Risiko und Tourismus

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Einfluss der Risiko(wahrnehmung) auf den Destinationswahlprozess

Dissertation

zur Erlangung des akademischen Doktorgrades der Philosophie

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Inhalt

Abbildungsverzeichnis

Tabellenverzeichnis

Zusammenfassung

Das Thema Risiko gewinnt insbesondere seit den Terroranschlägen des 11. Septembers 2001 und den aktuellen, terroristischen Entwicklungen in Europa zunehmend an Bedeutung, sowohl für die Tourismuswirtschaft als auch für die Tourismuswissenschaft. Sicherheit ist eine Grundvoraussetzung für die touristische Entwicklung in einem Land und für Touristen ein wesentlicher Faktor bei der Entscheidung, welche Destinationen für zukünftige Reisen in Betracht gezogenen werden. Die Destinationswahl basiert jedoch nicht auf objektiven Risikoeinschätzungen, sondern auf subjektiven, individuell unterschiedlichen Wahrnehmungen der jeweiligen Risikosituationen. Da die Risikowahrnehmung je nach touristen- und destinationsbezogenen Faktoren unterschiedlich ausfällt und die Destinationswahl aus einem Aushandlungsprozess zwischen den Bedürfnissen und Wünschen des Touristen und dem Angebot der Destination hervorgeht, ist diese Thematik besonders für die geographische Tourismusforschung interessant.

Das wechselseitige Zusammenspiel zwischen Tourist und Destination in der Destinationswahl, bei dem Risikowahrnehmung als Filter wirkt, wird jedoch in der Forschung bisher vernachlässigt. In der Tourismusforschung wird die Thematik aus zwei Perspektiven analysiert: Einerseits finden Untersuchungen auf der individuellen Ebene statt, bei denen der Fokus auf die subjektive Wahrnehmung von Risiken und somit auf den Touristen gelegt wird. Dieser Forschungsbereich trägt zu einem besseren Verständnis des Destinationswahlprozesses und dessen Einflussfaktoren bei. Andererseits stützt sich die zweite Forschungsrichtung auf durch Risiko ausgelöste Veränderungen in Touristenströmen und stellt dabei die Destination selbst in den Vordergrund. Wichtige Erkenntnisse zu den räumlichen Auswirkungen von Risiko stammen aus diesem Forschungsbereich. Der einseitige Fokus in der Forschung auf den Touristen oder die Destination verhindert jedoch, dass der Einfluss von Risiko und Risikowahrnehmung auf die Destinationswahl in ihrer Gesamtheit erfasst werden kann.

Aus diesem Grund wird in der vorliegenden Dissertation ein methodischer Ansatz gewählt, der beide Forschungsrichtungen verbindet und somit sowohl die Eigenschaften der Destination sowie des Touristen, als auch die subjektive Wahrnehmung von Risiko an der Schnittstelle zwischen diesen beiden Aspekten berücksichtigt. Ziel ist es einerseits zu verstehen, wie und zu welchem Zeitpunkt im Destinationswahlprozess Risikowahrnehmung die individuelle Destinationswahl beeinflusst und andererseits, welche Einflussfaktoren wirken und welche zeitlichen Abhängigkeiten beim Zusammenspiel zwischen Risiko und Touristenströmen auftreten können. Das heißt, die Destinationswahl wird sowohl als Prozess, bei dem Risiko auf verschiedenen Stufen Einfluss nehmen kann, als auch als Ergebnis, bei dem neben Risiko andere Einflussfaktoren eine Rolle spielen, erforscht. Dazu werden sowohl individuelle Entscheidungen (empirische Erhebungen in München zu Destinationswahlprozessen deutscher Touristen) als auch aggregierte Ergebnisse von Entscheidungen (Zeitreihenanalysen von Sekundärdaten zu Touristenankünften) analysiert. Dabei werden zunächst Destinationswahlprozesse deutscher Touristen allgemein und im Kontext von Risiko untersucht, bevor die Destination Israel als Fallbeispiel einer als risikoreich wahrgenommenen Destination näher betrachtet wird.

Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass Risikowahrnehmung auf verschiedenen Stufen des Destinationswahlprozesses eine Rolle spielt. Je nach Risikoaffinität der Touristen wird die Sicherheitslage in der Destination unterschiedlich wahrgenommen, andere Risikokategorien

rücken bei der Entscheidung in den Vordergrund und als Folge verlassen Destinationen mit bestimmtem Risikolevel zu bestimmten Zeitpunkten den Destinationswahlprozess. Dabei nehmen die Unterschiede zwischen Touristen verschiedener Risikoaffinität hinsichtlich der in Betracht gezogenen Destinationen von Beginn des Destinationswahlprozesses bis zur tatsächlichen Auswahl einer Destination ab. In vielen Fällen erwägen Touristen Destinationen mit höherem Risiko in der frühen Entscheidungsphase, die finale Reisezielentscheidung fällt jedoch vorwiegend zwischen Destinationen mit einem geringen Risikolevel. Neben den Veränderungen im Destinationswahlprozess haben die Ergebnisse der vorliegenden Dissertation deutlich gemacht, dass eine Diskrepanz zwischen der Selbsteinschätzung von Reise- und Risikoverhalten und dem tatsächlichen Reiseverhalten existiert, welche sich im Laufe des Lebens verändern kann. Beispielsweise besuchen Touristen mit steigender Reiseerfahrung zunehmend risikoreiche Reiseziele (Fallbeispiel Israel) oder schließen zeitlich begrenzt, aufgrund der aktuellen Lebensumstände (z.B. Familienphase mit Kleinkindern), bestimmte Destinationen als potentielle Reiseziele aus. Die Zeitreihenanalyse des Zusammenhangs zwischen Terrorismus und Tourismus am Beispiel Israel zeigt darüber hinaus, wie sich veränderte Risikobedingungen in der Destination auf die Touristenströme auswirken. Der Risikoeinfluss ist nicht nur direkt nach einem sicherheitsrelevanten Ereignis messbar, sondern auch nach einer zeitlichen Verzögerung von bis zu einem halben Jahr noch sichtbar. Insgesamt verdeutlichen die Ergebnisse der vorliegenden Dissertation, dass die Destinationswahl im Kontext von Risiko nicht als eine statische Entscheidung, sondern als dynamischer Prozess betrachtet werden muss, bei dem interne und externe Einflussfaktoren im Sinne eines komplexen Tourismussystems eine Rolle spielen.

1 Einführung: Risiko und Sicherheit im Tourismus

1.1 Bedeutung von Risiko und Sicherheit im Tourismus

Das Thema Sicherheit gewinnt für den Tourismus insbesondere seit den Terroranschlägen des 11. Septembers 2001, die den Tourismus weltweit beeinflussten, immer mehr an Bedeutung. Sicherheit und politische Stabilität sind Grundvoraussetzungen für die touristische Entwicklung in einem Land (Cavlek, 2002; Sonnenberg & Wöhler, 2004; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005) und oftmals entscheidender für die Reiseentscheidung und Destinationswahl als das touristische Angebot (Richter & Waugh, 1986; Hall & O'Sullivan, 1996; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005). Ein wesentlicher Faktor in diesem Zusammenhang ist die Wahrnehmung der Situation durch den Touristen, da diese in den meisten Fällen Reiseentscheidungen und letztendlich resultierende Touristenströme stärker beeinflusst als die tatsächliche Situation vor Ort (Mansfeld, 1992; Mäser & Weiermair, 1998; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b; Fuchs & Reichel, 2004). In den nächsten Jahren ist aufgrund von einer Zunahme sicherheitsrelevanter Ereignisse mit starken Verschiebungen der Touristenströme innerhalb Europas zu rechnen (z.B. Stärkung des Binnentourismus). Die Thematik Sicherheit und Tourismus hat somit eine große gesellschaftliche Relevanz, die sich auch im gesteigerten Medieninteresse, in Deutschland speziell nach den Sicherheitsproblemen in beliebten Destinationen für den deutschen Quellmarkt (z.B. Ägypten oder Türkei) widerspiegelt. Die mediale Darstellung ist in diesem Zusammenhang besonders hervorzuheben (Cousins & Brunt, 2002), da die Wahrnehmung von Sicherheitsrisiken oftmals verzerrt ist und nicht den tatsächlichen Risiken, denen ein Tourist in der Destination ausgesetzt ist, entspricht (Fuchs & Reichel, 2006). Die wissenschaftliche Relevanz und steigende Bedeutung der Thematik für die Tourismusforschung (Kuschel & Schröder, 2002; Beirman, 2003; Mansfeld, 2006) wird durch die steigende Anzahl an Studien bestätigt, die sich mit dem Einfluss von Risiko und Sicherheit auf die touristische Entwicklung, sowohl auf globaler als auch auf Ebene einzelner Destinationen beschäftigen.

Da Touristen über eine große Auswahl an alternativen Reisezielen verfügen, gewinnt der Sicherheitsaspekt weiter an Bedeutung (Sönmez et al., 1999). Touristen können problemlos ein zunächst in Betracht gezogenes Reiseziel durch ein sicheres Substitutionsziel mit den gleichen Eigenschaften austauschen (Wall, 1996; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). Dadurch werden als unsicher oder risikoreich wahrgenommene Reiseziele schneller abgelehnt und Touristen bleiben in der betroffenen Destination aus. Destinationen, die nicht über starke Alleinstellungsmerkmale verfügen, wie manche Sommer-Sonne-Strand-Destinationen, sind besonders stark betroffen (Neumayer, 2004). Beispiele hierfür sind zahlreiche Mittelmeerdestinationen, die mit negativen Sicherheitsimages nach dem Arabischen Frühling konfrontiert sind (Avraham, 2015; Mansfeld & Winckler, 2015). Selbst wenn einzelne touristische Regionen eines politisch instabilen Landes selbst als sicher gelten, können die Ankunftszahlen rückläufig sein, da Touristen oftmals das ganze Land als unsicher einstufen und nicht zwischen einzelnen Regionen differenzieren. Diese Übertragung von Sicherheitswahrnehmung kann auch über Ländergrenzen hinweg passieren. Sogenannte Nachbarschafts- oder Generalisierungseffekte (Steiner et al., 2006) spielen insbesondere dann eine Rolle, wenn der Tourist mit der Destination wenig vertraut ist. Die empirischen Studien der vorliegenden Dissertation deuten beispielsweise darauf hin, dass kaum eine differenzierte Betrachtung einzelner Destinationen im Nahen Osten stattfindet und viele der

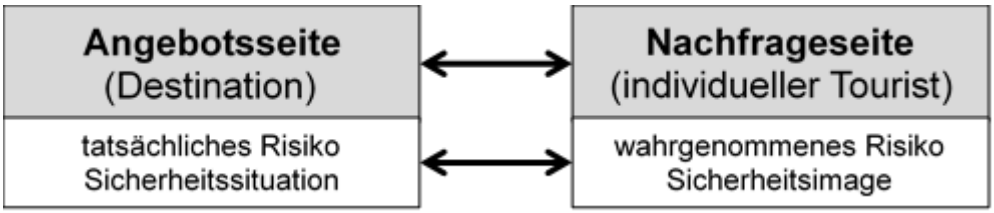
befragten Personen die Region Naher Osten oder sogar muslimisch geprägte Länder generell als risikoreiche Destinationen einschätzen (Eigene Erhebungen 2013-2015). Die besondere Bedeutung der Risiko- und Sicherheitsthematik für den Tourismus, sowohl auf Angebots- als auch auf Nachfrageseite, zeigt sich in einer großen Anzahl an Forschungsarbeiten aus verschiedenen Disziplinen (z.B. Geographie, Soziologie, Psychologie, Wirtschaftswissenschaften) mit entsprechenden methodischen Ansätzen. Dennoch lassen sich die unterschiedlichen Forschungsarbeiten zwei grundsätzlichen Herangehensweisen zuordnen (Kapitel 1.2).

1.2 Forschungsdefizite zu Risiko und Sicherheit im Tourismus

In der Forschung wird die Thematik Risiko und Sicherheit im Tourismus aus zwei Perspektiven mit ihren jeweiligen methodischen Herangehensweisen analysiert. Einerseits finden Untersuchungen auf der aggregierten Ebene statt, die sich mit Veränderungen in Touristenströmen, ausgelöst durch Risiko und Unsicherheit, beschäftigen (z.B. Enders et al., 1992; Buigut & Amendah, 2016). Die Ergebnisse dieser Studien beweisen einen klaren Zusammenhang zwischen tatsächlichem Risiko und touristischer Nachfrage in einer Destination. Der Zusammenhang wird dabei differenziert betrachtet und die Bedeutung einzelner Einflussfaktoren (z.B. Art des Risikos) aufgezeigt. Eine weitere wichtige Erkenntnis aus diesem Forschungsbereich ist die räumliche Auswirkung von Risiko auf Touristenströme (z.B. Nachbarschafts- und Substitutionseffekte; Drakos & Kutan, 2003; Steiner et al., 2006). Im Gegensatz zur aggregierten Ebene und makroperspektivischen Betrachtung stützt sich die zweite mikroperspektivische Forschungsrichtung auf die subjektive Wahrnehmung von Risiken sowie die daraus folgende Reaktion von Touristen bei der Destinationswahl (z.B. Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a; Lepp & Gibson, 2008). Hier werden Touristen und deren Verhalten auf der Individualebene analysiert, um Reiseentscheidungsprozesse zu verstehen sowie Einflussfaktoren (z.B. Soziodemographie) auf diese zu identifizieren. Die verschiedenen Forschungsrichtungen und Widersprüche in bisherigen Forschungsergebnissen, v.a. in Bezug auf empirische Untersuchungen auf der Mikroebene, werden in der vorliegenden Dissertation im Rahmen einer Analyse und Synthese der Literatur zum Thema Risiko(wahrnehmung) und Destinationswahl (Karl & Schmude, 2017) ausführlich dargestellt und diskutiert.

Grundsätzlich ist es schwierig, den Einfluss von Risiko auf den Tourismus zu verallgemeinern und die Entwicklung für eine Destination zu prognostizieren. Touristenströme beruhen auf kollektiven komplexen Einzelentscheidungen von Individuen bezüglich des Reiseziels. Diese individuellen Entscheidungen gehen aus einem Abwägungsprozess von Vor- und Nachteilen der Eigenschaften einer Destination und den subjektiven Wahrnehmungen dieser Eigenschaften hervor (Abbildung 1).

