations that have been subject to terrorist activities in response to the immediate media coverage of these terrorist events?

This research objective was not initially a part of the doctoral thesis, but during the summer of 2001 two terrorist incidents occurred, both of which achieved major international media coverage and involved tourists. One was an attack by Tamil Tigers on Colombo airport in Sri Lanka, involving the destruction of several planes. The second was the exploding of bombs at Malaga airport in Spain by ETA, the Basque separatist group, along with its announcement that tourist infrastructure would be targeted in the future.
Both of these incidents occurred within a few days of each other and within two weeks of the distribution of the initial mail survey being conducted for this research. As a result a second smaller survey was undertaken from the same overall population to investigate specifically what changes, if any, had occurred in awareness and attitudes. A full explanation and description of the methodology used is explained in sub-section 7.9.3 of the methodology chapter.

The statistical analysis used within this chapter is similar to that in the previous findings chapters, with both parametric and non-parametric tests being utilised to maximise the robustness of the results. The findings will generally be reported using the parametric results, unless the differences between the tests have implications for the results. The level of significance remains the same at 0.05.

12.2 CHANGES IN TOURIST AWARENESS OF DESTINATIONS THAT HAVE BEEN SUBJECT TO TERRORIST ACTIVITY, IN RESPONSE TO MEDIA COVERAGE OF TERRORIST EVENTS

Within this first section, respondents' awareness of destinations that have been subject to both general terrorist activity and terrorist activity specifically against the tourist industry are examined. The awareness levels are analysed before and after the media coverage of the terrorist events in both Spain and Sri Lanka in the summer of 2001. The first sample was taken before these terrorist events took place in Spain and Sri Lanka, with the second sample taking place shortly after the media coverage of terrorist activity in those two destinations. The aim was to ascertain to what extent media coverage had changed respondents' awareness of terrorism in these two destinations. Although there was an expectation that there would be an increase of awareness of terrorism in these two destinations, the remaining eight destinations that were used in the original awareness question were also analysed. There was an expectation that the awareness levels of terrorism within these destinations would remain relatively constant, as there had been no terrorist activity in these destinations in the period between the two samples.
12.2.1 Changes in tourist awareness of destinations that have been subject to general terrorist activity in response to media coverage of terrorist events.

This first sub-section analyses changes in tourist awareness of general terrorist activity occurring in both Spain and Sri Lanka. To illustrate whether there are any differences in changes between the two samples the following research question was formulated.

*Are there differences between tourists' awareness of destinations that have been subject to general terrorist events in response to immediate media coverage?*

To answer this research question, the awareness levels of the two samples were calculated, showing the percentage of respondents who perceived the listed destinations to have been subject to terrorist activity. To illustrate this, Table 12.1 contains two columns, which highlight the frequencies of the two samples, the first sample being before the terrorist events and the second sample after the terrorism happened. The final column displays the % difference between the two samples.

### Table 12.1 Differences in respondents' awareness of destinations, as a result of media coverage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination</th>
<th>% of Respondents stating that the following destinations have experienced Terrorist Activity.</th>
<th>% Change in Awareness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>First Sample (before media coverage)</td>
<td>Second Sample (after media coverage)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>66.1%</td>
<td>79.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>39.0%</td>
<td>35.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>66.1%</td>
<td>77.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Ireland</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>84.7%</td>
<td>82.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>27.1%</td>
<td>29.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is clear from Table 12.1 that there was a substantial increase in awareness that both Spain and Sri Lanka have been subject to terrorist activity. In the case of Spain there was a 13.5% increase between the first and second sample in the perception that terrorism had occurred at this destination, and for Sri Lanka there was an increase in awareness levels of 11.5%. The awareness levels in the remaining destinations remained relatively constant between the samples, which would be expected as there had been no terrorist activity at those destinations between the two samples being taken. Figures 12.1 and 12.2 show graphically the difference in awareness levels for both Spain and Sri Lanka.

Figure 12.1  Changes in awareness of terrorism activity in Spain
Although it is clear that there are considerable changes in the awareness of general terrorist activity in relation to Spain and Sri Lanka, it was necessary to ascertain whether any of these results were statistically significant. To enable this, chi-square tests were carried out with the results displayed in Table 12.2 below.

Table 12.2 Chi-Square tests of the changes in awareness of destinations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination</th>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>3.530</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>.169</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>2.464</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Ireland</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.786</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>.117</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.733</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>.110</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>.606</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.436</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter Twelve Findings

From the chi-square tests carried out, it can be seen that there are statistically significant differences between the two samples in the case of Spain. Therefore it seems validated to state that the media coverage that occurred due to the terrorist activity resulted in an increase of awareness by respondents to the fact that Spain is subject to terrorist activity. The chi-square tests in Table 12.2 also showed the level of significance for differences of awareness of terrorist activity in Sri Lanka. Although the results were not statistically significant (p = .117), the results did show a considerable increase between the two samples, from 66.1% initially to 77.6% in the second sample (almost identical to Spain). Therefore, as in the case of Spain, there is some indication, although not at a statistically significant level, that media coverage due to the terrorist activity resulted in the increase of awareness by respondents to the fact that Sri Lanka is subject to terrorist activity.

12.2.2 Changes in tourist awareness of destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity specifically against the tourism industry in response to media coverage of terrorist events.

As mentioned in the introduction of this chapter, both Spain and Sri Lanka suffered terrorist attacks, which were actually targeted at the tourism industries within the two countries. Therefore the aim of this sub-section is to ascertain whether there had been an increase, due to media coverage, in respondents' awareness levels that terrorism has been targeted at the tourist industry in these two destinations. To illustrate whether there were any differences in changes between the two samples the following research question was formulated.

*Are there differences between tourists' awareness of destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity where the tourism industry has been specifically targeted in response to the immediate media coverage of terrorist events?*

To answer this research question, the same methodology was used as in the previous sub-section. The percentage of respondents who perceived the destinations to have been subject to terrorist activity targeting the tourist industry specifically was calculated (see Table 12.3). Again the table contains two columns, which highlight
the frequencies of the two samples, the first sample being before the terrorist events against the tourist industry and the second sample after the terrorism happened. The final column displays the % difference between the two samples.

Table 12.3 Differences in respondents’ awareness of destinations that have experienced terrorist activity against the tourism industry as a result of media coverage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination</th>
<th>% of Respondents stating that the following destinations have experienced Terrorist Activity against the tourist industry.</th>
<th>% Change in Awareness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>First Sample (before media coverage)</td>
<td>Second Sample (after media coverage)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>67.8%</td>
<td>67.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>28.8%</td>
<td>40.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>22.0%</td>
<td>16.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>42.4%</td>
<td>51.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Ireland</td>
<td>37.3%</td>
<td>39.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>78.0%</td>
<td>71.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>16.9%</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From examining Table 12.3 it is evident that the respondents’ awareness in relation to the perception that terrorism against tourism had taken place had increased in the case of both Spain and Sri Lanka. The increase in awareness was less than the awareness that general terrorist activity had occurred (see Table 12.3), but there is still a noticeable increase in respondents’ awareness towards the fact that the tourism industry had been targeted. Overall there was an increase of 12% in awareness in the
Chapter Twelve Findings

case of Spain and 8.6% in the case of Sri Lanka. The remaining destinations again remained relatively constant between the samples, with an average change of 3%. Figures 12.3 and 12.4 show graphically the difference in awareness levels for both Spain and Sri Lanka.

**Figure 12.3 Changes in awareness of terrorism against the Spanish tourist industry**

![Figure 12.3](image)

**Figure 12.4 Changes in awareness of terrorism against the Sri Lankan tourist industry**

![Figure 12.4](image)
Chapter Twelve Findings

Although it is clear from Table 12.3, that both Spain and Sri Lanka had relatively large increases in awareness, a Chi-square test was carried out to ascertain whether the results above could be considered statistically significant. The results of the chi-square tests carried out are displayed in Table 12.4.

Table 12.4 Chi-square tests of changes in awareness of destinations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination</th>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>2.294</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>.797</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>1.104</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Ireland</td>
<td>.097</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>1.271</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>.816</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.366</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>.676</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the chi-square tests carried out, it is clear that the differences in awareness of terrorist activity against the tourism industry in Spain was not statistically significant between the two samples (p = .130). Although Figure 12.3 illustrated that awareness levels increased from 28.8% to 40.8% after the terrorist attacks, a clear indication that there is a relationship between media coverage and awareness, it can not be accepted due to the probability being less than 95%.

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The level of significance for the differences between the awareness levels of terrorist activity against the tourist industry in Sri Lanka were also calculated using the chi-square test (see Table 12.4). Again, the results were not statistically significant (p = .293). Therefore, although Figure 12.4 also illustrates a considerable increase between the two samples, from 42.4% initially to 51% in the second sample, as in the case of Spain, this relationship cannot be confirmed as significant.

12.3 CHANGES IN RISK EVALUATIONS OF DESTINATIONS THAT HAVE BEEN SUBJECT TO TERRORIST ACTIVITY IN RESPONSE TO MEDIA COVERAGE OF TERRORIST EVENTS

This next section analyses whether there were any changes in tourist risk evaluations of both Spain and Sri Lanka due to the specific terrorist activity in those two destinations. Respondents in the two samples rated the list of destinations on a Likert scale (ranging from 1 = very safe to 5 = very unsafe) in order to ascertain whether any increase in awareness that terrorist activity occurred resulted in an increase in perception that the destination was unsafe. To illustrate whether there are any differences in changes between the two samples the following research question was formulated.