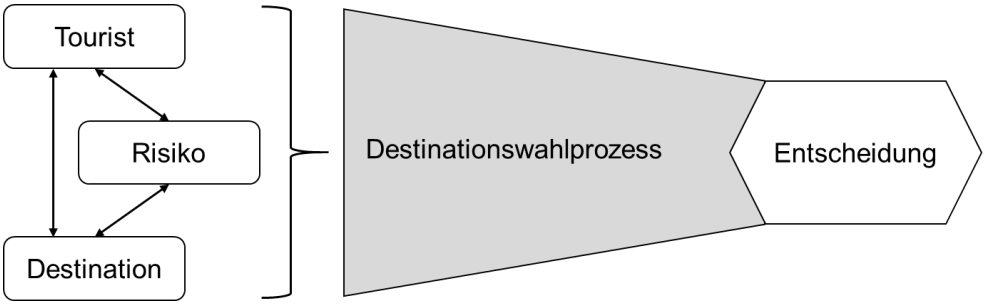
Abbildung 1. Quell-Zielland-Problematik des Tourismus im Kontext von Risiko



Quelle: Eigene Darstellung

Die Destinationswahl ist somit ein Aushandlungsprozess zwischen den Bedürfnissen und Wünschen des Touristen und dem Angebot der Destination (Bekk et al., 2016). Die komplexe Interaktion zwischen diesen beiden Faktoren wird in vielen Studien, die sich auf den Touristen oder die Destination konzentrieren, vernachlässigt. Der fehlende geographische Blickwinkel in der Tourismusforschung (Reintinger, 2016) ist eine Herausforderung für zukünftige Forschungsarbeiten. In der bisherigen Forschung existiert eine Vielzahl an Studien, die sich mit verschiedenen Quellmärkten oder Destinationen beschäftigen und folglich können Einflussfaktoren dieses Wirkungsgefüges nicht differenziert betrachtet werden. Eine stärkere Integration der geographischen Perspektive in die Destinationswahlforschung kann dazu beitragen, den komplexen Destinationswahlprozess in Bezug auf Risiko und Sicherheit besser zu verstehen. Die Komplexität der Destinationswahl erfordert einen methodischen Ansatz zur Untersuchung von Destinationswahl in Bezug auf Risiko, der sowohl die Eigenschaften der Destination und des Touristen, als auch die subjektive Wahrnehmung von Risiko durch den Touristen an der Schnittstelle zwischen diesen beiden Aspekten berücksichtigt (Abbildung 2).

Abbildung 2. Wechselwirkung zwischen Touristen- und Destinationseigenschaften als Einflussfaktoren des Destinationswahlprozesses im Kontext von Risiko



Quelle: Eigene Darstellung

1.3 Konzeptionelle Grundlagen der Dissertation

Um die zuvor dargestellten Forschungslücken zu schließen, ist das Ziel der vorliegenden Dissertation, die Bedeutung von Risiko und Sicherheit im Tourismus und die Funktion der Risikowahrnehmung bei der Destinationswahl zu untersuchen. Insbesondere das Zusammenspiel zwischen Tourist und Destination wird in den Vordergrund der Arbeit gestellt (Abbildung 2). Die zentralen Fragestellungen dieser Dissertation sind, inwiefern Risiko und Risikowahrnehmung die Destinationswahlprozesse deutscher Touristen auf verschiedenen Ebenen beeinflussen und welche Auswirkung Risiko und Sicherheit auf die Reiseentscheidung haben (hier: Fallbeispiel Israel).

Um diese Forschungsfragen zu beantworten und ein besseres Verständnis des komplexen Wirkungsgefüges der Destinationswahl zu erhalten, werden Mikroebene (individuelle Einzelentscheidung) und Makroebene (aggregierte Ergebnisse von Entscheidungen) in der Untersuchung kombiniert. Einerseits wird die Thematik aus der Perspektive des Touristen auf der Mikroebene betrachtet. Dabei wird die individuelle Destinationswahl unter dem Einfluss von subjektiver Risikowahrnehmung analysiert, um den Destinationswahlprozess generell und speziell in Bezug auf den Einfluss von Risiko besser zu verstehen. Diese mikroperspektivische Betrachtung erlaubt es, tiefergehende, verdeckt ablaufende Prozesse der Destinationswahl offenzulegen. Einflussfaktoren der Destinationswahl, die von der Persönlichkeit des Touristen

und dessen Wahrnehmung von Destinationen abhängen, können mit diesem Ansatz erforscht werden. Dies trägt zu einem besseren Verständnis des Zusammenspiels von Touristenpräferenzen und Destinationseigenschaften im Destinationswahlprozess bei. Um die Auswirkungen dieser individuellen Einzelentscheidungen auf die touristische Entwicklung von Destinationen oder auf Touristenströme aufzuzeigen, wird die Thematik in der vorliegenden Dissertation zudem auf der Makroebene bearbeitet. Hierbei werden tatsächliche Reisezielentscheidungen, bei denen alle Hemmnisse und Motive ausgehandelt wurden, in den Fokus der Forschung gerückt. Das heißt, die Resultate von aggregierten Reiseentscheidungen werden in Form von Touristenströmen untersucht. Ziel ist es, kausale Zusammenhänge zwischen Tourismus und Risiko zu erfassen und zu verstehen. Vor allem Terrorismus wird als ein starker Einflussfaktor der Destinationswahl und für die Destination Israel relevante Risikokategorie genauer analysiert. Dadurch können tatsächliche Reisezielentscheidungen mithilfe von Erkenntnissen aus Untersuchungen auf der Individualebene nachvollzogen werden.

Im Zuge der Dissertation werden unterschiedliche Methoden angewendet, um den jeweiligen Fragestellungen gerecht zu werden und eine ganzheitliche Betrachtung des Untersuchungsgegenstandes zu ermöglichen. Die unterschiedlichen methodischen Ansätze aus der geographischen Tourismusforschung, von qualitativ orientierten Leitfadeninterviews zu quantitativen Passantenbefragungen, sowie Sekundär- und Primärdatenauswertungen dienen dazu, Entscheidungen auf der Individualebene nachzuvollziehen und zu erklären. Tabelle 1 gibt einen Überblick über die verschiedenen Datenquellen und methodischen Ansätze, die in diese Dissertation eingeflossen sind.

Tabelle 1. Methodische Ansätze der Dissertation.

Methodik	Zeitpunkt	Beschreibung
Literaturanalyse	1990 bis 2015	Einfluss von Risiko und Sicherheit auf die Destinationswahl Analyse der bestehenden Literatur zu den Themen Risiko, Risikowahrnehmung, Reiseentscheidung und Destinationswahl
Primärdatenanalyse		
Passentenbefragung	05/2013	Befragung mit standardisierten Fragebögen in München zum Thema Destinationswahlprozesse (n = 621)
	07/2013	Pretest für Studien 10/2013 und 04/2016 Befragung mit standardisierten Fragebögen in München zu den Themen Destinationswahlprozesse, Risikowahrnehmung mit Fokus auf die Destination Israel (n = 105)
	10/2013	Befragung mit standardisierten Fragebögen in München zu den Themen Destinationswahlprozesse, Risikowahrnehmung mit Fokus auf die Bewertung von Risikokategorien (n = 835)
	06/2014	Befragung mit standardisierten Fragebögen in München zu den Themen Destinationswahlprozesse, Risikowahrnehmung mit besonderem Fokus auf die Bewertung von Risiko und Unsicherheit im Reiseentscheidungsprozess (n = 402)
	10/2015	Vergleichsstudie zu Studien 10/2013 und 06/2014 Befragung mit standardisierten Fragebögen in München zu den Themen Destinationswahlprozesse, Risikowahrnehmung mit besonderem Fokus auf die Bewertung von Risiko und Unsicherheit im Reiseentscheidungsprozess (n = 262)
	04/2016	Befragung mit standardisierten Fragebögen in München zu den Themen Destinationswahlprozesse, Risiko- und Sicherheitswahrnehmung mit Fokus auf die Destination Israel (n = 429)
Leitfadeninterview	04/2013 bis 06/2013	Leitfadengestützte Interviews mit Vertretern aus verschiedenen Bereichen der Tourismusbranche und verschiedenen touristischen Regionen in Israel zum Einfluss von Risiko und Sicherheit auf die touristische Entwicklung der Marktsegmente und Regionen in Israel
	07/2013	Semistrukturierte Leitfadeninterviews in Reisebüros in München zum Einfluss von Risiko und Sicherheit auf die Reiseentscheidung deutscher Touristen mit besonderem Fokus auf die Destination Israel
Gruppendiskussion	07/2013	Gruppendiskussionen bei deutschen Reiseveranstaltern (Studiosus, Bayerisches Pilgerbüro) über den Einfluss von Sicherheit und Risiko auf die touristische Entwicklung generell und insbesondere der Destination Israel
Sekundärdatenanalyse		
Zeitreihenanalyse	01/2000 bis 12/2014	Analyse des Einflusses von Terrorismus auf die touristische Entwicklung der Destination Israel anhand der Touristenankünfte und Terroranschläge in Israel (2000-2014) unter Berücksichtigung verschiedener Einflussfaktoren (z.B. Wirtschaftslage)

Quelle: Eigene Zusammenstellung

In den folgenden Kapiteln werden die Ergebnisse der Arbeit vorgestellt und diskutiert. Die Erkenntnisse bauen auf grundlegenden Ergebnissen, die vorwiegend im Zuge eines von der Deutschen Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG SCHM 850/19-1) geförderten Projektes mit dem Titel „Sicherheit als Einflussfaktor der Destinationswahl von Touristen“ gewonnen wurden, auf. Einige Ergebnisse sind bereits in Form von Aufsätzen in Fachjournalen (Tabelle 2) oder als weitere Veröffentlichungen in Form von einem Buchbeitrag und Konferenzbeiträgen (Tabelle 3) veröffentlicht. Die Ergebnisse aus diesen Veröffentlichungen fließen zusammenfassend in die einzelnen Kapitel dieser Arbeit ein (Tabelle 2, Tabelle 3). Detaillierte Informationen können den Artikeln im Anhang dieser Arbeit entnommen werden.

Tabelle 2. Veröffentlichungen in referierten Fachzeitschriften für die vorliegende Dissertation

Jahr	Autor(en)	Titel	Veröffentlichung	Kapitel
2015	Karl, M. Reintinger, C. Schmude, J.	Reject or select: Mapping destination choice.	Annals of Tourism Research	2.3.2
2016	Karl, M.	Risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making – tourist and destination perspective	Journal of Travel Research	3.2.2
2016	Karl, M. Winder, G. Bauer, A.	Terrorism and tourism in Israel: Analysis of the temporal scale	Tourism Economics	4.2
2017	Karl, M. Reintinger, C.	Investigating tourists’ destination choices: An application of network analysis	European Journal of Tourism Research	2.3.2
2017	Karl, M. Schmude, J.	Understanding the Role of Risk (Perception) in Destination Choice: A Literature Review and Synthesis	Tourism: An Interdisciplinary Journal	3.1

Quelle: Eigene Zusammenstellung

Tabelle 3. Weitere Veröffentlichungen und Vorträge im Rahmen der vorliegenden Dissertation

Jahr	Autor(en)	Titel	Veröffentlichung/Vortrag	Kapitel
2014	Karl, M. Reintinger, C.	Mapping destination choice: Set theory as a tool for the investigation of tourists' individual destination choice processes	World Conference for Graduate Research in Tourism Hospitality and Leisure, Istanbul, Türkei (Konferenzbeitrag)	2.3.2
2014	Karl, M.	Risk, uncertainty and insecurity in travel decisions. Set theory as mapping tool for destination choice	Regional Conference der International Geographic Union, Krakau, Polen (Konferenzbeitrag)	3.2.1
2015	Karl, M.	Tourist perception as critical element of tourism crises	Regional Conference der International Geographic Union, Moskau, Russland (Konferenzbeitrag)	3.2.1 3.2.2
2015	Karl, M.	The perception of risk as a determinant of destination choice processes	ATLAS Annual Conference, Lissabon, Portugal (Konferenzbeitrag)	3.2.2
2016	Karl, M. Reintinger, C.	Mapping Destination Choice: Set theory as a methodological tool to investigate tourists' destination choice	Tourist Behaviour. An International Perspektive (Sammelwerksbeitrag)	2.3.2
2016	Karl, M.	The influence of risk perception on travel decision-making and destination choice processes – The example Israel	Consumer Behavior in Tourism Symposium 2016, Bruneck, Italien (Konferenzbeitrag)	4.3

Quelle: Eigene Zusammenstellung

2 Touristische Reiseentscheidung und Destinationswahl

Die Tourismusforschung ist nicht eindeutig einer Wissenschaftsdisziplin zuzuordnen, da es sich vielmehr um eine multidisziplinäre Forschungsrichtung handelt (Steinecke, 2011, 17ff.; Schmude & Namberger, 2015, 1). So werden beispielsweise Modelle und Theorien aus der Psychologie, der Soziologie, den Wirtschaftswissenschaften oder der Geographie herangezogen, um touristische Reiseentscheidungen (Kapitel 2.1) und Destinationswahlprozesse (Kapitel 2.2) zu untersuchen und zu verstehen. Die Set Theorie, ein theoretischer Ansatz, der ursprünglich in der Konsumentenforschung eingesetzt wurde, eignet sich besonders für die Untersuchung von Destinationswahlprozessen im Kontext von Risiko und Unsicherheit (Kapitel 2.3.1). In der vorliegenden Dissertation wird die Set Theorie als zentrales Untersuchungsinstrument für die empirische Analyse von Destinationswahlprozessen deutscher Touristen verwendet (Kapitel 2.3.2).