*Are there differences between tourists' risk evaluations of destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity in response to media coverage of terrorist events?*

In order to answer the above research question Mann-Whitney U tests and t-tests were carried out. The results for both Sri Lanka and Spain are displayed in Tables 12.5 and 12.6.
Table 12.5 Changes in the perception of Sri Lanka as a safe/unsafe destination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>z</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td></td>
<td>After</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Coverage</td>
<td>3.2542</td>
<td>Media Coverage</td>
<td>3.5510</td>
<td>1.916</td>
<td>.050</td>
<td>-2.052</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>.042</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note *: 1= very safe; 2= safe; 3= neither safe or unsafe; 4= unsafe; 5 = very unsafe

The Mann-Whitney U test and t-test in Table 12.5 show that the difference between the two samples is statistically significant when related to whether respondents perceive Sri Lanka as being less safe following the media coverage of terrorist activity (p= .042). It can be seen by examining the differences in means that the perception of Sri Lanka as being a safe destination reduced considerably after the media coverage of the terrorist events. The first sample taken before the terrorist activity showed the mean to be 3.2542, this level increased to 3.5510 after the media coverage.

Table 12.6 Changes in the perception of Spain as a safe/unsafe destination in response to the media coverage of terrorist Activity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Mean *</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Before</td>
<td></td>
<td>After</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media Coverage</td>
<td>2.3103</td>
<td>Media Coverage</td>
<td>2.1531</td>
<td>1.202</td>
<td>.229</td>
<td>1.138</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>.257</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note *: 1= very safe; 2= safe; 3= neither safe or unsafe; 4= unsafe; 5 = very unsafe

Unlike the case of Sri Lanka, the Mann-Whitney U tests and t-test in Table 12.6 show that differences between the two samples is non-significant when related to whether respondents perceive Spain as being less safe following media coverage of terrorist activity (p=0.257). The difference in means as detailed in Table 12.6 does show some variance, but surprisingly the perception of Spain as a safe destination became more positive rather than negative. This result was unexpected. It is reasonable to presume
that the images of terrorist attacks would result in the perception of a destination as being viewed as less safe, which was not found to be the case. This is discussed further in the conclusions.

12.4 TOURISTS’ WILLINGNESS TO CONSIDER VISITING DESTINATIONS THAT HAVE BEEN SUBJECT TO TERRORIST ACTIVITY FOLLOWING MEDIA COVERAGE OF TERRORIST EVENTS

This final section examines the effects of media coverage on tourists’ general willingness to consider visiting destinations that have been subjected to terrorist activity. As before, the two samples will be analysed, with the first sample taken before the terrorist media coverage and the second sample afterwards. It was shown that the overall awareness of terrorist activity had increased in the case of both Spain and Sri Lanka following an increase in media exposure. The aim now was to ascertain whether or not there were significant differences in respondents’ willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorism in the light of such recent media reports. As discussed in previous chapters it is of paramount importance to a destination marketer to determine whether or not consumers place that particular destination into their ‘evoked’ or ‘inept’ sets. The findings will now show whether respondents are more or less likely to place destinations into their ‘evoked sets’ as a result of increased exposure of terrorist activity within the media. To illustrate whether there are any differences in changes between the two samples the following research question was formulated.

Are there differences between tourists’ willingness to consider visiting destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity following media coverage of terrorist events?

To answer the above research question a chi-square test was carried out between the two samples. The results are displayed in Table 12.7.
Table 12.7 Willingness of respondents to consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity following media coverage of terrorist events.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chi-Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.575</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the chi-square test carried out in Table 12.7 it is evident that the results were found to be statistically significant (p= .006). To enable an understanding of this significance, Figure 12.5 on the next page illustrates the differences between the two samples. From this figure, it becomes clear that there is an increase in respondents’ willingness to consider general destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity, even after being exposed to negative media coverage of terrorist events in Spain and Sri Lanka. This again is somewhat of a surprise, as it would have been expected that these negative images would have a negative impact on respondent’s willingness to consider visiting other destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity also. It was clear, however, from analysing respondents’ awareness levels and their subsequent willingness to consider destinations affected by terrorist activity in chapter 10, that as terrorism awareness increased so did the likelihood of placing destinations affected by terrorism in their ‘evoked sets’. Therefore, it may be the case that as overall awareness increases due to media coverage there is only a limited initial negative impact on the decision-making process. It may be the case that there needs to be a more prolonged media coverage of the ‘autonomous’ form of image change before the decision-making process is influenced to a large extent.
12.5 DISCUSSION OF THE MAIN FINDINGS

Respondents' overall awareness of the fact that Spain was prone to terrorist activity showed statistical differences between the two samples ($p \leq 0.05$). The awareness levels increased from 66.1% to 79.6% following the high-level media coverage that surrounded the ETA bombings. Respondents' awareness that terrorists had actually targeted tourists and the tourist infrastructure also increased from 28.8% to 40.8% but this was not found to be statistically relevant. There were also increases in awareness that Sri Lanka was prone to both general terrorism and also to terrorism targeted against the tourism industry, with awareness levels rising 11.5% and 8.6% respectively after the media coverage of the airport bombings. These results, however, were not found to be statistically significant. It would seem justifiable, therefore, to state that media coverage of terrorist events has some affect on the awareness tourists have towards destinations affected by terrorism. Although all tests were not found to be statistically significant there was a considerable shift in awareness levels investigated before and after the terrorist events and resulting media coverage.
Findings also revealed whether respondents from the two samples differed in their perceptions of the destinations as being less safe after negative media attention. The results for Sri Lanka showed there to be statistically different perceptions before and after the media coverage ($p \leq 0.05$), with the destination being perceived as less safe after the media coverage. This was in marked contrast to Spain, which was perceived as being a safer destination after the media coverage. One reason for this may be the fact that there is a long history of visitation of U.K tourists to Spain, resulting in more positive evaluations of the country that are less liable to sudden changes of perception.

Finally, findings relating to the effects on respondents' willingness to consider destinations affected by terrorist activity after media coverage showed that respondents were more likely to consider visiting destinations following an increase in media coverage. This seems to support the findings in Chapter Ten, which showed that a high level of awareness of where terrorist activity had occurred did not necessarily mean negative attitudes to visiting destinations that had been subject to those troubles.

12.6 SUMMARY

This final findings chapter analysed the results of two samples, one taken before and one after the media coverage of terrorist attacks in Spain and Sri Lanka in the summer of 2001. The main concern of the chapter was to ascertain whether respondents' awareness increased following media coverage, whether they viewed the destinations as being more unsafe due to media attention and to understand the effects of media coverage on their general willingness to consider destinations that had been subject to terrorist activity. As discussed, while changes in awareness for the two destinations, which experienced terrorism against tourism did occur, the overall implications are not as clear as expected.
Chapter Thirteen

CONCLUSION

13.1 INTRODUCTION

There are two main sections presented within this final chapter. Section one summarises the main findings with models presented to summarise the statistically significant findings between the various independent and dependent variables. Section two then examines potential limitations to the research, contributions that the study has made to the field of research and recommendations for future research.

13.1.1 Why the research was conducted

Since the mid-eighties there has been an increase in research by scholars from diverse disciplines on issues relating to terrorism and tourism. These have included the relationship between terrorism and tourism (Richter and Waugh, 1986; Richter, 1989; Ryan, 1993; Pizam, 1996, 1999, 2000), the impacts of political instability on tourism (Seekings, 1993; Hall, 1994; Richter 1999) and the implications for tourism marketing (Gartner and Shen 1992; Buckley and Klemm, 1993; Hall 1994). However, there have been few empirical studies and little background information associated with terrorism and its effects on tourism decision-making, apart from the relatively recent research carried out by Sonmez and Graefe (1998), who researched the influence of terrorism risk on foreign tourism decisions. Apart from this there is little empirical data on this topic although media data and speculation is increasing rapidly. Therefore, this study endeavoured to investigate the affects of terrorism on tourists’ decision-making process.
in an attempt to understand their willingness to consider a destination that has been affected by terrorism

13.2 MAIN FINDINGS OF THIS RESEARCH

To summarise the main findings of this research, the objectives that were first discussed in the introductory chapter and the methodology are again highlighted. As the majority of the objectives were stated as questions an indication is given next to each objective to whether the answer is positive or negative.

Table 13.1 Answering the objectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>How important is the attribute of safety in the consumer decision-making process of selecting a holiday destination compared to other attributes?</th>
<th>N/A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Are there differences between tourists' personal characteristics, general safety awareness levels and holiday behaviour and the importance attached to the attribute of safety when considering potential holiday destinations?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Are there differences between tourists' personal characteristics and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Are there differences between tourists' safety awareness levels and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Are there differences between tourists' holiday behaviour patterns and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Are there differences between the importance tourists' attach to the risk of terrorism and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Are there differences between respondents' terrorism awareness levels and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Are there differences between respondents' level of terrorism awareness where tourists' have been targeted and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Are there differences between respondents' use of news media and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Are there differences between a respondent's belief that national television news/newspapers are factual and unbiased and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Are there differences between respondents' perceptions of the news media towards terrorist events and their willingness to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Are there differences between respondents' awareness/perceptions of destinations that have been subject to terrorist activities in response to the immediate media coverage of these terrorist events?</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The objectives are divided into three main groups. The first two objectives investigate the importance of safety in the section of tourist destinations; objectives three to eight deal with the willingness of respondents to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity; and the final four objectives investigate the influence of the media. The answers to these objectives are now summarised in more detail.

13.2.1 The Importance of safety in the selection of a holiday destination

To meet the first two objectives of this study there was a need to understand the importance of safety in the consumer decision-making process of selecting a holiday destination and to ascertain whether that importance was different based on the influence of eleven independent variables. As this research is concerned with the decision-making processes of tourists it was necessary to link the findings with established literature and models that refer to how potential tourists select holiday destinations. This enabled an understanding of how the importance of safety can influence tourists’ evaluation of possible holiday destinations.

It was evident from the literature examined that a part of the decision-making process involves narrowing a list of possible destinations by focusing on the ability of a destination’s attributes to satisfy that person’s specific motives for taking a holiday. To meet the objectives of this study therefore, the varying importance of these attributes was examined to ascertain whether safety was an important attribute to consumers when choosing their holiday destinations, and whether different market segments view that importance differently. The results are discussed at length in Chapter 9, and a model displaying the statistically significant relationships is displayed in Figure 13.1.

The findings found overall that respondents rated the attribute of safety as very important. Only the factors of price/ value for money and climate were rated higher, and then only marginally. From the eleven independent variables tested for differences in the importance attached to the attribute of safety, seven were found to be statistically significant in the differences they showed (see Figure 13.1). The most significant variable was the level of education of respondents. The results showed that as educational attainment increased from basic compulsory education to university post-
graduation, the level of importance placed on safety diminished. The next most significant difference was between genders, with males placing less importance on the aspect of safety than females. The presence of children in a household also showed statistically significant differences, with parents placing more importance on the attribute of safety, compared to those individuals with no children. Differences were also found in relation to age of those children in the household, with the attribute of safety most important to those parents whose children were aged under six, confirming what might have been expected.

Of the other independent variables tested, the general safety awareness levels of respondents made up one of the most influential variables in terms of significant results. This seems to suggest, not surprisingly, that those respondents who are most safety aware in everyday life are also most safety aware when deciding on a holiday destination. Statistical differences were also found in the type of holiday most commonly undertaken by respondents. There was a clear trend that the importance of safety in holiday decision-making decreased as respondents moved from full-package to totally independent tours as their most common choice of holiday type. This is in line with Plog (1974) and his links between personality traits and tourist behaviour.

Among those variables found insignificant the most surprising result was that there were no significant differences between an individuals’ age and the importance they place on safety in holiday decision-making. It had been expected that as an individual aged they would place more emphasis on safety. As one of the key variables of the family-life cycle is age, it was not so surprising that the variable of family life-cycle also showed no significant differences over the various stages.
Figure 13.1 Statistically significant differences between independent variables and the importance they place on safety in deciding on a holiday destination

- Gender
- Age
- Marital Status
- Children in household
- Ages of children
- Occupation
- Education
- Family life-cycle
- Type of holiday
- Holiday companion
- Who decides on holiday
- General safety awareness levels

Importance of safety in deciding on a holiday destination

P = .003
P = .004
P = .046
P = .000
P = .001
P = .001
13.2.2 Willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity

To meet objectives 3 to 8 of this study (see Chapter 7) there was a need to gauge the willingness of respondents to visit destinations that had been subject to terrorist activity and to ascertain whether that willingness to visit was different based on the influence of any of fifteen independent variables. To enable an understanding of how terrorism can affect the choices of holiday destinations, literature was reviewed in depth regarding choice sets. As discussed in Chapter 3 of the literature review, choice sets are an important and integral part of the tourism decision-making process. The process of narrowing down product choices to an acceptable number by placing alternatives into various sets is termed the ‘evaluation of alternatives’. As this research is concerned with how terrorism affects tourist decision-making, it was necessary to understand how terrorism affected tourists’ evaluation of the possible alternatives available. This research used the choice set definitions established by Narayana and Markin (1975); they termed the sets evoked, inept and inert sets (full descriptions given in Chapter 3).

In order to ascertain respondents’ willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorism, research was conducted to gauge whether destinations would be placed into either evoked or inept sets for final destination selection. In order to do this it was necessary to ask respondents three questions regarding their willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity. The first question ascertained the level of respondents who had previously visited a destination that had been affected by terrorist activity. In total a quarter (26.4%) of respondents sampled had been to an affected destination in the past 10 years. From those respondents, almost two thirds (61.2%) had visited for holiday/leisure purposes, one fifth (20%) for business reasons and the remainder (18.8%) to visit family or friends. These results would seem to be in-line with the statement put forward by Richter and Waugh (1986) who stated that ‘although tourists have rarely been at risk, few have chosen to visit unsettled destinations.

Those respondents who had not visited a destination affected by terrorism were then asked if they would or would not ever consider visiting such destinations by placing them in their ‘evoked’ or ‘inept’ set of possible destinations. The evoked set consists of the alternatives actively considered during a consumer’s choice process (Solomon, 2001). The descriptive findings showed (see Chapter 8) that only just over half (58%)
of respondents sampled would actively consider visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity. Therefore nearly half the respondents sampled would never consider including destinations affected by terrorist activity in their evoked set. This would seem to support earlier statements by academics who have studied the affects of terrorism on tourism markets. Hall (1994) for instance, stated that tourists simply choose other destinations in what is a highly competitive global tourism marketplace when some set of events dissuades them from visiting a given destination.

The final aspect examined in order to gauge the affects of terrorism on holiday decision-making was to ascertain how long respondents would wait before considering visiting a destination that had been effected by terrorist activity in the past ten years. Out of the total sample, just over half (58%) of respondents who stated that they would consider visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity were then asked how long they would wait before actively considering such destinations in their ‘evoked’ sets. The results indicated that 55% of respondents would consider visiting a destination within two years. This figure increases to nearly 90% for respondents who would consider a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity within four years. There were much smaller numbers of respondents who would visit straight away (7.9%) or who would wait over five years (11%).

Tests were then carried out between the dependent variables described above and fifteen independent variables. Results are displayed in three models (Figures 13.2, 13.3 and 13.4). Full results can be found in Chapter 10. This section will now discuss the major trends that were evident from the findings. From examining the eight personal characteristics, none were found to show consistency across all three questions. Those variables found to be most consistent across the dependent variables included gender, occupation and education, each of which were statistically significant when tested against two of the tests.

Tests concerning gender uncovered no surprises, with expected significant differences between males and females, both in whether they had visited a destination affected by terrorism and in how long it would take respondents to place destinations that had been subject to terrorist activity into their active evoked sets. In both tests females were found to have more negative evaluations of terrorism in their holiday decision-making
than males. Even though a level of consistency in evaluating destinations affected by terrorism was not found for the third variable, the results do show gender to be one of the most influential variables. The results would seem to correspond to the statement from Whyte and Shaw (1994) that research had constantly shown women to have higher levels of fear of violence, which has affected participation and enjoyment of leisure activities.

There were also highly statistical significant differences between a person’s occupation and educational levels and their willingness to visit or consider those destinations affected by terrorism. The higher the social class of a respondent based on their occupation, the more likely they were to evaluate destinations positively. Again, those with higher educational attainment are more likely to have actually visited a destination that had been in the media due to terrorism in the last ten years or would be more likely to actively consider a destination affected by terrorism. As Mathieson and Wall (1982, p.17) state “education influences attitudes, perceptions and motivations, which can affect decisions.” This seems to be the case in this situation, where educational attainment can be seen as a major influence on the attitude towards and perceptions of destinations that had been subject to terrorist activity. For both the variables of occupation and education, consistency in the findings was not found in the question that evaluated the length of time respondents would wait before considering a destination affected by terrorism.

The variable of age was found significant on only one of the three dependent variables tested against. There were no statistically significant differences between a respondents age and whether they had visited a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity or the length of time an individual would wait before considering a destination that had been effected. There were however, statistically significant differences between an individuals’ age and whether they would actively consider a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity. As expected the results showed that generally as a person becomes older they are more unlikely to place such a destination into their evoked set of possible destinations. For instance almost three quarters (72.9%) of those aged between 25 and 34 would consider an effected destination compared to only two fifths (40.9%) of those aged 65 and over. This seems to uphold the commonly held belief that
as individuals become older they generally become more wary of issues relating to their safety.