2.1 Modelle und Theorien der touristischen Reiseentscheidung

Der Prozess der Reiseentscheidung verläuft unter besonderen Bedingungen, da es sich dabei um eine Kaufentscheidung mit großer persönlicher Bedeutung (z.B. persönliche Bedeutung des Urlaubs, finanzielle Belastung) und relativ wenig Routine handelt (Dreyer et al., 2001, 19). Obwohl teilweise dieselben Gefahren in der Heimat existieren, wird im Urlaub eine erhöhte Aufmerksamkeit auf Aspekte wie etwa Kriminalität gelegt, da die ‚schönste Zeit des Jahres' als besonders wertvoll erachtet wird und nicht durch negative Einflüsse gestört werden soll (Wittich, 2004, 14f.). Dementsprechend sind die meisten Reiseentscheidungen, abgesehen von (Kurz)Reisen in die nähere Umgebung oder in bereits bekannte Reiseziele, mit einer gewissen Unsicherheit seitens des Touristen verknüpft. Aufgrund der Tatsache, dass jeder Tourist mit einer großen Menge an Informationen über verschiedenste Destinationen konfrontiert wird und es unmöglich ist, alle Informationen zu kennen, erhöht sich diese Unsicherheit bei der Reiseentscheidung zusätzlich (Crompton, 1992). Die besonderen Eigenschaften einer Urlaubsreise, wie das Uno-Actu-Prinzip (d.h. Konsum und Produktion finden zeitgleich statt) und die Immaterialität von Urlaubsreisen (Schmude & Namberger, 2015, 40f.), verstärken zudem die Unsicherheit bei der Reiseentscheidung, da Touristen nicht in der Lage sind, das Produkt ‚Reise' vor der eigentlichen Reise selbst zu testen und zu bewerten. Sie müssen sich bei ihrer Entscheidung auf Informationen aus ‚zweiter Hand' verlassen. Deshalb versuchen Touristen durch intensive, aktive Informationssuche die Unsicherheit bei der Entscheidung zu reduzieren (Crompton, 1992; Mäser & Weiermair, 1998; Freyer, 2011, 100). Die Annahme ist, dass je höher die Unsicherheit, umso mehr Informationen werden gesammelt und umso rationaler wird die Entscheidung selbst (Mäser & Weiermair, 1998). Die Unsicherheit bei der Reiseentscheidung und Bedeutungszumessung der Urlaubsreise führt dazu, dass Risiken besonders intensiv wahrgenommen werden und die Entscheidung stärker beeinflussen als dies bei anderen (Kauf)Entscheidungen der Fall ist.

Touristische Reiseentscheidungen setzen sich aus mehreren Einzelentscheidungen, unter anderem bezüglich des Zielgebietes (= Destinationswahl), des Reisezeitpunktes, der Art und Dauer der Reise sowie der Unterkunft und des Preisniveaus, zusammen (Freyer, 2011, 103). Hyde (2004) geht von einer Dualität der Reiseentscheidungen aus. Einerseits finden bewusste, zielgerichtete Reiseentscheidungen vor Reiseantritt statt, die mithilfe von aktiver Informationssuche und dem Vergleich von Alternativen getroffen werden. Demgegenüber

stehen Reiseentscheidungen vor Ort, die eher hedonistischer Art sind und weniger durch gezielte Informationssuche überprüft werden. Fesenmaier und Jeng (2000) hingegen unterscheiden drei Arten von Reiseentscheidungen in hierarchischer Ordnung: *core decisions* mit langer Planungszeit und hoher individueller Bedeutung (z.B. Destinationswahl, Reisedauer), *secondary decisions* vor Reiseantritt mit mittlerer individueller Bedeutung (z.B. Unternehmungen am Reiseziel, Besuch von Sehenswürdigkeiten) und *en route decisions* während der Reise mit relativ geringer individueller Bedeutung (z.B. Restaurantbesuche). Diese Einteilung unterstreicht den besonderen Stellenwert der Destinationswahl innerhalb des Reiseentscheidungsprozesses. Studien von Mäser und Weiermair (1998) oder Oppewal et al. (2015) bestätigen dies, da Informationen zur Destination bei der Reiseentscheidung als am wichtigsten eingestuft werden bzw. die Wahl der Destination eine noch höhere Bedeutung als die Wahl der Urlaubsaktivität hat. Die vorliegende Dissertation bezieht sich deshalb vorwiegend auf die Analyse von Destinationswahlprozessen. Im Folgenden werden wesentliche theoretische Modelle und Theorien zur Destinationswahl vorgestellt.

2.2 Modelle und Theorien der Destinationswahl

Für die Untersuchung der Destinationswahl werden generell zwei unterschiedliche Betrachtungsweisen herangezogen: mikroökonomische und verhaltenswissenschaftliche Ansätze. Eine ausführliche Diskussion zu den beiden Forschungsansätzen der Destinationswahl findet sich in einem Werk zum Thema Urlaubsreiseentscheidung von Decrop (2006) oder einem Artikel von Reintinger et al. (2014), weshalb hier kurz die wichtigsten, für die vorliegende Dissertation relevanten Aspekte skizziert werden. Grundsätzlich werden viele Reiseentscheidungsmodelle aus der Konsumentenforschung abgeleitet, obwohl die Übertragbarkeit von Modellen bezüglich stark rationaler Entscheidungen auf die eher emotionale, mit Risiko und Unsicherheit verbundene Destinationswahl fragwürdig ist.

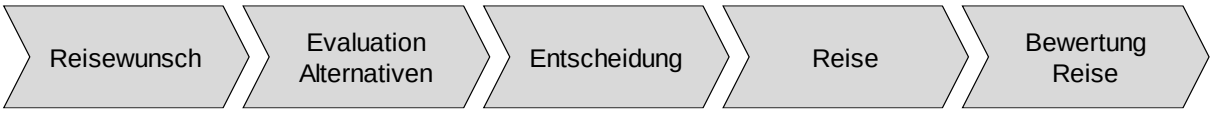
Mikroökonomische Modelle der Destinationswahl basieren auf der Vorstellung, dass ein Tourist Entscheidungen aus wirtschaftlicher Sicht mit Hilfe einer Kosten-Nutzen-Analyse trifft (Decrop, 2006, 24). Der Vorteil dieser Modelle ist, dass Einflussfaktoren der Destinationswahl identifiziert und zukünftige Entscheidungen prognostiziert werden können. Eine Einschränkung mikroökonomischer Modelle ist, dass Reiseentscheidungen als rational betrachtet werden und Persönlichkeitsfaktoren oder situative Einschränkungen nicht berücksichtigt werden. Diese Betrachtungsweise kann jedoch nicht der Wirklichkeit entsprechen. Verhaltenswissenschaftliche Ansätze konzentrieren sich hingegen auf soziopsychologische Einflussfaktoren und innerlich ablaufende Prozesse. Das Verhalten einer Person wird dabei als Reaktion R auf einen Reiz bzw. Stimulus S verstanden (Freyer, 2011, 106f.). Im Gegensatz zu den SR- oder Black-Box-Modellen, bei denen die Reaktion eines Individuums auf einen äußeren Reiz direkt erfolgt, geht man bei SOR-Modellen davon aus, dass äußere Reize, meist in Form neuer Informationen, in Abhängigkeit bestimmter Persönlichkeitsfaktoren durch die Person bzw. den Organismus O selbst verarbeitet werden und eine indirekte Reaktion folgt (Freyer, 2011, 106f.). Die Destinationswahl wird somit durch die Verarbeitung externer Einflussfaktoren unter Beteiligung von inneren Einflussfaktoren geprägt (Um & Crompton, 1990; Crompton, 1992; Dreyer et al., 2001, 18).

In Bezug auf die Destinationswahl unter dem Einfluss von Risiko heißt das, Touristen entscheiden sich für oder gegen eine Destination mit einem gewissen Risiko, abhängig von der subjektiven Wahrnehmung dieses Risikos. Hierbei spielen soziopsychologische Merkmale

wie der Bildungsgrad, das Alter und die Reiseerfahrung eine entscheidende Rolle (Pizam et al., 2004; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006; Schmude & Heumann, 2009; Park & Reisinger, 2010). Allerdings ist die Destinationswahl meist eine gemeinschaftliche Entscheidung einer Familie, eines Paares oder einer Gruppe von Freunden (van Raaij & Francken, 1984; Jang et al., 2007) und Teil einer bestimmten sozialen Umgebung (Mansfeld, 1992). Somit müssen bei der Destinationswahl bezüglich risikoreicher Destinationen nicht nur Touristen selbst berücksichtigt werden, sondern auch das soziale Umfeld oder die aktuellen Lebensumstände, unter denen eine Reiseentscheidung getroffen wird. Beispielsweise ist die aktuelle Lebensphase, in der sich ein Tourist befindet, ein wesentlicher Einflussfaktor der Destinationswahl (Karl et al., 2015). Neben den inneren Einflussfaktoren spielen auch externe Einflussfaktoren, wie das tatsächliche, objektive Risiko eine Rolle. So werden verschiedene Risikokategorien (z.B. Terrorismus, Naturkatastrophen, Gesundheitsgefährdungen) als unterschiedlich starke Hemmnisse bei der Destinationswahl wahrgenommen (Kapitel 3.2.1). Weitere äußere Einflussfaktoren, v.a. bei Terrorismus oder politischer Instabilität als Risikokategorie, sind die Art und Häufigkeit der Medienberichterstattung, Reisewarnungen des Auswärtigen Amtes, sowie Erfahrungsberichte und Meinungen von Freunden, Bekannten oder Familienangehörigen (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a; Seddighi et al., 2001).

Ähnlich zu der Annahme, dass Reiseentscheidungen einen prozesshaften Verlauf haben, durchläuft auch die Destinationswahl einen mehrstufigen komplexen Prozess (Moutinho, 1987; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Um & Crompton, 1990; Crompton, 1992; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a; Decrop, 2006, 28ff. ; Choi et al., 2012). Moutinho (1987) beispielsweise orientiert sich an folgendem Schema: Vorentscheidung bezüglich von Präferenzen, Entscheidung für eine Destination und abschließende Bewertung nach dem Kauf. Das Reiseentscheidungsmodell von van Raaij und Francken (1984) beschreibt eine fünfstufige *travel behaviour sequence*: generelle Entscheidung zu verreisen, Informationssuche, gemeinschaftliche Entscheidung, Reise mit Vor-Ort-Entscheidungen und Bewertung der Reise. Mansfeld (1992) teilt die Reiseentscheidung in einen dreistufigen Prozess auf: Informationssuche, Bewertung von Alternativen und Reiseentscheidung. Eine Gemeinsamkeit der verschiedenen, größtenteils theoretischen, Modelle ist der Prozesscharakter von erstem Reisewunsch bis zur abschließenden Bewertung der Reise, der als lineare *travel behaviour sequence* zusammengefasst werden kann (Abbildung 3). Die vorliegende Dissertation konzentriert sich insbesondere auf die zweite und dritte Stufe, die Evaluation von Alternativen und die eigentliche Entscheidung für ein bestimmtes Reiseziel, berücksichtigt dabei aber auch die anderen Stufen der *travel behaviour sequence.*

Abbildung 3. Lineare Darstellung der *travel behaviour sequence*



Quelle: Eigene Darstellung nach van Raaij & Francken, 1984; Moutinho, 1987; Mansfeld, 1992; Choi et al., 2012

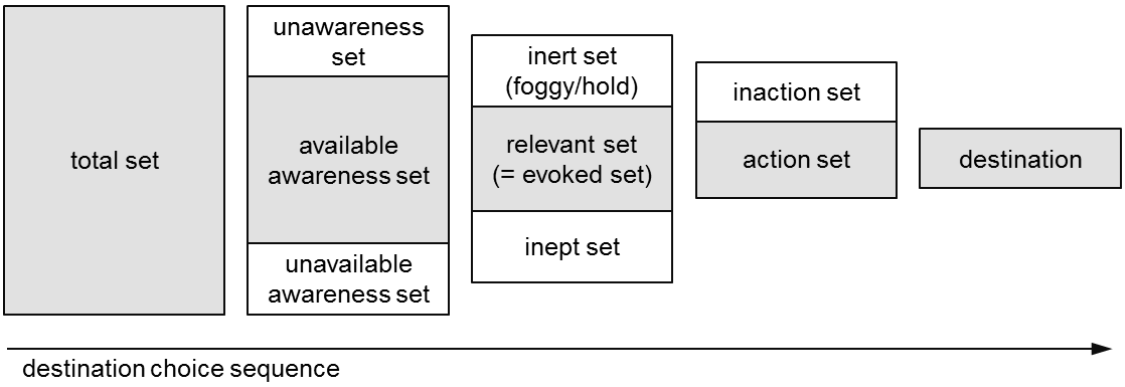
2.3 Set Theorie als Methode zur Untersuchung von Destinationswahl

In der vorliegenden Dissertation wird das Modell der Set Theorie als methodischer Ansatz ausgewählt, da sich dieses aus unterschiedlichen Gründen (Kapitel 2.3.1) besonders für die Untersuchung von Destinationswahlprozessen im Kontext von Risiko eignet.

2.3.1 Theoretische Modelle der Set Theorie

Im Rahmen der Set Theorie wird die Destinationswahl als hierarchischer Prozess mit mehreren Entscheidungsstufen betrachtet (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Um & Crompton, 1990; Crompton, 1992, Decrop, 2010). Diese hierarchische Ordnung, bei der alternative Destinationen in kleinere Einheiten zusammengefasst werden (Abbildung 4), erleichtert die Destinationswahl erheblich, da der eigentliche Entscheidungsprozess nur wenige Destinationen berücksichtigt (Crompton, 1992). In der ersten Phase, noch vor der Entscheidung überhaupt zu reisen, werden mehrere Destinationen aus dem *total set* (= alle weltweit existierenden Destinationen) zu einem *awareness set* (= alle bekannten Destinationen; Decrop, 2010) vereinigt. Aus diesem werden, in der zweiten Phase, einige Destinationen ausgewählt und das *relevant set* (= alle für eine bestimmte Reise in Betracht gezogenen Destinationen; Narayana & Markin, 1975) gebildet. Im letzten Schritt der Destinationswahl wird eine einzige Destination aus einem *action set* (= aktive Informationssuche zu diesen Destinationen; Spiggle & Sewall, 1987) ausgewählt. Weitere Sets im Destinationswahlprozess sind das *inept set* (= Destinationen, denen ein Tourist negativ gegenübersteht; Narayana & Markin, 1975) und das *inert set* (= Destinationen, denen ein Tourist indifferent gegenübersteht; Crompton, 1992). Das *inert set* kann laut Church et al. (1985) weiter unterteilt werden in ein *foggy set* (= Destinationen, bei denen ein Tourist ein Informationsdefizit hat) und ein *hold set* (= Destinationen, denen gegenüber ein Tourist eine indifferente Einstellung hat). Die Sets aus den zuvor beschriebenen Modellen können in einem Modell (Abbildung 4) zusammengefasst werden, das als Grundlage für die empirischen Untersuchungen dieser Dissertation verwendet wird.

Abbildung 4. Schematisches Modell der Set Theorie



Quelle: Karl et al., 2015, 49

Die ersten Studien zur Set Theorie stammen aus dem Bereich Marketing und Verhaltensforschung und dienen dazu, das Markenwahlverhalten bei der Kaufentscheidung zu erklären (v.a. Howard & Sheth, 1969). 1975 wird die Set Theorie von Narayana und Markin (1975) erstmals auf die Tourismusforschung übertragen mit dem Ziel, ein besseres Verständnis für die Destinationswahl zu erlangen. Ende der 1980er und Anfang der 1990er Jahren wird der Destinationswahlprozess intensiver mithilfe der Set Theorie erforscht (z.B. Spiggle & Sewall, 1987; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Um & Crompton, 1990; Crompton, 1992; Um & Crompton, 1992). Dabei handelt es sich um qualitativ orientierte Studien, quantitative Studien mit sehr kleinen Stichproben oder theoretische Überlegungen zur Destinationswahl. Wichtige Erkenntnisse aus dieser Zeit sind der prozesshafte Charakter der Destinationswahl,

die Unterteilung alternativer Destinationen in hierarchische Teilgruppen und die Identifikation wichtiger Sets mit ihren besonderen Eigenschaften. Einen erneuten Aufschwung erlangt die Set Theorie in der Tourismusforschung mit Veröffentlichungen von Decrop (2006, 2010) sowie Decrop und Snelders (2005), die sich auf die Destinationswahl als dynamischen Prozess konzentrieren. Hier werden erstmals Veränderungen durch sich ändernde äußere Einflüsse und Unterschiede in der Set Struktur verschiedener Touristentypen erforscht. Auch Studien von Sirakaya und Woodside (2005) oder Jang et al. (2007), die sich mit generellen Destinationswahlprozessen oder denen bestimmter Touristengruppen beschäftigen, werden zu Beginn der 2000er Jahre durchgeführt. Insgesamt gibt es jedoch wenige quantitative Studien, die Destinationswahlprozesse und die Struktur der Destinationswahl empirisch untersuchen. Bisherige quantitative Studien (z.B. Narayana & Markin, 1975) konzentrieren sich oftmals auf die Größe der einzelnen Sets, beziehen allerdings, im Gegensatz zur Anwendung von Set Theorie in dieser Dissertation, nicht die Destination und ihre Eigenschaften in die Untersuchung mit ein.

Für die Untersuchung von Risiko und Risikowahrnehmung als Einflussfaktoren der Destinationswahl eignet sich die Set Theorie aus mehreren Gründen: Erstens gestattet die Set Theorie eine Betrachtung aller an der Destinationswahl beteiligten Destinationen und schließt dadurch auch solche Destinationen mit in die Untersuchung ein, die letzten Endes aus unterschiedlichen Gründen nicht ausgewählt werden (z.B. *inept set*). Diese Herangehensweise ermöglicht es, Risiko als einen Einflussfaktor für die Ablehnung einer Destination auf bestimmten Stufen des Destinationswahlprozesses zu betrachten und nähere Erkenntnisse zu gewinnen, auf welcher Stufe des Destinationswahlprozesses Risiko eine entscheidende Rolle spielt. Zweitens können Risikofaktoren (z.B. Zustimmung durch das soziale Umfeld; vgl. Tabelle 4) und Risikokategorien (z.B. Naturkatastrophen, Terrorismus, Gesundheitsgefährdungen; vgl. Tabelle 6) differenziert betrachtet werden. Drittens kann mithilfe der Set Theorie die Destinationswahl als dynamischer Prozess untersucht werden. Das heißt, dass Veränderungen von externen oder inneren Einflussfaktoren, die zu Verschiebungen der Destinationen innerhalb der Sets führen (Crompton, 1992), erfasst werden können. Somit ist es möglich Risikofaktoren und -kategorien als externe Einflussfaktoren bzw. Risikowahrnehmung als inneren Einflussfaktor mithilfe der Set Theorie zu analysieren. Es ist beispielsweise von Interesse für die Tourismuswissenschaft und Tourismusindustrie zu verstehen, inwiefern Erfahrung mit risikoreichen Situationen während einer Reise zu Veränderungen in der Risikowahrnehmung und in der Folge zu Verschiebungen einzelner Destinationen innerhalb der Destinationswahlstruktur führen. Schließlich bietet die Anwendung der Set Theorie zur Untersuchung von Destinationswahlprozessen die Möglichkeit, gezielt die Eigenschaften der Destination als einen wesentlichen Erklärungsfaktor zu integrieren und dadurch umfassende Informationen zu Destinationen in die Interpretation von Untersuchungsergebnissen einzubeziehen.

2.3.2 Empirische Befunde und Diskussion zu Destinationswahl im Sinne der Set Theorie

Ein Defizit bisheriger Forschung zur Destinationswahl ist, dass die Destinationswahl nicht als Abwägungsprozess von Vorteilen der Destination und Bedürfnissen des Touristen (Bekk et al., 2016) gesehen wird (Kapitel 2.2). Dies trifft insbesondere auf quantitative Studien zu, in denen die Eigenschaften der Destinationen selbst wenig beachtet werden. Eine Erklärung hierfür ist die Vielfalt an verschiedenen Destinationen im Destinationswahlprozess, die eine quantitative statistische Analyse erschweren. Im Rahmen dieser Dissertation werden deshalb zwei

Ansätze gewählt, die es ermöglichen, Destinationen und ihre Eigenschaften in eine quantitative Untersuchung zu integrieren.

Um die Eigenschaften der Destination in die empirische Analyse einzubinden, wird einerseits ein Destinationsindex entwickelt, der Destinationen nach der Vertrautheit aus Sicht deutscher Touristen kategorisiert (Karl et al., 2015; Karl & Reintinger, 2016). Dieser Ansatz ist von dem Modell der psychographischen Persönlichkeitstypen von Plog (1974, 2001) geprägt. Plogs Modell (1974, 2001), welches auf dem Konzept der Vertrautheit aufbaut, ist eines der ersten Modelle, das sowohl Destinations- als auch Touristeneigenschaften in die Erklärung von Destinationswahl und Reiseverhalten einbezieht. Beispielsweise bevorzugen allozentrische, risikoaffine Touristen (= *venturer*) neue, noch nicht touristisch geprägte Regionen, in denen sie neue Erfahrungen sammeln können, während psychozentrische, risikoaverse Touristen (= *dependable*) bekannte, relativ stark touristisch geprägte Destinationen mit einem geringen Risikoniveau vorziehen (Plog, 1974, 2001). Die Theorie von Plog (1974, 2001) trägt somit zu einem besseren Verständnis der Wechselwirkung zwischen Destinations- und Touristeneigenschaften, auch in Bezug auf den Destinationslebenszyklus, bei. Plog geht davon aus, dass eine Destination zu Beginn des Lebenszyklus vorwiegend von risikoaffinen und gegen Ende von risikoaversen Touristen besucht wird. Jedoch basiert Plogs Modell auf rein theoretischen Überlegungen und das Konzept der Vertrautheit wird bisher kaum operationalisiert bzw. empirisch überprüft. Aus diesem Grund wird im Rahmen dieser Dissertation ein Destinationsindex eingeführt, der Indikatoren zur Messung von Vertrautheit aus Plogs Modell ableitet. Die Einteilung von Destinationen nach dem Grad der Vertrautheit wird für die differenzierte Untersuchung verschiedener Stufen und Sets der Destinationswahl generell (Karl et al., 2015; Karl & Reintinger, 2016) und in Bezug auf Risiko (Karl, 2016) verwendet.

In einer weiteren Studie zur Destinationswahl werden die Stufen des Destinationswahlprozesses mit Hilfe der Netzwerkanalyse untersucht (Karl & Reintinger, 2017). Grundsätzlich dient Netzwerkanalyse dazu, Beziehungsverflechtungen zwischen einzelnen Einheiten zu beschreiben und unter Verwendung von Indikatoren die Eigenschaften eines gesamten Netzwerkes, sowie die Bedeutung einzelner Akteure innerhalb des Netzwerkes zu studieren (Shih, 2006). Ein großer Vorteil dieses Ansatzes ist, dass keine Verallgemeinerung von Destinationseigenschaften in Form von Kategorisierungen vorgenommen werden muss und somit die von Probanden genannten Destinationen direkt analysiert werden können. In dieser Dissertation werden mehrere Instrumente aus der Netzwerkanalyse zur Untersuchung der Destinationswahl übertragen. Diese Instrumente dienen zur Messung des Vernetzungsgrades und der hierarchischen Ordnung von Destinationen innerhalb eines Sets, der Stabilität und Bindungskraft innerhalb eines Sets sowie der Kompatibilität von Destinationen (Karl & Reintinger, 2017). Daraus werden Rückschlüsse zur Einzigartigkeit und Austauschbarkeit von Destinationen auf verschiedenen Stufen des Destinationswahlprozesses gezogen sowie Konkurrenten der jeweiligen Destinationen identifiziert.

Die Ergebnisse der beiden empirischen Studien zu generellen Destinationswahlprozessen beruhen auf Passentenbefragungen mit standardisierten Fragebögen in München aus dem Jahr 2013 mit einer finalen Stichprobe von 622 bzw. 835 interviewten Personen (Tabelle 1). In beiden Studien wird die Set Theorie (Kapitel 2.3.1) als Grundkonzept für die Untersuchung von Destinationswahlprozessen deutscher Touristen verwendet. Der Fokus liegt auf wenigen Sets, die eine besondere Bedeutung im Destinationswahlprozess einnehmen. Das *relevant*

set wird erfasst, da die finale Entscheidung bezüglich einer Destination für eine bestimmte Reise auf diesem Set beruht (Crompton, 1992). Hiermit kann der tatsächliche Reiseplanungsprozess von Touristen widergespiegelt werden. Um Unterschiede zwischen dem tatsächlichen und gewünschten Verhalten sowie Hemmnisse, die die Umsetzung der Reiseträume verhindern, untersuchen zu können und den Stellenwert von Risiko(wahrnehmung) in der Destinationswahl auf verschiedenen Stufen zu identifizieren, wird in beiden Studien ein neues Set in zwei unterschiedlichen Ausprägungen definiert. Die neuen Sets bilden das eher hypothetische Wunschreiseverhalten der Touristen ab. Das *initial consideration set* (Karl et al., 2015) und das *future consideration set* (Karl & Reintinger, 2017) umfassen diejenigen Destinationen, die als mögliche Alternativen für hypothetische Reisen in der Zukunft in Betracht gezogen werden. Das *initial consideration set* beinhaltet auch bereits besuchte Destinationen, während das *future consideration set* diese Destinationen ausschließt. So wird im *initial consideration set* die gesamte Bandbreite an Wunschdestinationen abgebildet, während im *future consideration set* die Reiseerfahrung als Einflussfaktor der Destinationswahl außer Kraft gesetzt wird. Diese beiden hypothetischen Sets unterscheiden sich vom *relevant set* vor allem durch die zeitliche Dimension und die Realitätsnähe. Beim *relevant set* liegt der Reiseantritt innerhalb eines definierten Zeitrahmens (hier: zwölf Monate), wohingegen das *initial consideration set* und das *future consideration set* keinen genauen Zeitrahmen vorschreiben. Dies führt dazu, dass sich im *initial consideration set* und *future consideration set* Destinationen befinden, die (im Moment) aus unterschiedlichen Gründen (u.a. Sicherheitslage in einer Destination) realistisch nicht umgesetzt werden können. Neben diesen beiden Sets werden vergangene Reiseziele (*past destination choice*) abgefragt, um einen Eindruck in das tatsächliche Reiseverhalten der befragten Personen zu erlangen. Diese vergangenen Reiseziele repräsentieren das Endergebnis der Destinationswahl, bei dem alle Hemmnisse, wie beispielsweise Risiken in der Destination, überwunden wurden.