From the three tests carried out to ascertain the influence of terrorism on destination decision-making, the influence of children was surprisingly unimportant. There was no relationship between those respondents with children and whether they had visited a destination effected by terrorism or whether they would actively consider such a destination. There was however a highly significant difference between those with and without children and the length of time it would take them to actively consider a destination effected by terrorism. This seems to suggest that although there is no difference in whether respondents would or would not actively consider a specific destination because they have children, those with children are more likely to wait longer before considering a destination that they perceived as being a target in the past for terrorist activity. It had been expected that children would be a major influence, due to past research that stated that children exercise a substantial influence on destination decisions (Dann, 1977). There were however, no significant differences between respondents and the age of their children and the evaluation of destinations effected by terrorism. It had been expected that the younger the age of children in a household the less likely there would be of positive evaluations of destinations effected by terrorism. This would have been in line with research carried out by Witt and Goodale (1981) who had stated that leisure barrier scores were high for parents when children around the age of six were present in the household. The remaining personal characteristics of marital status and family life-cycle were also found to be statistically insignificant against all three questions.

There were highly statistical differences when comparing the general safety awareness levels of respondents against whether they would ever consider a destination affected by terrorism. A vast difference between those with low and high safety awareness levels was found, with over three quarters (80.6%) of people with low safety awareness levels stating that they would actively consider visiting a destination that had been subject to terrorist activity, compared to just 36.2% of those who had high general safety awareness levels. There was, however, a lack of consistency on this variable when compared to the other two questions, with no statistical differences found
between general safety awareness levels of respondents and whether they had visited or the time it would take to actively consider a destination affected by terrorism.

Of the holiday behaviour patterns examined, the only one to be found statistically significant on any of the tests was the type of holiday most commonly undertaken. Statistical differences were found when relating the type of holiday most undertaken and whether respondents would ever consider visiting destinations that have been subject to terrorism in the last ten years. There was a clear trend that the importance of safety in holiday decision-making decreased as respondents moved from full-package to totally independent tours as their most common choice of holiday type. This is in line with Plog (1974) and his links between personality traits and tourist behaviour. The consistency was limited however, with results from the other two tests insignificant.

The final independent variables tested were found to be the most significant and consistent when tested against the three dependent variables. As the three models illustrate, both the importance of terrorism risk and general tourism terrorism awareness levels were highly significant across all three questions. As would be expected those who placed less importance on the aspect of terrorism were far more likely to have positive evaluations towards destinations affected by terrorism, compared to those who view terrorism as an important consideration. Finally, respondents’ general terrorism awareness of destinations that have experienced terrorist activity also show highly statistical differences on whether they had visited destinations affected by terrorist activity. From the findings it is clear that those with greater awareness of both destinations that have experienced terrorism in general and terrorism against the tourism industry were far more likely to have positive attitudes towards destinations affected by terrorist activity.
Chapter Thirteen Conclusion

Figure 13.2 Statistically significant differences between independent variables and whether respondents have visited destinations affected by terrorism

- Gender
- Age
- Marital Status
- Children in household
- Ages of children
- Occupation
- Education
- Family life-cycle
- Type of holiday
- Holiday companion
- Who decides on holiday
- General safety awareness levels
- Importance of terrorism risk
- General terrorism awareness levels
- General tourism terrorism awareness levels

P = .000

P = .001

P = .006

Have visited a destination affected by terrorist activity

P = .000

P = .001

P = .000

299
Figure 13.3 Statistically significant differences between independent variables and whether respondents would ever consider visiting a destination that has been affected by terrorism.
Figure 13.4 Statistically significant differences between independent variables and how long respondents would wait before considering visiting a destination that has been affected by terrorism

- Gender
  - P = .011
- Age
- Marital Status
- Children in household
  - P = .001
- Ages of children
- Occupation
- Education
- Family life-cycle
- Type of holiday
- Holiday companion
- Who decides on holiday
- General safety awareness levels
  - P = .001
- Importance of terrorism risk
- General terrorism awareness levels
- General tourism terrorism awareness levels
  - P = .003
- How long respondents would wait before actively considering a destination that has been affected by terrorism
13.2.3 The role of the media

From the literature discussed in chapter two it was clear that the media and the resulting images that are formed in the minds of potential tourists influence the decision-making processes of potential tourists. Therefore Chapter 11 of the findings endeavoured to meet objectives 9 to 11 of this study, in attempting to gauge the willingness of respondents to visit destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity and to ascertain whether that willingness differed based on the influence of four independent variables that were related to the usage and perceptions of the media.

The initial findings of the chapter attempted to determine whether the type of newspaper most commonly read showed any significant differences in the willingness of respondents to consider destinations affected by terrorist activity. The results showed that those respondents who commonly read the tabloid newspapers showed the least positive evaluations of destinations affected by terrorist activity. A reason for this is likely to be the sensationalised reporting style found within these newspapers.

Respondents were also asked two questions regarding their perceptions towards the news media and their willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity. Respondents who believed that the media tended to exaggerate the actual risk of terrorism were far more likely to have visited destinations affected by terrorism compared to those respondents who believed that the media did not exaggerate the risk involved. Again, the willingness to even consider destinations affected by terrorism was more likely if respondents felt that the news they received via the media exaggerated the actual risk. Finally, respondents who felt media images tended to exaggerate the risk were more likely to wait less time before considering affected destinations compared to those respondents who did not believe the risks to be exaggerated. These results support the statement made by Pizam (2000), who noted that exaggerated perceptions fuelled by the media have affected the amount of tourists who would consider visiting destinations affected by terrorism. The second question asked regarding respondents’ perceptions towards the news media and their willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity was whether adverse media reports of destinations affected by terrorism put them off visiting those affected destinations. As
one would expect, those respondents who agreed most with the statement that adverse media reports of destinations affected by terrorism put them off visiting were more likely to be negative in their willingness to visit affected destinations.

13.2.4. Tourist awareness and response to media coverage of terrorist events

This final analysis was of the results from two samples, one taken before and one after the media coverage of terrorist attacks in Spain and Sri Lanka in the summer of 2001. The findings endeavoured to answer objective 12 of this study, by ascertaining whether there were changes in awareness and perceptions of destinations that have been subject to terrorist activities in response to immediate media coverage of these terrorist events.

Overall awareness that Spain and Sri Lanka were prone to terrorist activity showed statistical differences between the two samples. In both cases, awareness increased after the terrorist events, but only significantly in the case of Spain. Therefore it would seem justifiable to state that media coverage of terrorist events within national newspapers and television has some affect on the awareness tourists have towards destinations affected by terrorism. Although all tests were not found to be statistically significant there was some shift in awareness levels before and after the terrorist events and the resulting media coverage.

Findings also revealed whether respondents from the two samples differed in their perceptions of the destinations as being less safe after negative media attention. The results for Sri Lanka showed there to be statistically different perceptions before and after the media coverage, with the destination being perceived as less safe after the media coverage. Spain, however, was perceived as being a safer destination after the media coverage. Although the reasons for this were unclear it could be argued that the high level of visitation of U.K tourists to Spain, resulted in a more positive evaluation of the country with less sudden changes of perception.(see appendix 6 for an alternative suggestion).

Finally, findings referring to the effects on respondents' willingness to consider destinations affected by terrorist activity after media coverage showed that respondents were more likely to consider visiting destinations following an increase in media
coverage. Although this was surprising, there does seem to be some consistency with the findings in Chapter 10 that showed that those respondents with a high awareness of where terrorist activity occurred were no less likely to consider visiting a destination that had been subject to those troubles.

13.3 POTENTIAL LIMITATIONS, CONTRIBUTIONS & RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH.

13.3.1 Potential limitations of this research

The primary research for this thesis was carried out in July 2001. The results, therefore, do not reflect any influence of the terrorist attacks in New York on September 11th 2001, the bombing of the Bali in October 2002 or the bombing in Kenya in November 2002. It is appreciated that the events of September 11th, Bali and Kenya were likely to have a considerable effect on tourists’ perceptions of travel and their willingness to consider visiting those and other destinations that had been affected by terrorist activity. The global coverage of the events has probably raised the profile of both terrorism and tourism to new, much higher levels throughout the world. The issues surrounding terrorism and the affects of terrorism on tourism markets have, as a result, become an important world issue with implications extending far beyond only tourism. (see Chapter 2 for the effects of September 11th on the tourist Industry).

Other potential limitations include the fact that the research was primarily exploratory and descriptive in nature. There was no recognition of the cause and effect of independent variables on the dependent variables examined. Also, as the research was conducted in one town in the United Kingdom, the study findings cannot be generalised to non-British populations since subjects’ responses could be influenced by their cultural backgrounds as well as their social/cultural environment, location and the media. Such responses might be different according to the environment in which the investigation is conducted. Cultural differences in risk perception magnitude and source of perceived hazards have been found in cross-cultural studies of perceived risk (Tiegen, Brun and Slovic, 1988; Mechitov and Rebrik, 1990; Goszczynska, Tyszka and Slovic, 1991).
13.3.2 The overall contribution of this research

This study has attempted to examine tourist decisions made within the context of terrorism related risk. Decisions involving risk in general or terrorism risk in particular, involve a complicated process that has received little research attention. Whether real or perceived, risks associated with tourism place serious constraints on the behaviour of potential tourists.