Die Ergebnisse beider Studien (Destinationsindex und Netzwerkanalyse) zeigen, dass eine Diskrepanz zwischen realistischen und hypothetischen Stufen des Destinationswahlprozesses besteht. In der ersten Studie (Karl et al., 2015; Karl & Reintinger, 2016) wird diese Diskrepanz auf Basis der Unterschiede in der Vertrautheit von Destinationen mithilfe eines Destinationsindexes diskutiert. Es zeigt sich, dass zu Beginn des Prozesses im *initial consideration set* eine Vielfalt von unterschiedlichen Arten von Destinationen berücksichtigt wird. Diese Vielfalt nimmt gegen Ende des Prozesses (*relevant set* und *past destination choice*) ab und der Tourist konzentriert sich in der Auswahl von Alternativen stärker auf einige bestimmte Arten von Destinationen. So werden zu Beginn des Prozesses (*initial consideration set*) vor allem sichere Fernreiseziele (z.B. USA) vorgezogen, gefolgt von sicheren Nahzielen (z.B. Deutschland, Italien) und risikoreicheren Fernreisezielen (z.B. Thailand). Stark risikoreiche Destinationen (z.B. Irak, Pakistan), die oftmals sogar mit Reisewarnungen des Auswärtigen Amtes belegt sind, werden in dieser Stufe noch als zukünftiges Reiseziel in Betracht gezogen, jedoch nur von einem geringen Anteil der Befragten. Im letzten Entscheidungsschritt bei der tatsächlich durchgeführten Destinationswahl (*past destination choice*) dominieren dagegen sichere, nahe Reiseziele mit einem hohen Anteil an Auslandsreisen deutscher Touristen und stark ausgeprägter touristischer Infrastruktur (z.B. Deutschland, Österreich, Italien, Spanien). Diese Reiseziele sind leicht bereisbar für deutsche Touristen und deshalb mit einem geringen Grad an Risiko und Unsicherheit verbunden. Stark risikoreiche Reiseziele spielen hier keine Rolle mehr. Das unterstreicht die Bedeutung von Risiko im Destinationswahlprozess, da sich Touristen bei der letztendlichen Entscheidung für

vermeintlich sichere Reiseziele entscheiden. Eine nähere Betrachtung innerhalb dieser Studie auf der Ebene des Touristen (Karl et al., 2015) belegt, dass Unterschiede zwischen Touristen bestehen bezüglich der Diskrepanz zwischen realistischen und hypothetischen Teilbereichen der Destinationswahl und bezüglich der Art der Destinationen, die als Alternativen in den jeweiligen Teilbereichen betrachtet werden. Die daraus resultierenden Typen von Touristen stimmen teilweise mit Plogs Modell überein und erweitern dieses um die Dimension der Diskrepanz zwischen der hypothetischen und tatsächlichen Destinationswahl. Mehrere Erklärungsansätze für diese Unterschiede (z.B. Alter, Reiseerfahrung) können herangezogen werden, die deutlich auf den Einfluss der Risikowahrnehmung auf die Destinationswahl hinweisen (Karl et al., 2015). Beispielsweise existiert eine Gruppe von Touristen, die davon träumt, weniger vertraute Destinationen mit einem höheren Grad an Risiko zu besuchen, aber vorrangig in vertraute, sichere Destinationen reist. Eine Erklärungsmöglichkeit für diese Diskrepanz ist die aktuelle familiäre Situation, die es diesen Touristen nicht ermöglicht, ihre Reiseträume umzusetzen. In einer weiteren Veröffentlichung, die aus dieser Studie hervorgeht, wird verdeutlicht, dass auch die Urlaubsart, die Urlaubsmotive, die Reisebegleitung und die Organisationsform der Reise mit der Destinationswahl korrespondieren (Karl & Reintinger, 2016). Zum Beispiel entscheiden sich Touristen für weniger risikoreiche Destinationen, wenn sie mit der Familie oder Freunden vereisen als Alleinreisende oder Paare.

In der zweiten Studie (Karl & Reintinger, 2017) liegt der Fokus weniger auf dem Touristen, sondern vielmehr auf der Destination selbst, um ihre spezifischen Charakteristika als zusätzliche Erklärungsfaktoren zu integrieren. Ziel ist es, mithilfe einer Kombination von Set Theorie und Netzwerkanalyse Unterschiede in der Bewertung von Alternativen bei realistischen und hypothetischen Destinationswahlprozessen zu verstehen. Dabei bestätigt sich auf Destinationsebene (und nicht wie zuvor auf Ebene der Destinationscluster), dass die hypothetische Destinationswahl eine multidimensionale und die realistische Destinationswahl eine eindimensionale Struktur haben. Das heißt, dass viele verschiedene Destinationen als Alternativen bei hypothetischen Entscheidungen gelten, aber Touristen am Ende nur zwischen einigen wenigen Destinationen ihre Entscheidung treffen. Im Hinblick auf einzelne Destinationen ist erkennbar, dass nur sehr wenige Destinationen in allen Teilbereichen der Destinationswahl eine bedeutsame Rolle und zentrale Position einnehmen. So genannte *core destinations* verfügen über ein breites touristisches Angebotsspektrum und kommen dadurch als Reiseziele für eine Vielzahl von Touristen in Frage (z.B. USA). Die meisten Destinationen allerdings gewinnen oder verlieren an Bedeutung im Destinationswahlprozess in der Übergangsphase von hypothetischen hin zu tatsächlichen Entscheidungen. Typische Gewinnerdestinationen zu Ende des Prozesses, *surrogate destinations*, sind dem deutschen Touristen vertraut und können ohne große Einschränkungen bereist werden (z.B. Italien). Im Gegensatz dazu sind typische Verliererdestinationen (*intentional destinations*) mit großen Einschränkungen für den deutschen Touristen verbunden, die am Ende als Barriere für die Entscheidung wirken (z.B. Russland). Es kann deshalb von einer Austauschbarkeit von Destinationen ausgegangen werden, die umso größer ist, je mehr Konkurrenzdestinationen mit ähnlichem Angebot existieren. Dieser Aspekt ist besonders in Bezug auf Risiko wichtig, da Studien belegen, dass als unsicher wahrgenommene Destinationen besonders leicht ausgetauscht werden (z.B. Wall, 1996; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a).

3 Risiko und Risikowahrnehmung als Einflussfaktoren der Destinationswahl

Sicherheit wird als eine Grundvoraussetzung für die positive Entwicklung des Tourismussektors in einer Destination gesehen (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005) und Touristen wählen diejenigen Destinationen, die (aus ihrer Sicht) mit den geringsten Risiken behaftet sind. Dieser Zusammenhang zwischen Risiko bzw. Risikowahrnehmung und touristischen Reiseentscheidungen und Destinationswahlprozessen wird in den folgenden Kapiteln näher beleuchtet. Aufbauend auf einem theoretischen Untersuchungsrahmen für die Analyse von Risikowahrnehmung und Destinationswahl (Kapitel 3.1) werden eigene empirischen Befunde zum Destinationswahlprozess im Kontext von Risiko vorgestellt und erläutert (Kapitel 3.2).

3.1 Risiko und Risikowahrnehmung in der Tourismusforschung

In der Literatur existieren unterschiedliche Ansätze zur Definition von Risiko. Zum einen betrachtet die positivistische Sichtweise Risiko als messbare und kalkulierbare Folge von Ereignissen oder Entscheidungen (z.B. Knight, 1921), wohingegen aus kulturalistischer Perspektive die Interpretation und Auswirkung von Risiko in der bzw. durch die Gesellschaft in den Vordergrund gestellt wird (z.B. Altheide, 2006). Die Literaturanalyse der vorliegenden Dissertation zeigt, dass in der Tourismuswissenschaft drei Aspekte in die Definition von Risiko integriert werden (Karl & Schmude, 2017):

- Das Risiko hat einen möglichen Schaden (z.B. monetär oder gesundheitlich) bzw. eine negative Auswirkung zur Folge,
- der Schaden ist von Bedeutung für den Touristen oder die Gesellschaft,
- das Risiko beinhaltet einen gewissen Grad an Unsicherheit bezüglich des Eintretens des Ereignisses.

Somit überschneidet sich die Definition von Risiko im Tourismus mit dem Konzept der Unsicherheit, da die Messbarkeit und Kalkulierbarkeit von Risiko nicht vorausgesetzt wird. Gerade für Destinationswahlprozesse ist dieser Aspekt von Bedeutung, da Touristen in den meisten Fällen ihre Entscheidungen auf Laienwissen basierend treffen und nicht in der Lage sind, alle möglichen Risiken tatsächlich zu kalkulieren und dementsprechend Entscheidungen mit einem gewissen Grad an Unsicherheit treffen (siehe auch Kapitel 2.1). In diesem Zusammenhang muss betont werden, dass die persönliche Wahrnehmung des Risikos und weniger das tatsächliche Risiko bei der Entscheidung eine Rolle spielen (Tarlow, 2009; Fuchs & Reichel, 2006), da die Wahrnehmung bei der Entscheidung als Realität vorausgesetzt wird („perception becomes reality“; Pizam et al., 1997, 23). Raich et al. (2005, 219) betonen, dass was „Menschen als Bedrohung ihres Wohlbefindens wahrnehmen und wie sie die Wahrscheinlichkeiten und Dimensionen ungewollter Folgen bewerten, [.] weniger eine Frage ermittelter Schadenserwartungen, sondern eine Frage von Werten, Einstellungen, gesellschaftlichen Einflüssen und kultureller Identität“ ist. Folglich werden Risiken in den meisten Fällen entweder über- oder unterschätzt (Wittich, 2004, 24) und dies wird in der Destinationswahl der Touristen reflektiert. Die Einschätzung der Sicherheitslage erfolgt gemäß eines individuell unterschiedlichen Risikoschwellenwertes (= ART *Acceptable Risk Threshold*; Mansfeld, 2006). Falls die Sicherheitslage in der Destination als nicht akzeptabel eingeschätzt wird, werden andere Eigenschaften und Merkmale der Destination, wie beispielsweise die

klimatischen Bedingungen oder die vorhandene Hotelstruktur, nicht in die Entscheidung einbezogen. Die Destination dringt folglich nicht weiter im Destinationswahlprozess vor und eine andere Destination wird ausgewählt. In der Literatur werden insbesondere die in Tabelle 4 gelisteten Risikofaktoren als entscheidende Determinanten bei der Auswahl einer Destination für die nächste Urlaubsreise betrachtet.

Tabelle 4. Ausgewählte Risikofaktoren bei internationalen Reisen

Risikofaktor	Beschreibung
funktional	Möglichkeit von mechanischen, maschinellen oder organisatorischen Problemen, die eine Reise beeinträchtigen
physisch	Möglichkeit, dass eine Person einen physischen Schaden, Verletzung oder Krankheit während des Reisens erleidet
finanziell	Möglichkeit, dass die Reise nicht dem Wert der finanziellen Ausgaben entspricht
sozial	Möglichkeit, dass sich durch die Reise die Meinung anderer Personen über den Reisenden ändert
psychologisch	Möglichkeit, dass die Reise nicht die eigene Persönlichkeit oder das Eigenbild widerspiegelt
zeitlich	Möglichkeit, dass die Reise eine Zeitverschwendung darstellt
kulturell	Möglichkeit, dass die Reise durch interkulturelle Unterschiede zwischen Quellmarkt und Destination beeinträchtigt wird

Quelle: Eigene Zusammenstellung nach Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b; Pizam & Smith, 2000; Fuchs & Reichel, 2006; Park & Reisinger, 2010

Definitionen der Risikowahrnehmung werden in vielen Fällen aus der Konsumentenforschung abgeleitet. Hier wird Risikowahrnehmung weitgehend nach Mowen und Minor (2001) definiert als “a consumer's perception of the overall negativity of a course of action based upon an assessment of the possible negative outcomes and the likelihood that those outcomes will occur”. In Bezug auf das Reisen kann Risikowahrnehmung folglich als „die vom Käufer als nachteilig empfundenen Folgen der Entscheidung für eine bestimmte Reise“ (Dreyer et al., 2001, 18) verstanden werden. Durch die Analyse der Literatur wird deutlich, dass verschiedene Faktoren die Risikowahrnehmung und Destinationswahl beeinflussen. Diese Einflussfaktoren werden in zahlreichen Studien untersucht, führen aber teilweise zu gegensätzlichen Erkenntnissen (z.B. Einfluss von Geschlecht auf die Risikowahrnehmung). Ein Grund für die Widersprüche in der bisherigen Forschung sind Unterschiede in der methodischen Umsetzung der empirischen Studien. Es existiert beispielsweise keine allgemeingültige Operationalisierung und Definition von Risikowahrnehmung in der Tourismusforschung (Karl & Schmude, 2017): Einige Studie konzentrieren sich auf die Stärke des Einflusses von wahrgenommenen Risiken auf die Destinationswahl, während in anderen Arbeiten das Level der wahrgenommenen Risiken oder auch die Eintrittswahrscheinlichkeit und Schwere der Folgen eines Risikos für den Reisenden abgefragt wird. Zudem unterscheiden sich tourismuswissenschaftliche Studien hinsichtlich des geographischen oder inhaltlichen Bezuges (z.B. Reisen in bestimmte Destinationen oder Reisen allgemein). Neben der uneinheitlichen Definition und Operationalisierung von Risikowahrnehmung liegen weitere Ursachen für die Abweichungen in den Ergebnissen in der Wahl der Untersuchungsgruppe (z.B. Abfrage von tatsächlichem Reiseverhalten bei Touristen vor Ort oder von hypothetischen

Entscheidungen bei Probanden im Quellland), dem Befragungszeitpunkt (z.B. Befragung vor, während oder nach einer Reise) oder dem Fokus auf bestimmte Risikofaktoren oder Risikokategorien. Die nachfolgende Tabelle (Tabelle 5) fasst die wichtigsten Studien aus den letzten 25 Jahren Tourismusforschung zusammen und verdeutlicht die methodischen Unterschiede in der Umsetzung der Erforschung von Risikowahrnehmung und Destinationswahl.