By looking at past tourism figures of destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity, there is no doubt that terrorism and political instability has curtailed tourist visitation. It is likely that behaviour is as constrained by perceived risk as it is by actual risk. What this research has highlighted is the differences between respondents in their evaluation of destinations affected by terrorist activity. Utilising decision-making models developed in consumer behaviour as the main theoretical framework, this research has related findings to the factors that both influence and curtail tourism activity. This empirical research has enabled further understanding of the role of the media as an influence on willingness to visit destinations affected by terrorist activity, detailing differences between respondents based on a range of independent variables. Due to one fortunate aspect of the timing of the research, data was also collected that enabled an understanding of how tourist awareness changes in response to immediate media coverage of terrorist events.

These research findings can be applied practically in the tourist marketing field. It is important for the tourist industry to examine marketing aspects such as consumer behaviour and decision-making in order to increase knowledge of consumer characteristics that will enable marketers to understand more fully purchase behaviours of potential tourists. This research illustrated the influence of demographic variables that can help in marketing segmentation. Results have shown that perceived risk can act as a deterrent for certain tourists to positively evaluate destinations that have been subject to terrorist activity and that these evaluations differ according to certain demographic variables. It is crucial for destination marketers to understand tourist perceptions and differences among perceptions between consumers based on their personal characteristics in order to tailor promotional messages accordingly. By
understanding these differences and influences travel professionals will be able to plan and implement marketing activities that will address tourist concerns, correct false negative perceptions and reinforce positive ones more appropriately.

13.3.3 Recommendations for future research

This research has illustrated the affects of terrorism on the tourism decision-making process of tourists. Up to now there has been a limited amount of empirical research conducted on this topic, therefore, it is hoped that the findings of this research can lead to more empirical research being conducted.

This research found highly significant differences between respondents based on a variety of independent variables. However, as was stated earlier, the research was primarily descriptive in nature. In future research these findings can be built upon for looking at aspects relating to issues such as the cause and effect of independent variables on the dependent variables examined.

A possible limitation of this study was that the research was conducted in only one town in the United Kingdom. Future research could be conducted within other countries, as the results of this thesis can only be extrapolated to residents living within Britain. Although the U.K. is a major tourist generating country, other countries in Europe, Asia, Australasia and the Americas also have large generating tourist markets, which could be researched to understand the affects of terrorism on their destination decision-making. The United States would be an interesting country to research, as it has always been thought of as one of the regions most sensitive to the effects of terrorism on tourism travel. Research comparing the U.K. and the U.S. would expand knowledge within this field, detailing the differences between two of the biggest markets.

Further research also needs to be conducted on perceptions of other destinations in relation to how potential tourists perceive these in relation to safety. Within this research 15 destinations were evaluated in terms of how safe respondents perceive them to be. This could be expanded to other destinations to enable further understanding of how they are perceived in relation to safety. Indeed, as the issue of terrorism continues to be at the forefront of media attention, the role of safety in deciding on the location of
a holiday destination will become more prevalent. Further research could also be conducted in relation to the awareness of terrorism and political stability in other destinations.

In relation to the media and terrorism, future research could explore media coverage in detail, examining levels of terrorism coverage and the responding effects on tourist behaviour. Research could also be carried out on the effects of Foreign Office and other official advice warnings on tourists' visitation patterns.

From conducting the second smaller survey after the terrorist attacks in Spain and Sri Lanka, it was found that Sri Lanka was perceived as less safe after the terrorist attacks compared to Spain. Future research may tackle the proximity of destinations to the generating market and the frequency of previous visitation to destinations to understand whether these variables influence perceived risk. Numerous studies of image change as a result of visitation have been conducted (Goodrich, 1978; Phelps, 1986; Gartner, 1989). Chon (1991) used Gunn's travel behaviour model in conjunction with an empirical analysis of American tourists travelling overseas. He examined how the tourist destination image and tourist perceptions are modified and enhanced through travel to a destination and discovered a positive change in attitude as a result of visitation. Future research could be conducted to ascertain whether destinations are perceived safer after visitation. There does seem to be an indication from the research undertaken for this thesis that this is the case with Spain. Due perhaps to the large level of visitation from the U.K., a high level of believe existed that the destination remained a relatively safe destination to visit despite the ongoing terrorist attacks.

Further research could be conducted into what is known as the 'dark side of image marketing'. Ahmed (1991) was one of the first scholars to examine how destinations with poor images can actually use it to their advantage. He stated that some destination marketers simply acknowledge that what they have to offer may appeal to the darker side of the human existence. Although little research has been conducted thus far on destinations affected by terrorism and the marketing of this image, it is likely that there would be certain consumer segments that would be interested in seeing places that have experienced terrorism.
To summarise, this thesis has researched issues relating to tourism and terrorism in an attempt to understand the effects on the decision-making process of tourists. The findings detailed in the previous chapters have attempted to add further knowledge to the role of tourism behaviour. With the ongoing volatile political nature of the world it is likely that these affects will be become more acute and that issues relating to terrorism and tourism will remain high on the agenda for years to come.
13.4 REFERENCES


Appendices


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Source: WTO (2002)
Appendix 2. Summary of academic research conducted on terrorism and tourism since 1980

Sonmez and Graefe (1998) have put together a comprehensive list of articles that have dealt with terrorism and tourism, giving a summary of the main findings of each author. They are detailed below:

- **Richter (1980)**
  Four-month content analysis of 3 leading daily newspapers in the Philippines. President Marcos declared martial law in 1972 to maintain order when he introduced “New Society”. Declaration of martial law facilitated marketing the country as a “safe destination” and the tourism industry caused the New Society to be credited for making the country safe. Author asserts that tourism became a political tool and concludes that political stability exceeds scenic/cultural attractions in importance as requisites for successful tourism.

- **Richter (1983)**
  Relationships between terrorism and tourism are discussed and parallels are drawn between peaceful travel and diplomatic relations. Author identifies tourists as useful targets for terrorists.

- **D’Amore and Anuza (1986)**
  Review of impacts of terrorism on international travel, travellers’ response to terrorism threat, marketing implications, and security issues for individual and terrorism industry. Study results indicate that more experienced tourist take terrorism in their stride compared with more apprehensive first time ones.

- **Richter and Waugh (1986)**
  Classification of terrorist goals and objectives suggest that attacks on tourism/tourist are considered logical for terrorist opposing socio-economic and political elites controlling the industry.
• **Teye (1986)**

Discussion of the effects of Zimbabwe’s Declaration of Independence (UDI) on Zambia’s tourist industry. Zimbabwe’s liberation war affected tourism in surrounding areas. Zambia’s arrivals declined drastically as a result of the withdrawal of ground operators of tourism services.

• **Brady and Widdows (1988)**

Study applied consumer demand analysis methods to determine demand for European tourism and to estimate impacts of various occurrences (i.e. terrorism; Chernobyl; US raid on Libya) on 1986 summer tourism.

• **Conant, Clark, Burnett and Zank (1988)**

An empirical study of 359 largest US travel agencies’ response to 1986 terrorism crisis through mail survey. Respondents were asked to explain marketing strategies in light of terrorist threat and evaluate importance of 16 competitive marketing strategy elements in minimizing effects of terrorism. Results indicated promotion, public relations and personal selling play important roles in managing terrorism. Improvements to traveller security systems and boycotting destinations sympathetic to terrorists were suggested as additional management strategies.

• **Hurley (1988)**

Study compared foreign visitation to Rome in 1985 to that in 1986 and examined occupancy rates of major hotels after terrorist occurrences of mid-80s. Findings indicated that American visitors to Rome decreased by over 59% and occupancy rates decreased by over 37% for 4-5 star hotels in Rome. Author concluded that American tourists are “fickle” and that hotels dependant on American business should shift marketing emphasis to European and Asian travellers.
• **Scott (1988)**

Author examined the case of Fiji, where tourism suffered as a result of 2 military coups in 1987. Travel advisories issued by Australia and New Zealand, attempted hijacking of Air New Zealand Boeing 747 at Fiji’s international airport, and sensational media coverage exacerbated declines in tourism.

• **Teye (1988)**

Author examined political instability in post-colonial Africa by focusing on the effects of coups on African tourism development in general and Ghana’s in particular. Key areas of tourism industry identified as suffering most from military interventions in government include effectiveness of national tourism body when challenged by incoming rulers who void government and its mandates; flow of international tourists curtailed by border closures preventing tourists from entering/leaving country; damage to country’s image resulting from negative media coverage/travel advisories; development of resources/attractions and actual delivery of tourism services severely hindered and development plans suspended/cancelled during military interventions.

• **Hartz (1989)**

In-depth interviews were conducted with 29 high-level business executives of 4 US multinational corporations, who travelled abroad extensively, by board-certified psychiatrist. Study found 66% reported near misses, 31% were victims of actual terrorist events, 2 had over 8 close calls in last 5 years.

• **Tremblay (1989)**

Tourism receipts of 18 European countries were examined by pooling secondary data. Receipts represented dependent variable and terrorist activity, transport costs, exchange rates, relative prices, and income represented independent variables in a regression analysis. Study found tourism receipts to have different elasticity with respect to terrorism, according to tourists’ country of origin. Terrorism was not found to have a significant impact on receipts from European tourists unlike receipts from North American tourists, which were significantly impacted by terrorism.
• **Cook, Jr. (1990)**

Empirical study of the effects of terrorism, crime, political instability on 408 business tourists willingness to travel internationally. Survey with hypothetical situations were administered to 140 subjects attending an international security conference. In a second phase, 268 executives were surveyed. Data were analysed using regression and ANOVA. Results indicated that willingness to travel internationally increased parallel to prior experience. Reluctance to executives to change plans in response to media coverage of terrorism was the strongest predicator of executives' willingness to travel under high risk of terrorism. Subjects feared crime but were found to be more apprehensive about terrorism. Political instability did not elicit serious concern unless accompanied by terrorism.