Tabelle 5. Methodische Umsetzung in der tourismuswissenschaftlichen Forschung zum Thema Risikowahrnehmung und Destinationswahl (1992 bis 2015)

Autor(en)	**Jahr**	**Untersuchungssituation**	**Untersuchungsgruppe**	**Risikokategorie** (siehe Tabelle 6)	**Risikofaktor** (siehe Tabelle 4)
Roehl und Fesenmeier	1992	Haushaltsbefragung in einer Universitätsstadt in den USA	258 Anwohner		funktional, physisch, finanziell, sozial, psychologisch, zeitlich
Mäser und Weiermair	1998	Haushaltsbefragung in Österreich	228 Anwohner	Natur, Gesundheit, Kriminalität	kulturell
Sönmez und Graefe	1998a	Haushaltsbefragung, Telefoninterviews	240 Personen mit internationaler Reiseerfahrung bzw. Reiseplänen	Gesundheit, Terrorismus, politische Instabilität	funktional, physisch, finanziell, sozial, psychologisch, zeitlich
Floyd, Gibson, Pennington-Gray, und Thapa	2004	Telefonbefragung in New York, USA nach den Terroranschlägen vom 11. September 2001	348 Personen, die in den letzten zwölf Monaten eine Urlaubsreise unternommen haben	Natur, Gesundheit, Terrorismus, Kriminalität, politische Instabilität	finanziell, sozial, psychologisch
Fuchs und Reichel	2004	Israel	776 internationale Touristen aus verschiedenen Ländern	Natur, Gesundheit, Terrorismus, Kriminalität, politische Instabilität	funktional, physisch, finanziell, sozial, psychologisch, kulturell
Pizam, Jeong, Reichel, Boemmel, Lusson, Steynberg, State-Costache, Volo, Kroesbacher, Kucerova, und Montmany	2004	Universitäten in elf Ländern	1.429 Universitätsstudenten aus den Bereichen Hospitality und Tourismusmanagement		physisch, finanziell, sozial, kulturell
Reisinger und Mavondo	2005	touristische Attraktionen in Melbourne, Australien	nationale (246) und internationale (336) Besucher touristischer Attraktionen	Gesundheit, Terrorismus, Kriminalität, politische Instabilität	funktional, physisch, finanziell, sozial, psychologisch, zeitlich, kulturell

Fuchs und Reichel	2006	Touristenunterkünfte in Israel	776 internationale Touristen	Natur, Gesundheit, Terrorismus, Kriminalität, politische Instabilität	funktional, physisch, finanziell, sozial, psychologisch, zeitlich
Reisinger und Mavondo	2006	touristische Attraktionen in Melbourne, Australien	830 internationale Touristen	Gesundheit, Terrorismus, Kriminalität, politische Instabilität	funktional, physisch, finanziell, sozial, psychologisch, zeitlich, kulturell
Kozak, Crotts, und Law	2007	Abflugsbereich des Flughafens von Honkong, China	1.180 internationale Touristen	Natur, Gesundheit, Terrorismus,	
Lepp und Gibson	2008	Universitätsgelände in den USA	290 Besucher der Universität (u.a. Studierende) der Altersgruppe 17 bis 30 Jahre	Gesundheit, Terrorismus, Kriminalität, politische Instabilität	kulturell
Gray und Wilson	2009	Onlinebefragung und Haushaltsbefragung in Großbritannien	299 Personen, darunter Universitätsstudenten, Taucher/innen und Anwohner	Natur, Gesundheit, Terrorismus, Kriminalität, politische Instabilität	
Rittichainuwat und Chakraborty	2009	Abflugsbereich des Flughafens von Bangkok, Thailand	423 internationale Touristen (Erstbesucher und Wiederholungsbesucher)	Gesundheit, Terrorismus	funktional, finanziell
Park und Reisinger	2010	Downtown Miami, USA	354 nationale und internationale Touristen	Natur, Gesundheit, Terrorismus, Kriminalität, politische Instabilität	funktional, physisch, finanziell, sozial, psychologisch, zeitlich, kulturell
Quintal, Lee, und Soutar	2010b	Onlinebefragung	1.187 Personen aus Südkorea, China und Japan, die international gereist sind bzw. planen international zu reisen		funktional, physisch, finanziell, sozial, psychologisch

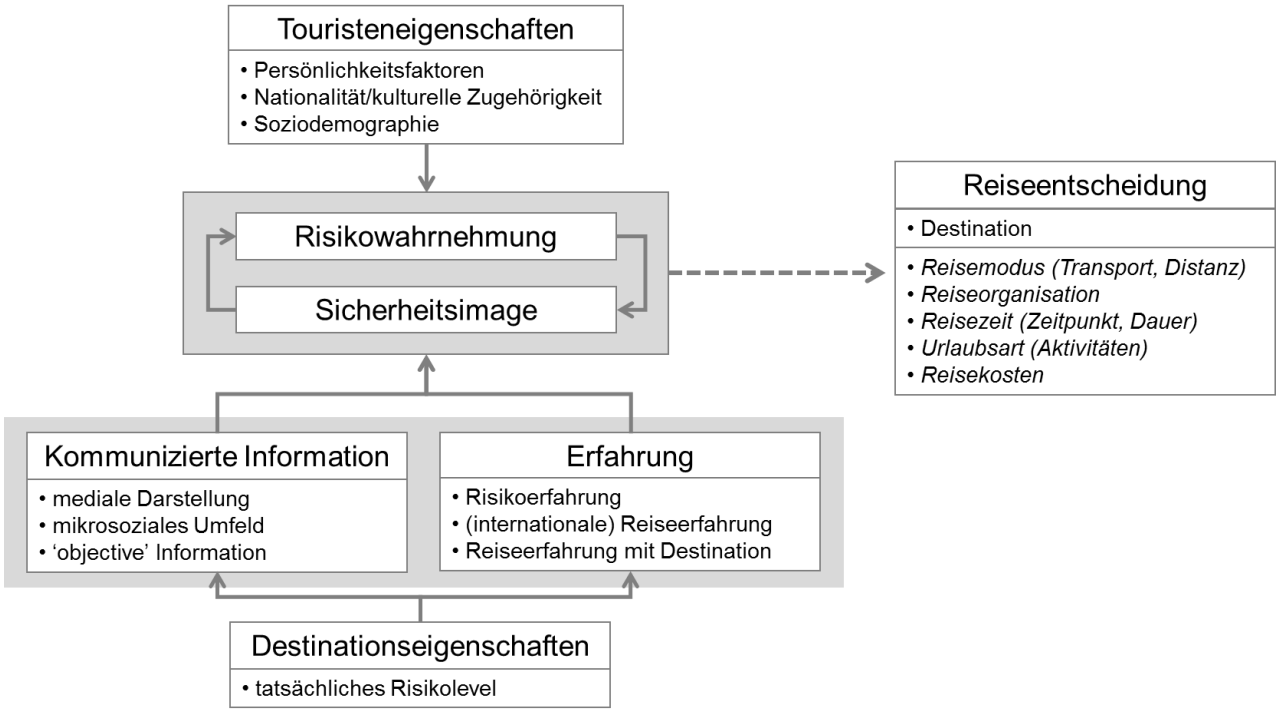
Jonas, Mansfeld, Paz, und Potasman	2011	Klinikum (mit Tropeninstitut) in Israel vor einer Reise	232 potenzielle Touristen	Natur, Gesundheit, Terrorismus, Kriminalität, politische Instabilität	
Fuchs und Reichel	2011	Israel	776 internationale Touristen (Erstbesucher und Wiederholungsbesucher)	Natur, Gesundheit, Terrorismus, Kriminalität, politische Instabilität	funktional, physisch, finanziell, sozial, psychologisch
Fuchs	2013	Israel	579 Studenten mit Backpacking-Erfahrung	Natur, Gesundheit, Terrorismus, Kriminalität, politische Instabilität	physisch, finanziell, sozial, psychologisch, zeitlich, kulturell
Seabra, Dolnicar, Abrantes und Kastenholz	2013	Flughäfen von Madrid, Spanien, Lissabon, Portugal, und Mailand, Italien nach Check-In	600 internationale Touristen	Gesundheit, Terrorismus, politische Instabilität	funktional, physisch, finanziell, sozial, psychologisch, zeitlich
Sharifpour, Walters, und Ritchie	2013	Onlinebefragung in Australien	526 Anwohner	Natur, Gesundheit, Terrorismus, Kriminalität, politische Instabilität	funktional, physisch, finanziell, sozial, psychologisch, zeitlich, kulturell
Thapa, Cahyanto, Holland, und Absher	2013	Haushaltsbefragung in den USA	771 Anwohner mit Reiseerfahrung in Florida	Natur	
Chew, und Jahari	2014	Reisemesse und Onlinebefragung durch Reiseveranstalter	255 Touristen aus Malaysia mit Reiseerfahrung in Japan	Natur, Gesundheit,	finanziell, physisch, psychologisch, sozial
Sharifpour, Walters, und Ritchie	2014a	Onlinebefragung	186 Anwohner	Gesundheit, Terrorismus, Kriminalität, politische Instabilität	funktional, physisch, finanziell, sozial, psychologisch, zeitlich, kulturell
Sharifpour, Walters, Ritchie, und Winter	2014b	Onlinebefragung	508 Anwohner	Natur, Gesundheit, Terrorismus, Kriminalität, politische Instabilität	funktional, physisch, finanziell, sozial, psychologisch, zeitlich, kulturell

Wolf, und Larsen	2014	touristische Attraktionen in Norwegen	6.388 nationale und internationale Touristen aus 2004, 2010, 2011 und 2012	Terrorismus	
Adam	2015	Abflugsbereich des Flughafens von Accra, Ghana	603 Backpacking-Touristen	Natur, Gesundheit, Terrorismus, Kriminalität, politische Instabilität	physisch, finanziell, sozial, psychologisch, zeitlich
Hajibaba, Gretzel, Leisch, und Dolnicar	2015	Onlinebefragung	1.465 Anwohner aus englischsprachigen Quellmärkten (Australien, Großbritannien, USA)	Natur, Terrorismus	physisch, finanziell, sozial
Jonas, und Mansfeld	2015	Universitätsgelände von sieben Universitäten in Israel	467 ehemalige Backpacking Touristen	Natur, Gesundheit, Terrorismus, Kriminalität, politische Instabilität	physisch, finanziell, sozial, psychologisch, zeitlich, kulturell

Quelle: Eigene Zusammenstellung

Basierend auf der Analyse dieser empirischen Studien und theoretischen Arbeiten konnten im Rahmen der vorliegenden Dissertation Einflussfaktoren der Risikowahrnehmung und ihre Auswirkungen auf die Destinationswahl identifiziert und ein theoretischer Untersuchungsrahmen für zukünftige Studien entwickelt werden (Abbildung 5; Karl & Schmude, 2017). Dieser theoretische Untersuchungsrahmen beruht auf der Vorstellung, dass sowohl destinations- als auch touristenbezogene Eigenschaften bei der Destinationswahl eine Rolle spielen und sich gegenseitig wechselseitig beeinflussen. Aus diesem Grund werden sowohl Destinationsattribute, wie die tatsächliche Situation vor Ort, und Touristeneigenschaften, wie Persönlichkeitsfaktoren (z.B. Risikoaffinität), die kulturelle Zugehörigkeit oder soziodemographische Daten (z.B. Alter) als Einflussfaktoren der Risikowahrnehmung und der sicherheitsbezogenen Destinationsimages in den Untersuchungsrahmen integriert. Zwei weitere Bestandteile des Untersuchungsrahmens sind Informationen aus ‚zweiter Hand' (z.B. Medien, Reiseberichte von Freunden/Verwandten) und persönliche Erfahrungen mit Risiko und dem Reisen selbst. Diese Faktoren wirken als Informationsmittler zwischen der tatsächlichen Sicherheitssituation vor Ort und der Wahrnehmung durch den Touristen, da Touristen nicht in der Lage sind, die Situation direkt zu bewerten und somit ihre Entscheidungen auf solche Informationen stützen.

Abbildung 5. Theoretischer Untersuchungsrahmen zu Risiko(wahrnehmung) und Reiseentscheidung



Quelle: Eigene Darstellung nach Karl & Schmude, 2017

Der theoretische Untersuchungsrahmen bietet die Möglichkeit, das bisher wenig beachtete Zusammenspiel zwischen Tourist und Destination während der Destinationswahl gezielt im Kontext von Risiko und Sicherheit zu erforschen (Kapitel 3.2). Darüber hinaus kann durch eine Umsetzung des theoretischen Untersuchungsrahmens der dynamische Charakter der Destinationswahl berücksichtigt werden, indem konkret persönliche Erfahrungen mit einer Destination in das Modell einfließen. Beispielsweise kann gemessen werden, inwiefern der

Besuch einer risikoreichen Destination die Risikowahrnehmung generell, aber auch in Bezug auf bestimmte Destinationen die Sichtweise der Touristen verändert und wie sich diese Veränderungen auf die Destinationswahl für zukünftige Reisen auswirken. Insbesondere dieser Aspekt wird in Bezug auf die Destination Israel näher beleuchtet (Kapitel 4.3).

3.2 Empirische Befunde und Diskussion zu Risikowahrnehmung und Destinationswahl

Für die Untersuchung des Einflusses der Risikowahrnehmung auf die Destinationswahlprozesse deutscher Touristen wurden mehrere Passantenbefragungen mit standardisierten Fragebögen an öffentlichen Plätzen in München durchgeführt (Tabelle 1). In Kapitel 3.2.1 und 3.2.2 werden die Ergebnisse von zwei Studien vorgestellt, die sich auf die Bedeutung der Risikowahrnehmung in der Destinationswahl deutscher Touristen konzentrieren. Beide Studien legen den Fokus auf Risikofaktoren, die die Gesundheit des Touristen gefährden, da diese besonders starke Einflussfaktoren der Destinationswahl sind (Gray & Wilson, 2009). In beiden empirischen Untersuchungen dient der theoretische Untersuchungsrahmen aus Kapitel 3.1 als Grundlage. Der Destinationsindex (Karl et al., 2015; Kapitel 2.3.2) wird zur Messung von Vertrautheit und Unsicherheit mit einer Destination für die Untersuchung der verschiedenen Stufen der Destinationswahl verwendet. Den Mittelpunkt der ersten Studie stellt die Wahrnehmung von Risikokategorien als Einflussfaktoren der Destinationswahl dar (Kapitel 3.2.1), während in der zweiten Studie besonders auf die Risikoaffinität als Persönlichkeitsfaktor, der die Risikowahrnehmung und Destinationswahl beeinflusst, eingegangen wird (Kapitel 3.2.2). Anschließend werden Schlussfolgerungen aus beiden Studien zu den Einflussfaktoren der Risikowahrnehmung sowie dem Einfluss der Risikowahrnehmung auf die verschiedenen Stufen des Destinationswahlprozesses diskutiert (Kapitel 3.2.3).

3.2.1 Wahrnehmung von Risikokategorien als Einflussfaktoren der Destinationswahl

Die touristische Risikowahrnehmungsforschung konzentriert sich vorwiegend auf fünf Risikokategorien: natürliche Risiken, Gesundheitsrisiken, Kriminalität, politische Instabilität und Terrorismus (Tabelle 6). Die Fokussierung auf diese Risikokategorien kann damit begründet werden, dass das Eintreten von Ereignissen dieser Risikokategorien physische Schäden für den Touristen nach sich ziehen kann und Reiseentscheidungen folglich so getroffen werden, dass diese Risikokategorien möglichst gemieden werden.