• **Hollier (1991)**

Author examined the effects of the Persian Gulf War on tourist activity. During the Gulf War, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Turkey, and United Arab Emirates experienced a sharp drop in tourist arrivals, and a massive re-alignment of international travel flows was witnessed during Operation Desert Storm.

• **Schwartz (1991)**

Author examined the case of Tibet during martial law (declared in Lhasa in 1989) and the subsequent transformation of the tourist-host relationship. Tourists' witnessed/photographed demonstrations in which police shot/killed civilians urged by local citizens to carry their message outside.

• **Enders, Sandler and Parise (1992)**

Secondary data was used to examine the effects of terrorism on tourism on 12 continental European countries between 1968-1988. Tourism market shares were forecast using the ARIMA Model with a transfer function based on time series of terrorist on country/region. Economic cost of terrorism was represented by value of tourist revenues reported by IMF. The study found no possible way to attribute monetary value to tourists' perceived cost of terrorism. European countries dependant on tourism for foreign exchange lost 12.6 billion in Special Drawing Rights (SDR) for Continental Europe, 2.58 billion for Austria, 615 billion for Italy, and 427 billion for Greece ($1 = 0.7431 SDR in 1988) due to terrorism. Study identified “generalization effect”
deterring tourism in one country when its neighbour experiences terrorism. Tourism was found to react to terrorism after 6-9 months.

- **Gartner and Shen (1992)**
  Examination of the case of China when its newly developing tourism industry suffered due to worldwide coverage of 1989 Tiananmen Square conflict. Hotel occupancy rates in Beijing fell below 30%, 300 groups (about 11,500 individuals) cancelled travel plans, tourism earnings declined by $430 million in 1989.

- **Gu and Martin (1992)**
  The increase in passenger arrivals at Orlando International Airport (OIA) was examined by using secondary data. Passengers departing from OIA were surveyed in 1986. Forward stepwise regression procedure and other regression analyses were used. Increase in terrorist hijacking incidents in the Middle East and Europe was found to affect passenger arrivals to OIA positively, indicating a destination substitution effect between Orlando and Europe/Middle East.

- **Witt and Moore (1992)**
  Empirical study involved personal interviews with attendees of 8 special events in Northern Ireland (NI) in 1985 to examine country's image as a tourist destination. Study investigated if promoting special events created enough interest to outweigh unrest. Results pointed to necessity for NI to improve its share of tourism market to encourage increased inbound tourism. To increase visitation, authors suggest developing new tourism products accompanied by heavy promotion.

- **Ryan (1993)**
  Conceptual study offering a typology of the crime and tourism relationship, classified into five types, and terrorism is classified as an advanced form of crime - "organized criminal and terrorist groups commit specific violent acts against tourist and/or facilities".

- **Hall (1994)**
  Comprehensive book which discusses the relationship between tourism and politics and touches upon the utilisation of tourism by governments for implementing national policies by providing
examples from around the world (e.g. Fiji, Australia, New Zealand, Antarctica). Authors indicate that repeated terrorist attacks could create a crisis situation for a country if a destination’s image of safety is damaged (e.g. Egypt, Peru, Israel).

- **Aziz (1995)**
  Egyptian terrorist incidents against tourist are discussed and friction is attributed to a socio-economic chasm between tourists and locals in Egypt. Locals’ frustration with some tourists’ behaviours (i.e. Western dress; consumption of pork and alcohol; gambling) that are incongruent with Islamic tradition and cultural values - are highlighted.

- **Mansfield (1995; 1996)**
  Examination of the relationship between war and tourism, with special emphasis on the Middle East factor. Author provides an overview of events impacting the Middle East with a more narrow focus on Israel.

- **Sharpley and Sharpley (1995)**
  Examination of the repercussions of a military coup on Gambia’s tourism industry. The Gambia was politically stable from its 1965 independence from Britain until a bloodless coup in 1994. The Travel Advice Unit of British Foreign and Commonwealth Office issued several subsequent and very stringent travel warnings. When tour operators pulled out, arrivals fell from 5,000 to 300, over 2,000 jobs were lost, 8 hotels closed, economic/social conditions deteriorated. Authors suggest that governments of tourism generating countries, can influence flow of tourists for political reasons through travel advisories, and give examples such as US travel bans on Cuba and China and the US boycott of 1980 Moscow Olympics. Authors recommend creating an independent international organization to collect, update, and disseminate travel information in impartial, accurate, and apolitical manner.

- **Wahab (1995)**
  Conceptual study examines Egypt's terrorist attacks against tourists as "groups trying to revive classic Islamic societal rules to resist corruption of modernity." Author believes that conservative locals may feel they need to take drastic action to prevent what they perceive as a
threat to national culture, tradition, and religious beliefs—in extreme cases, resentment manifests itself in terrorism.

- **Bar-On (1996)**
  Travel and tourism trends are tracked in a complex examination of tourist activity in Egypt, Israel, Spain and Turkey in relation to terrorist attacks, wars, and drastic political problems.

- **Hall and O’Sullivan (1996)**
  Discussion of the link between tourism, political stability and violence. Authors provide an overview of dimensions of political instability (international wars, coups, terrorism, riots/political protests/social unrest, strikes) and focus on the effects of political unrest on the tourism industries of China and Croatia. A list of nations experiencing political instability/violence is included.

- **Lea (1996)**
  Examination of tourism development in South Pacific island states. Authors explain that “failure” on part of tourist developers to design, locate and manage projects in a way to ensure community support will ultimately lead to community opposition and likely “violence” and adds that local frustration with the industry can ultimately lead to opposition followed by violent action.

- **Mihalic (1996)**
  Case study of the impact of war on tourism is Slovenia. Yugoslavia’s tourism activity halted abruptly due to Balkan war (Slovenia, Croatia, Bosnia-Herzegovina). The Yugoslav army attacked Slovenia in June 1991 war in Slovenia lasted only for 10 days before moving to Croatia in 1991 and Bosnia-Herzegovina in 1992; however, specialized tour operators for Yugoslavia lost over 1 million booked tourist in 1991.

- **Pitts (1996)**
  Case study of the Ejercito Zapatista de Liberacion Nacional (EZLN)’s armed rebellion against Mexican government in reaction to NAFTA. Author conducted 27 interviews in 2 stages with hotel owners, government tourism officials, tourism vendors, and tourism minister. San Cristobal in Chiapas (held by Zapatistas) experienced sharp declines in international/domestic tourism.
Author found the emergence of two new tourist types in San Cristobal: "conflict or war tourist" (interested in the action) and journalists, researchers, and human rights activists. Chiapas was transformed from ethnic tourism product to one offering experience of conflict and "thrill of political violence".

- **Smith (1996)**

  Conceptual study of the link between tourism and war. The author compares the two as having social processes inseparable from underlying cultural threads (group values, sanctions, beliefs, behaviours). Social involvement of war separates it from violent crime, war leaves heritage to become permanent tourism marker, war gives special meaning/memory to places/events linking warfare to tourism, and memorabilia constitutes large category of attractions around world (e.g.; battlefields, cemeteries, memorials/monuments, military museums, historical re-enactments).

- **Sonmez and Graefe (1996)**

  Empirical study of the relationship between 10 types of risk and overall risk perceptions of US international tourists and the degree of risk associated with 8 geographic regions and top 7 holiday destinations. Results indicate that terrorism, equipment, political instability, and satisfaction risks are most often associated with international travel by American tourists. Equipment, political instability, satisfaction, and physical risks were found to be associated with different geographic regions and specific destinations were associated with equipment, terrorism, and financial risks.

- **Walhab (1996)**

  In a discussion of Egypt’s retaliation to terrorism the author explains that Egyptian police force adopted counter-terrorism measures based on tight anti-criminal actions to protect country and tourism. Police measures changed from defensive to preventive and reactive to proactive, with a multifaceted strategy implemented by Egyptian tourism minister to handle crisis. Author concludes that the only way to overcome poor image projection is vigorous promotions to provide wide exposure to capture international media’s attention. Recommendations to create positive publicity include initiating special events, providing complete information to international travel professionals and press, and keeping tourists in safe areas.
• **Wall (1996)**

Author compares Northern Ireland to Republic of Ireland in terms of tourist numbers, origins of visitors, tourism revenues by country of origin and main travel purpose. Northern Ireland was found to have fewer visitors than the Republic of Ireland, who spent less money because travellers came mostly to visit friends/relatives. Paper concludes that visitors to Northern Ireland were quite aware of terrorist activity and felt less threatened by it because they understood its underlying reasons.

• **Sonmez and Graefe (1998)**

Empirical study of relationships between key stages of international vacation decision-making process and threat of terrorism international tourism experience, risk perception level, international attitude, age, gender, education, income, and presence of children in household. A mail survey sent to 500 international tourists achieved a 48% response rate. Data were analysed using multiple and simple regression. International tourism attitude, risk perception level, and income were found to directly influence international destination choice but tourism experience and education emerged as indirect influences.
Appendix 3. Examples of destinations that have experienced terrorism and political instability

Sonmez and Graefe (1998) put together a list of destinations that have dealt with terrorism and tourism. Although the list is not exhaustive, it does give insight into the various problems that have been experienced by a variety of destinations.

FIJI: Two military coups occurred in Fiji in 1987 (May 14 and September 28), following the election of a mainly non-Fijian government. Sensational media coverage was followed by travel advisories issued by Australia and New Zealand. The first coup was followed by a hijack attempt of an Air New Zealand Boeing 747 at Fiji’s Nadi Airport (Hall and O’Sullivan 1996; Lea 1996; Scott 1996).

GAMBIA: This small West African developing country, enjoying political stability following its independence from Britain in 1965. In the summer of 1994, a bloodless coup occurred. The Travel Advice Unit of the British Foreign and Commonwealth Office (FCO) issued several subsequent and stringent travel warnings against The Gambia. As a result, first British then Scandinavian tour operators pulled out, virtually crippling the country’s tourism industry. Arrivals fell from 5,000 to 300; over 2,000 jobs directly and indirectly linked to tourism were lost; eight hotels closed; and the country’s economic and social conditions quickly deteriorated (Sharpley and Sharphey 1995).

ISRAEL: Since its establishment in 1948, both Israelis and Palestinians living in the occupied territories have experienced continuous turmoil. In 1987, the Palestinian uprising (Intifada) intensified and the Islamic Resistance Movement (Hamas) formed from the Palestinian branch of the Muslim Brotherhood to establish and Islamic Palestinian state in place of Israel (US Department of State 1996). Attacks initiated by both Israelis and Palestinians have resulted in heavy death tolls and casualties. Tourist arrivals between 1970 and 1994 have climbed steadily with sharp declines in numbers after negative events (Bar-On, 1996).

years after the ten-day war, the figures for Slovenian tourism were still far behind the pre-war figures. The number of total nights in 1993 was 32% lower than in 1990”(Mihalic, 1990:237).

SPAIN: The Basque Fatherland and Liberty (ETA) was founded in 1959 to create an independent homeland in Spain’s Basque region (US Department of State 1996). Politicians and members of the military and government have been traditional targets; however, ETA specifically targeted Spain’s tourism industry between 1984 and 1987. Tourist hotels and travel agencies were bombed. Over 200 letters were mailed by ETA to foreign embassies, travel agencies and foreign media in Spain stating intentions to terrorise tourists (Enders and Sandler 1991). ETA’s 1996 “summer campaign” included six bombing attacks in early July. At Reus Airport near Barcelona, 35 were injured and hotels along Spain’s Costa Dorada were bombed. Downward trends in tourism activity have been recorded (Bar-On 1996). Bombings also occurred in the summer of 2001.

TIBET: Nationalist unrest that began in 1987 was punctuated by the declaration of martial law in March 1989. In 1990 three foreigners were shot at and one was killed in Kathmandu, as they tried to photograph pro-democracy demonstrations. Tibet’s tourism industry suffered a serious blow as a result. In 1988, 22,000 visitors were recorded, but in the first six months of 1989, 1092 tourist arrived in Tibet (down from 5,000 visitors during the same period in 1988). Only 3.1% of the visitation projected by the government was recorded and a loss of 4.52 million Yuan reported by tourism businesses (Schwartz1991).

TURKEY: The Kurdistan Worker’s Party (PKK), a Marxist-Leninist insurgent group interested in establishing an independent Marxist state in south-eastern Turkey, was established in 1974 (US Department of State 1996). PKK primarily targeted Turkish government forces and civilians until recently. Since 1993, PKK has become more active in Western Europe against Turkish targets and has specifically targeted Turkey’s tourism industry since 1991. The PKK has emulated ETA’s letter campaign warning foreign companies against sending tourists to Turkey, bombed tourist sites and hotels, and kidnapped foreign tourists. Foreign visitor arrivals dropped 8% from 1992-1993 (Bar-On 1996). After a self-imposed cease fire by the PKK, international arrivals reached record levels (9.5 million) in 1996.
ZAMBIA and ZIMBABWE: Zimbabwe’s (previously South Rhodesia) Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) in 1965 was followed by a 15 year liberation war that lasted until 1980. As a result, tourism to the immediate area (including neighbouring Zambia) was seriously impeded. Teye (1986) compared Kenya’s tourist arrivals, which increased from 250,400 in 1964-1966 to 3,524,000 in 1970-78 to Zambia’s arrivals that only increased incrementally from 429,700 to 466,800 for the same period. During the 1967-69 period, Zambia was unable to record and tourist arrivals because of the war.
Appendix 4. Index of Dangerous Places 1999

The following list details those countries that are experiencing problems due to terrorism, political instability or lack of safety. This table was correct as of 1999, obviously the list is subject to significant change. However, it does provide an indication of the kind of problems being experienced by various countries around the world.

Source: Nielsen 2001

**A**

**Afghanistan:** War against Russia (1979-89) followed by civil fighting between warring factions such as Tajik and Pahtun fundamentalists; the strict Islamic Taliban leadership work to stabilise the country, but face harsh human rights criticism. Taliban regime removed in 2002.

**Algeria:** Muslim fundamentals (FIS) target Westerners after 1992 election loss.

**Albania:** Civil unrest after government endorsed pyramid plan collapsed.

**Angola:** Civil war between UNITA and MPLA over diamond and oil rights, hijackings; Landmines.

**Argentina:** border feuds with Chile and Paraguay.

**Armenia:** energy and sovereignty disputes in Nagorno-Karabakh.

**B**

**Bangladesh:** natural dangers (flooding); economic pressure; rebels (Shanti Bahini)

**Bolivia:** drugs, poverty, terrorist (CNPZ) activity focus on US citizens

**Bosnia-Herzegovina:** complex ethnic civil war and border dispute in the Balkans.
Burundi: conflict between minority Tutsis and majority Hutus (CNDD); poverty.

Brazil: violent and non-violent crime in major cities.

Cambodia: drugs, violent crime, terrorists (FARC, ELN, DFC, EPL/D); poverty.

China: poor human rights, communists shadow, Tibet question.

Chechnya: independence rebels fighting Russian troops; kidnapping; crime.

Cyprus: dispute over territory between Turkish and Greek Cypriots (UN border control.)

Dem Rep.of Congo: civil ethnic unrest; political disruption.

Ecuador: border dispute between Peru and Ecuador over land repatriation.

El Salvador: increased crime following 10 year civil war; focus (not exclusively) on US citizens.

Egypt: isolated Muslim fundamentalist attack on tourism.

Eritrea: border dispute (strategic positioning for Red Sea access) with Ethiopia, bombings.
Georgia: corruption, small rebel groups after difficult separation from Russia.

Guatemala: crime against tourists; clashes between wealthy ‘Mistos’ and poor Indians.

Haiti: US - backed action to reinstate ex-president; corruption; instability.

India: (1) terrorism in Kashmir (JKLF, Hizbul Mujahedin, ULFA, APHC; others).
India: (2) corruption; travel difficulty; tourist scams.

Indonesia: Dispute over East Timor; economic hardship; political strife.

Iran: Muslim fundamentalism; ethnic mistreatment; limited tourist contact.

Iraq: economic hardships; disputes with UN; political dictatorship.

Israel: land-rights disputes with PLO; border disputes; souring peace agreement.

Kenya: crime; dissident groups; unstable political outlook.
Laos: border dispute with Thailand; economic imbalance.

Lebanon: (1) north (safe), rebuilding after war.
Lebanon: (2) south (unsafe), home of Hezbollah.

Liberia: prolonged civil war; limited international access; unruly outlook.

Malaysia: generally orderly; pirates in surrounding seas; mild political unrest.

Mexico: (1) restricted threat of possible harm in Chiapas region.
Mexico: (2) Mexico City at night (some danger in taxis, bus travelling).

Morocco: difficult for female travellers; petty crime; scam/hustling.

Mozambique: night travel dangerous; carjacking; landmines.

Myanmar: (Burma) human rights offences; political oppression; tourism boycott.

Nigeria: violent crime, theft (especially between airport and Lagos).

North Korea: not presently open to tourism.

Northern Ireland: peace moves; limited terrorist activity.
Pakistan: terrorism is Karachi; border dispute with India; scams; shootings; anti-US sentiment.

Philippines: fighting on scattered islands – Muslims vs Christians, government vs communists.

Peru: (1) Shining Path Rebels previously focused terrorism on tourists.  
Peru: (2) resort areas (Arequipa, Cuzco, Ica) not dangerous bar theft and robbery.

Russia: unpredictable; corrupt; difficult to enter; political & economic hardship.

Rwanda: genocide; infrastructure fractured; unstable politically (RPF, Augustin Bizimugu)

Senegal: fighting between separatists and government; instability; landmines.

Sierra Leone: civil war; govt with mercenary support (Executive Outcomes) and RUF.

Somalia: civil and religious unrest (north vs south); no central government; poverty.

Spain: ETA separatist group terrorist activities in northern Spain.

Sri Lanka: Tamil Tiger rebel groups in north infrequent terrorism in South.