Tabelle 6. Risikokategorien in der Tourismusforschung

Risikokategorie	Beispiel	Beispielliteratur
Naturgefahr	Tsunami, Erdbeben	Birkland et al., 2006; Méheux & Parker, 2006; Lehto et al., 2008; Park & Reisinger, 2010
Gesundheitsrisiko	Infektionskrankheiten, mangelnde Hygienebedingungen	Mason et al., 2005; Wall, 2006; Wilks, 2006; Jonas et al., 2011; Chien et al., 2016
Kriminalität	Diebstahl, Mord, Körperverletzung	Ryan, 1993; Prideaux, 1996; Tarlow, 2006; George & Swart, 2012
Politische Instabilität	gewalttätige Demonstrationen	Fletcher & Morakabati, 2008; Varua & Saverimuttu, 2012; Ingram et al., 2013; Alvarez & Campo, 2014; Saha & Yap, 2014
Terrorismus	Bombenanschläge, Entführungen	Richter & Waugh, 1986; Mansfeld, 1999; Sönmez et al., 1999; Kuschel & Schröder, 2002; Pizam & Fleischer, 2002; Aschauer, 2008; Bassil, 2014; Cohen, 2014; Buigut & Amendah, 2016

Quelle: Eigene Zusammenstellung

Da sich viele Studien lediglich mit einer einzelnen Risikokategorie und deren Einfluss auf Destinationswahlprozesse befassen, ist bisher wenig über die Stärke des Einflusses der einzelnen Risikokategorien im Vergleich bekannt. Das Ziel dieser Studie ist es deshalb, zu verstehen, inwieweit diese fünf Risikokategorien (Tabelle 6) sich auf die individuelle Destinationswahl auswirken. Darüber hinaus soll die Frage beantwortet werden, ob Unterschiede in der Bewertung der Risikokategorien zwischen Touristen existieren und welche soziodemographischen und reisebezogenen Merkmale des Touristen sowie Eigenschaften der in Frage kommenden Destinationen als Erklärung herangezogen werden können. Um diesen Fragestellungen nachzugehen, werden die Probanden (empirische Studie aus dem Jahr 2013; n = 835) gefragt, wie wahrscheinlich sie ihre Reisepläne ändern und eine zuvor in Betracht gezogene Destination nicht besuchen, wenn das Risiko bestünde, dass jeweils eine der fünf Risikokategorien eintreten würde[1]. Durch diese Formulierung kann der Einfluss der Risikowahrnehmung in einem sehr frühen Stadium des Destinationswahlprozesses (hier: *initial consideration set*), noch vor der konkreten Entscheidung eine Reise zu unternehmen, untersucht werden.

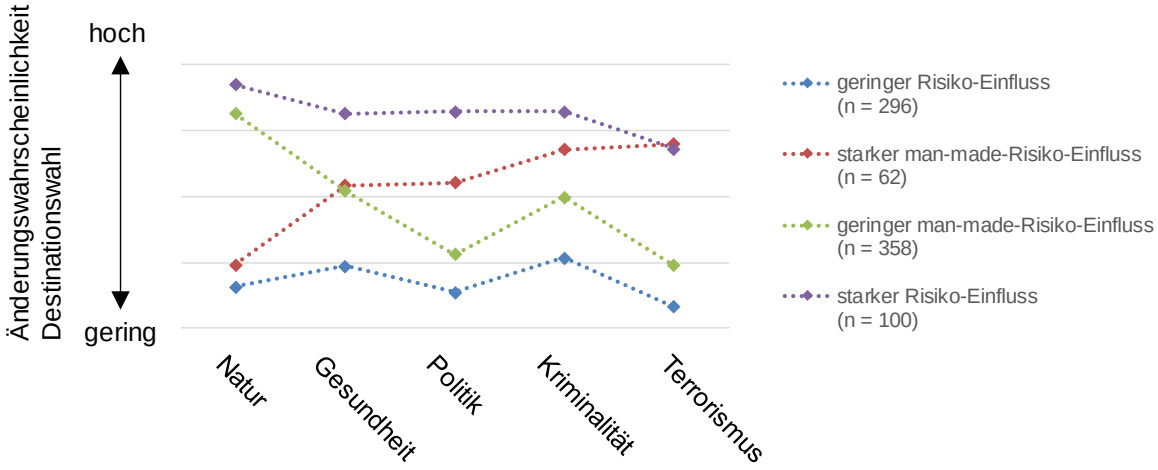
Ein Ergebnis dieser Studie ist, dass die Risikokategorie „Natur“ als stärkster die Destinationswahl beeinflussender Faktor wahrgenommen wird. Dieses Ergebnis steht jedoch im Widerspruch zu vergangenen Studien, welche Terrorismus (Gray & Wilson, 2009) oder *man-made hazards* generell (Sönmez et al., 1999) als stärkste Einflussfaktoren der Reiseentscheidung sehen. Eine Erklärung für diese Beobachtung ist, dass Destinationen, die

[1] Operationalisierung im Fragebogen: „Stellen Sie sich bitte vor, in einem Ihrer Wunschziele würden die folgenden Risiken auftreten, wenn auch nur mit einer geringen Wahrscheinlichkeit. Würden Sie sich dennoch für eine Reise dorthin entscheiden?“ Bewertung in Form einer Likert-Skala.

mit erhöhtem Risiko an *man-made hazards* assoziiert werden, auf der untersuchten Stufe der Destinationswahl von den meisten Befragten nicht mehr berücksichtigt werden. Diese Destinationen werden schon vor der Formung des ersten Reisewunsches aus der Destinationswahl ausgeschlossen und die Probanden entscheiden zwischen wenig risikoreichen bzw. naturrisikoreichen Destinationen. Die unterschiedliche Bewertung der Risikokategorie der Naturgefahren kann damit begründet werden, dass Naturgefahren als leichter kalkulierbar und kontrollierbar eingeschätzt werden. Das heißt, Touristen sehen sich in der Lage, durch eine Anpassung der Destinationswahl solche Risiken zu meiden und berücksichtigen deshalb diese Destination (noch), wohingegen Destinationen bei erhöhtem Risiko von *man-made hazards* direkt aus dem Destinationswahlprozess ausgeschlossen werden. Die Kontrollierbarkeit von Risiken (Dreyer et al., 2001), auch wenn diese nur gefühlt ist (Jonas et al., 2011), führt dazu, dass Risiken als geringer wahrgenommen werden.

Abgesehen von Unterschieden in der Bewertung der Risikokategorien für die gesamte Stichprobe existieren auch Unterschiede hinsichtlich der Bewertung der Risikokategorien zwischen den Touristen. Aus der hier entwickelten Risikowahrnehmungstouristentypologie[2] haben sich vier Touristentypen ergeben (Abbildung 6). Neben zwei gegensätzlichen Touristentypen mit hohem oder geringem Einfluss aller Risikokategorien auf die Destinationswahl haben sich zwei weitere Typen herauskristallisiert, die sich gerade vor dem Hintergrund der Bewertung der Risikokategorie „Natur“ von den anderen Touristentypen unterscheiden.

Abbildung 6. Touristentypologie nach Risikokategorien[3]



Quelle: Eigene Darstellung basierend auf eigener Erhebung im Oktober 2013

Die Untersuchung von Zusammenhängen zwischen der Touristentypologie und den soziodemographischen Eigenschaften der Touristen, deren Reiseverhalten, Risikowahrnehmung und Risikobewertung sowie deren bevorzugten Destinationen verdeutlicht, dass Erklärungen für die Unterschiede in der Bewertung der Risikokategorien aus

[2] Die Typologie basiert auf einer Clusteranalyse (hierarchisch, Ward-Methode) der Items zur Bewertung von Risikokategorien in der Destinationswahl. Güte der Typologie: Die Diskriminanzanalyse zeigt, dass 89,0 Prozent der ursprünglichen gruppierten Fälle ordnungsgemäß klassifiziert sind.

[3] Mittelwerte der Bewertung einzelner Risikokategorien aus Tabelle 6 in Form einer Likert Skala

der Perspektive des Touristen und der Destination abgeleitet werden können. Die Unterschiede zwischen den beiden gegensätzlichen Touristentypen sind besonders stark sichtbar. Beispielsweise sind Touristen, die weniger von Risiko in ihrer Destinationswahl beeinflusst sind, höheren Alters, wohingegen Touristen, die stark beeinflusst werden, eher aus jüngeren Altersklassen stammen. Ein weiteres signifikantes Unterscheidungsmerkmal zwischen den Touristentypen ist das Urlaubsverhalten der befragten Personen. Touristen mit geringem Risikoeinfluss bevorzugen beispielsweise bereits bekannte Reiseziele und Pauschalreisen, wohingegen Touristen mit hohem Risikoeinfluss eher (ihnen) unbekannte Reiseziele und Individualreisen vorziehen. Die Annahme ist, dass Risiko für die erste Gruppe von Touristen auf der untersuchten Stufe der Destinationswahl keine Rolle mehr spielt, da sie besonders interessiert sind an bekannten Reisezielen, vorwiegend sichere Destinationen bereisen und durch die Reiseorganisation in Form von Pauschalreisen weitere Risiken bei der Reise (z.B. Verantwortung für die Sicherheit wird an Reiseveranstalter übertragen) reduzieren können. Gegensätzliches ist bei der zweiten Gruppe von Touristen zu beobachten.

Um den Stellenwert von Risiko im gesamten Destinationswahlprozess genauer zu identifizieren, wird die persönliche Bedeutung von Risiko beim Reisen abgefragt. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass vor allem Touristen mit einem geringen wahrgenommenen Risikoeinfluss auf die Destinationswahl Risiken meiden[4], wenig risikoaffin beim Reisen sind[5] und Risiko als einen bedeutenden Faktor der Reiseentscheidung betrachten[6]. Daraus kann geschlossen werden, dass diese Touristentypen Destinationen mit hohem Risiko bereits vor der Formung des hier untersuchten Destinationswahlsets aus dem Destinationswahlprozess ausschließen. Der gegensätzliche Touristentypus (hoher wahrgenommener Risikoeinfluss) hingegen zieht Reiseziele mit höherem Risikofaktor auf dieser Stufe der Destinationswahl noch als mögliche Destinationen in Betracht, weshalb Risiko als stärkerer Einflussfaktor der Destinationswahl wahrgenommen wird. Die Untersuchung von Risikodestinationen (= Destinationen, die als besonders risikoreich eingestuft werden) bestätigt diese Annahme.

3.2.2 Risikoaffinität und Unsicherheitsvermeidung als Einflussfaktoren der Destinationswahl

Um die Rolle der Risikowahrnehmung differenzierter darstellen zu können, wird in einer weiteren empirischen Untersuchung (Befragungsjahr 2014, n = 402) Risikoaffinität und Unsicherheitsvermeidung in den Vordergrund gestellt. Die touristische Risikotypologie dieser Studie basiert auf der Vorstellung, dass Risikowahrnehmung ein multidimensionales Konstrukt ist (Yang & Nair, 2014), welches mit anderen Aspekten wie Unsicherheitsvermeidung, Streben nach Unbekanntem, Sensationslust und Risikofreude verbunden ist. Das integrierte Untersuchungsdesign, das Selbsteinschätzung von Risikowahrnehmung und tatsächliches Risikoverhalten, destinations- und touristenbezogene Erklärungsvariablen sowie hypothetische und tatsächliche Reisezielentscheidungen kombiniert, erlaubt es, ein umfassenderes Verständnis der Destinationswahl in Bezug auf Risiko zu erhalten und einige Widersprüche in der bisherigen Forschung anzusprechen. Das Ziel dieser Studie ist es,

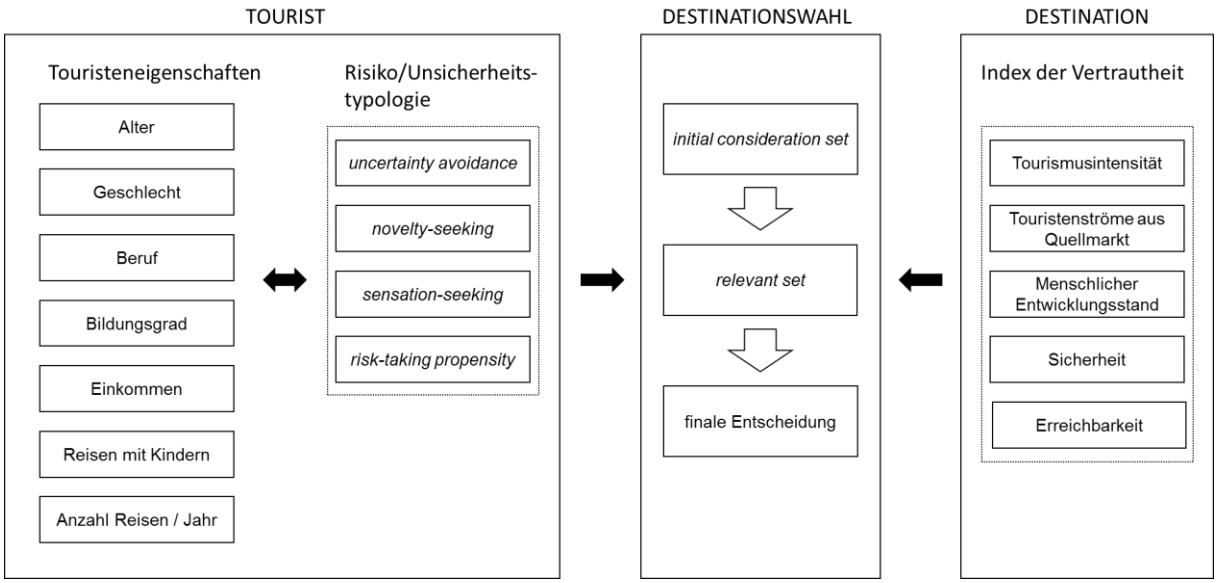
[4] Operationalisierung im Fragebogen: „Ich versuche, mögliche Risiken eines Reiseziels im Vorfeld durch genaue Planung zu vermeiden.“ Bewertung in Form einer Likert-Skala.

[5] Operationalisierung im Fragebogen: „Risiko ist ein besonderer Reiz des Reisens, weshalb ich bestimmte Reiseziele nicht aufgrund eines hohen Risikos ausschließe.“ Bewertung in Form einer Likert-Skala.

[6] Operationalisierung im Fragebogen: „Risiko spielt für mich bei der Wahl des Reiseziels keine Rolle.“ Bewertung in Form einer Likert-Skala.