Sudan: 20-year ongoing war, Christian vs Muslim; instability; poverty esp. in Khartoum

South Africa: violent crime (very dangerous for a non-war zone)
Tanzania: armed robbery; carjacking; drugging tourists; unsafe travel after dark.

Turkey (1): east and south-east – PKK.
Turkey (2): west coast – mostly terrorism free.

Uganda: past civil unrest now overshadowed by its neighbours, which might flow over.

United States: violent crime possible in cities; petty crime common, many gun owners.

Yemen: abduction of tourists at gunpoint; landmines (tourists killed December 1998).
Appendix 5. Research Questionnaire

University of Surrey

A Survey of the Decision Making Process of Tourists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire Number:</th>
<th>Sampling Area:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ID Number:</td>
<td>Valid:</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Section A: Holiday Destination Decision Making

Please answer the following questions by marking with a cross as shown:

Q1. Have you ever been on holiday to a foreign destination?
   Yes ☐ Go to Q2.  No ☐ Go to Q7.

Q2. Which of the following types of holiday do you prefer. Please place a cross in the appropriate box.

| Full package tour (i.e. flights, accommodation and tours organised by a tour operator) |
| Semi-package tour (i.e. holiday organised by both yourself and a tour operator) |
| Totally independent (i.e. flights, accommodation and tours organised by yourself only) |

Q3. Who do you normally go on holiday with?
   ☐ Alone  ➡ Go to Q5  ☐ Partner / Family ➡ Go to Q4  ☐ Friend/s  ➡ Go to Q4

Q4. Who normally decides which destination to visit on holiday?
   ☐ Usually, I do.  ☐ It’s usually a joint decision with others.

Q5. Please read the five statements below, which examine the different sources of information that you could use when deciding on where to go on holiday. Please rate the statements by placing a cross in the appropriate box.

I take advice from travel agents on where to go on holiday
I am influenced by TV holiday programmes on where to go on holiday
Advertising (magazines, billboards, television) influence where I go on holiday
I tend to visit destinations that have been recommended by family or friends
I tend to go to places I know little about
Q6. Consider the following factors. How important are they to you in deciding the location of your holiday? Please rate the importance by placing a cross in the appropriate box.

1 = Very Important  2 = Important  3 = Neither Important or Unimportant  4 = Not Important  5 = Not at all important

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Courtesy of the local people</td>
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<td>Climate at the destination</td>
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<td>Scenery at the destination</td>
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<td>Relaxation</td>
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<td>Sports Activities</td>
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<td>Shopping facilities</td>
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<td>Price/Value for Money</td>
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<td>Safety</td>
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<td>Entertainment</td>
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<td>Attractions to Visit</td>
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</table>

Q7. On average, how often do you read a newspaper?

- Every day
- Most days
- Once in a while
- Very rarely / never

Q8. Which of the following newspapers do you most often read?

- Sun/Mirror/Star
- Mail/Express
- Times, Guardian etc
- Local paper

Q9. On average, how often do you watch the National News on television?

- Every day
- Most days
- Once in a while
- Very rarely / never

Q10. The following question relates to your perception of the news you receive. Please rate the three statements below by placing a cross in the appropriate box.

1 = Strongly agree  2 = Agree  3 = Neither agree or disagree  4 = Disagree  5 = Strongly disagree

- On the whole I believe what I read in newspapers is factual and unbiased.
- On the whole I believe that television news is factual and unbiased.
- I tend to form my attitudes towards the world from the news I receive.
**Section B: Risk Evaluation**

The following questions look at issues of safety and risk when choosing a holiday destination. Please answer the following questions by marking with a cross as shown.

Q11. Consider the following list of holiday destinations. How safe or unsafe do you perceive them to be. Please rate them by placing a cross in the appropriate box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination</th>
<th>1 = Very Safe</th>
<th>2 = Safe</th>
<th>3 = Neither Safe or Unsafe</th>
<th>4 = Unsafe</th>
<th>5 = Very Unsafe</th>
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<td>Kenya</td>
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<td>Egypt</td>
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<td>U.S.A.</td>
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<td>Finland</td>
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<td>Libya</td>
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<td>Sri Lanka</td>
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</table>

Q12. The following statements examine health and safety issues, please rate the statements by placing a cross in the appropriate box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1 = Strongly Agree</th>
<th>2 = Agree</th>
<th>3 = Neither agree or disagree</th>
<th>4 = Disagree</th>
<th>5 = Strongly Disagree</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People should always use a seatbelt when travelling in a car</td>
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<tr>
<td>He should use a helmet when riding a bicycle</td>
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<td>Flying is dangerous</td>
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<td>Traveling by trains is risky</td>
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<td>Bathing without sunscreen is a risky activity</td>
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<tr>
<td>eg meat is risky these days</td>
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</table>
**Q13. When deciding to go on holiday, how important do you consider the following aspects? Please rate the following statements by placing a cross in the appropriate box.**

1 = Very Important  
2 = Important  
3 = Neither Important or Unimportant  
4 = Not Important  
5 = Not at all Important

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Financial Aspects</th>
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<th>2</th>
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<tr>
<td>Value for Money</td>
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<th>Physical Aspects</th>
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<td>Risk of Terrorism</td>
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<td>Risk of Disease</td>
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<td>Risk of Criminal Acts</td>
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<tr>
<td>Risk of Accidents</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Aspects</th>
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<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<th>5</th>
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<tr>
<td>What other people will think of your holiday</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Performance Aspects</th>
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<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How your holiday will perform – (delays, satisfaction etc.)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Q14. Have you visited a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity?**

Yes □ Go to Q15.  
No □ Go to Q16.

**Q15. What was the purpose for your visit?**

- [ ] Holiday/Leisure  
- [ ] Visit friends or family  
- [ ] Business  

**Q16. Would you ever consider visiting a destination that has been subject to terrorist activity in the past ten years? Please put a cross in the relevant box.**

Yes □ Go to Q16.  
No □ Go to Q17.

**Q17. How long following a terrorist incident would you consider visiting a destination?**

- [ ] Straight away  
- [ ] Less than a year  
- [ ] 1 to 2 years  
- [ ] 2 to 3 years  
- [ ] 3 to 4 years  
- [ ] Over 5 years
Q18. Please place a cross next to any of the following destinations that in your opinion have experienced terrorist activity in the last ten years?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Destination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td></td>
<td>Northern Ireland</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
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<td>Australia</td>
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<td>Denmark</td>
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<td>Thailand</td>
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<td>Sri Lanka</td>
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<td>Finland</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Q19. Please place a cross next to any of the following destinations that in your opinion have experienced terrorist activity where tourists have been targeted or harmed in the last ten years?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Destination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td></td>
<td>Northern Ireland</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
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<td>Australia</td>
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<td>Thailand</td>
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<td>Peru</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
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<td>Finland</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q20. Please look at the following statements that refer to terrorist activity at tourist destinations. Please rate the statements by placing a cross in the appropriate box.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I believe media images tend to exaggerate the actual risk involved</td>
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<tr>
<td>I am frightened by the possibility of terrorism while on holiday</td>
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<tr>
<td>Adverse media reports of destinations experiencing terrorist activity put me off</td>
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<tr>
<td>Previous experience has taught me that the risk is very low</td>
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<tr>
<td>Young or elderly people should not be exposed to those risks</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Section C: Your Characteristics

In this section, please answer some questions about yourself by marking the boxes with a cross as shown [X] or writing your answers in the spaces provided. Please complete all questions. The information will be held in strict confidence and used for research purposes only.

Q21. You are: Male □ Female □

Q22. Which age group are you in?

□ 24 or under □ 25-34 □ 35-44 □ 45-54 □ 55-64 □ 65 or over.

Q23. What is your marital status?

□ Single □ Married/ with partner □ Widowed □ Divorced/ Separated □ Other

Q24. Do you have any children living with you?

Yes. □ ➔ go to Q24

No. □ ➔ go to Q25

Q25. How many children do you have living with you in the following age ranges?

Under 6 yrs □ 6-17 yrs □ 18 yrs and above □

Q26. What is your occupation?

Your occupation: ____________________________

(If you are retired, please specify your occupation before retirement)

Q27. What was the last level you completed in your formal education?

□ Secondary school to age 16 and under □ Secondary school / College to 17/18

□ University/ College graduate □ University/ College postgraduate

336
Thank you for your co-operation in completing this questionnaire.

Please return the questionnaire in the pre-paid freepost envelope which has been provided.
Are government and media responses to terrorism exaggerating the danger?

MICK HUME is so right ("Organised paranoia of West blows threat posed by al Qaeda out of all proportion", Comment, May 19). But what is even worse is the way in which any threat in less economically developed countries is treated as far riskier for our residents than a threat among our "allies".

In the summer of 2001 the Tamil Tigers attacked the only international airport in Sri Lanka, leading to Foreign and Commonwealth Office advice to avoid travel to that country - further ruining its already parlous economic circumstances. At the same time, Eta was explicitly targeting tourists - something the Tamil Tigers have never done.

Were British citizens advised to avoid travelling to Spain? Of course not. The diplomatic repercussions would have been far too serious.

Our Government has one rule for the less developed world - run away at the slightest sign of trouble - and another for the more developed world.