Unterschiede zwischen Touristen in Bezug auf die Bedeutung von Risiko und Unsicherheit in der Reiseentscheidung aufzuzeigen und mit Hilfe von spezifischen Eigenschaften des Touristen und der (auf verschiedenen Stufen des Destinationswahlprozesses in Betracht gezogenen) Destinationen zu erklären. Daraus ergibt sich das folgende Untersuchungsmodell (Abbildung 7), welches im Rahmen dieser Studie überprüft wird.

Abbildung 7. Untersuchungsmodell der Destinationswahl im Kontext von Risiko(wahrnehmung)



Quelle: Eigene Darstellung nach Karl, 2016

Die Ergebnisse der empirischen Untersuchung zeigen, dass sowohl die soziodemographischen und reiserelevanten Eigenschaften des Touristen (z.B. Alter, Reiseregelmäßigkeit), als auch die bevorzugten Destinationen signifikante Einflussfaktoren der touristischen Risikotypologie sind. Beispielsweise zeichnen sich risikoaffine Touristen im Gegensatz zu risikoaversen Touristen durch einen eher höheren Bildungsgrad, ein geringeres Durchschnittsalter und eine höhere Reiseregelmäßigkeit aus. Hierbei sollte allerdings beachtet werden, dass in vielen Fällen eine Diskrepanz zwischen der eigenen Einschätzung von Risikoaffinität, auf der die Touristentypologie basiert, und dem tatsächlichen Reiseverhalten der Touristen besteht. Dies ist besonders stark bei einer Gruppe von jungen Touristen mit dementsprechend noch wenig Reiseerfahrung erkennbar, die sich selbst als risikoaffine Reiseentscheider betrachten. Diese Touristen setzen jedoch ihre eigentlichen Reisewünsche (bisher) nicht um und bereisen weitgehend wenig risikoreiche Destinationen. Es liegt nahe anzunehmen, dass diese Touristen in Zukunft ihr Reiseverhalten ändern und durch das Sammeln von Reiseerfahrung zunehmend risikoreichere Destinationen besuchen werden oder sich ihr persönliches Eigenbild hin zu einer risikoaverseren Einschätzung verändern wird. Ein weiterer Faktor, der die touristische Risikotypologie beeinflusst, ist die aktuelle Lebensphase eines Touristen. Insbesondere Touristen, die mit Kleinkindern reisen, sind eher risikoavers, da sie nicht nur die Verantwortung für sich selbst, sondern auch für die Sicherheit ihre Kinder übernehmen und somit ihre Reiseentscheidung dementsprechend anpassen.

Auf der Ebene der Destination existieren große Unterschiede zwischen den Risikotypen bei hypothetischen Wunschreisezielen. Diese Unterschiede werden während des Destinationswahlprozesses immer geringer und sind bei der Wahl von tatsächlichen

Reisezielen für eine bestimmte Urlaubsreise wenig ausgeprägt. Daraus kann abgeleitet werden, dass Risikowahrnehmung, die als intrapersoneller *travel constraint*[7] (= Reisehemmnis) betrachtet wird, bei der Herausbildung eines hypothetischen Reisewunsches zu Beginn des Destinationswahlprozesses eine wesentliche Rolle spielt. *Travel constraints*, die am Ende des Prozesses stärker in den Vordergrund treten, sind vor allem strukturelle Hemmnisse wie die finanzielle Situation (Karl et al., 2015), die die Auswahl von näheren Reisezielen begünstigen. Diese sind im deutschen Quellmarkt weitgehend sehr sichere Reiseziele, weshalb hier die Risikowahrnehmung als Einflussfaktor eine weniger entscheidende Rolle spielt.

3.2.3 Diskussion der Rolle von Risiko(wahrnehmung) im Destinationswahlprozess

Dieser Ausschnitt aus den Ergebnissen der eigenen empirischen Untersuchungen verdeutlicht die wechselseitige Beziehung während der Destinationswahl zwischen den Eigenschaften der Destination, die ein Tourist auf verschiedenen Stufen des Destinationswahlprozesses in Betracht zieht, und der persönlichen Bewertung und Wahrnehmung von Risiken beim Reisen durch den Touristen. Je nach Risikoakzeptanz der Touristen werden Destinationen mit einem unterschiedlichem Grad an Risiko (ausgelöst durch mangelnde Vertrautheit, siehe Destinationsindex aus Kapitel 2.3.2 bzw. Karl et al., 2015) in bestimmten Bereichen des Destinationswahlprozesses in Erwägung gezogen. Das heißt, je nach individuell unterschiedlicher Risikowahrnehmung und Risikoaffinität entscheiden Touristen, ob eine Destination eine Stufe weiter in Richtung der finalen Destinationswahl kommt, oder ob sie auf einer bestimmten Stufe aus dem Auswahlprozess ausgeschlossen wird. Bei der letzten Entscheidung, welche Destination als Urlaubsziel ausgewählt wird, spielt Risiko für den Großteil der Touristen jedoch eine untergeordnete Rolle, da hier im Wesentlichen sichere Reiseziele ausgewählt werden und stark risikoreiche Reiseziele nur für einen sehr geringen Anteil der Touristen relevant sind. Dies wird durch die besondere Bedeutung der Destination Deutschland bei der Einschätzung von sicheren Reisezielen[8] verdeutlicht (Tabelle 7).

[7] Hierarchische Einteilung der Reisehemmnisse nach der Theorie der leisure constraints von Crawford et al. (1991): intrapersonell, interpersonell, strukturell.

[8] Operationalisierung im Fragebogen: „Bitte nennen Sie bis zu drei Reiseziele, die Sie persönlich als aktuell besonders sicher einschätzen. (*Es geht bei dieser Frage um Reiseziele und nicht Länder im Allgemeinen*.)“

Tabelle 7. Top 10 sicherer Reiseziele aus Sicht deutscher Touristen

	Oktober 2013 (N = 2.233)			Juni 2014 (N = 1.022)			Oktober 2015 (N = 655)		
		N	Anteil		N	Anteil		N	Anteil
1	Europa	259	11,6 %	***Deutschland***	***175***	***17,1 %***	***Deutschland***	***87***	***13,3 %***
2	***Deutschland***	***258***	***11,6 %***	Italien	96	9,4 %	Schweiz	62	9,5 %
3	Österreich	164	7,3 %	Österreich	96	9,4 %	Österreich	57	8,7 %
4	Italien	156	7,0 %	Schweiz	84	8,2 %	Europa	42	6,4 %
5	USA	140	6,3 %	Europa	79	7,7 %	Italien	40	6,1 %
6	Schweiz	137	6,1 %	Frankreich	69	6,8 %	Schweden	37	5,6 %
7	Schweden	132	5,9 %	Großbritannien	49	4,8 %	Großbritannien	33	5,0 %
8	Norwegen	119	5,3 %	Schweden	47	4,6 %	Frankreich	32	4,9 %
9	Frankreich	116	5,2 %	USA	46	4,5 %	USA	29	4,4 %
10	Spanien	88	3,9 %	Spanien	44	4,3 %	Kanada	28	4,3 %

Quelle: Eigene Berechnung basierend auf Erhebungen von Oktober 2013, Juni 2014 und Oktober 2015

Eine zentrale Frage dieser Dissertation ist, zu welchem Zeitpunkt oder auf welcher Stufe Risiko und Risikowahrnehmung den Destinationswahlprozess beeinflussen. Die Ergebnisse offenbaren, dass Risikowahrnehmung sich an verschiedenen Stellen auf den Destinationswahlprozess auswirkt. Beispielsweise entscheiden sich Touristen mit hoher Risikoaversität schon vor der eigentlichen Initiation des Destinationswahlprozesses (unbewusst) gegen risikoreiche Reiseziele. Diese Touristen beziehen risikoreiche Reiseziele überhaupt nicht in die Destinationswahl ein und sind sich oftmals nicht darüber bewusst, dass diese risikoreichen Reiseziele theoretisch auch als Destination zu Verfügung stehen (= *unawareness set*). Hingegen sehen Touristen mit einer höheren Risikoaffinität diese Reiseziele durchaus als potenzielle zukünftige Destinationen (= *initial/future consideration set*), berücksichtigen in dem tatsächlichen Auswahlprozess jedoch ausschließlich risikoarme Destinationen. Eine weitere Steigerung der Risikoaffinität führt dazu, dass risikoreiche Destinationen für eine konkrete Reise in Betracht gezogen werden (= *relevant set*). Touristen mit der höchsten Risikoaffinität setzen diese Reiseziele schließlich tatsächlich in ihren Reiseentscheidungen um. Das heißt, je nach Risikoaffinität werden Risiken unterschiedlich wahrgenommen und folglich der Destinationswahlprozess und die finale Reisezielentscheidung geprägt. Die Destinationswahl selbst stellt jedoch nur einen Teilabschnitt der gesamten touristischen Reiseentscheidung dar und auch die anderen Teilentscheidungen (z.B. Wahl des Transportmittels, der Reiseorganisation, der Reiselänge) werden von Risikowahrnehmung und Risikoaffinität beeinflusst (Karl & Reintinger, 2016). Durch die Wahl von organisierten Gruppenreisen anstelle von Individualreisen als Form der Reiseorganisation können beispielsweise Risiken, die in der Destination auftreten, kompensiert werden. So reisten im Jahr 2014 82 Prozent der Erstbesucher und lediglich 18 Prozent der Wiederholungsbesucher im Rahmen einer Gruppenreise nach Israel (Ministry of Tourism Israel, 2016). Dies lässt vermuten, dass der Besuch der Destination und die eigene Erfahrung zu einer veränderten Risikowahrnehmung geführt haben was den Wiederbesuch im Rahmen einer Gruppenreise nicht notwendig erscheinen lässt. Dieser Einfluss der spezifischen und generellen Reiseerfahrung wird im folgenden Kapitel, welches sich explizit mit dem Fallbeispiel Israel auseinandersetzt, stärker diskutiert.

4 Einfluss von Risiko(wahrnehmung) auf die Destinationswahl – Fallbeispiel Israel

Um den Einfluss von Risiko(wahrnehmung) auf die Destinationswahl besser zu verstehen, wird die Destination Israel als Fallbeispiel für eine als risikoreich wahrgenommene Destination (Kapitel 4.1), näher betrachtet. Dabei wird der Zusammenhang zwischen Risiko und Destinationswahl zunächst aus makroperspektivischer Sicht analysiert (Kapitel 4.2), um durch Risiko ausgelöste Veränderungen in Reiseströmen zu verstehen. Die anschließende mikroperspektivische Betrachtung (Kapitel 4.3) erlaubt es, die zuvor auf der Makroebene festgestellten Beziehungen zwischen Risiko und Tourismus auf der individuellen Ebene des Touristen nachzuvollziehen und insbesondere den Faktor Reiseerfahrung näher zu untersuchen.

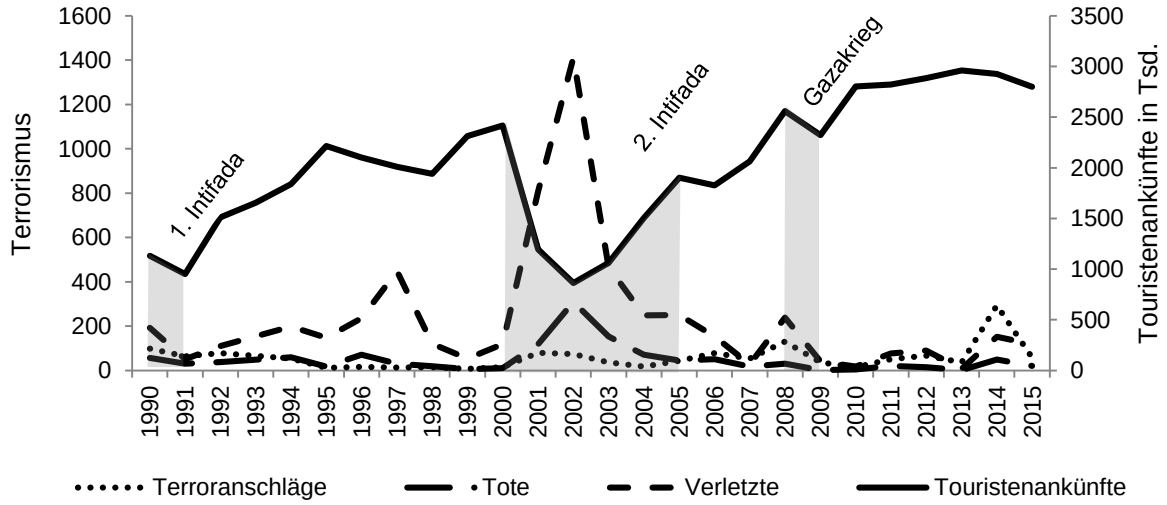
4.1 Begründung und Vorstellung des Fallbeispieles Israel

Die als relativ risikoreich wahrgenommene Destination Israel eignet sich aus folgenden Gründen als Zielgebiet für diese Studie: vielfältiges touristisches Angebot (u.a. Kulturtourismus, Pilgertourismus, Gesundheitstourismus, Bade-/Erholungstourismus), hoch entwickelte (touristische) Infrastruktur (Mansfeld, 1999; Fleischer & Buccola, 2002) und andauernde Sicherheitsproblematik mit umfassender medialer Darstellung. Die wiederholten sicherheitsrelevanten Vorfälle in der Vergangenheit, beispielsweise terroristische Anschläge, haben die Sicherheitswahrnehmung der Destination Israel und die Entwicklung des Tourismus in Israel beeinflusst (Mansfeld, 1999; Sönmez et al., 1999). Nach einem sicherheitsrelevanten Ereignis gehen die Touristenankünfte zunächst zurück, jedoch kommt es nach einiger Zeit zu einem erneuten Anstieg der Touristenankünfte. Eine Erklärung für diese Entwicklung ist das besondere touristische Angebot, das Israel von anderen Destinationen unterscheidet. Klassische mediterrane Sommer-Sonne-Strand-Destinationen wären stärker bzw. nachhaltiger von sicherheitsrelevanten Ereignissen beeinflusst, da die Anziehungspunkte dieser Destinationen vielfach auch in anderen Destinationen zur Verfügung stehen (Neumayer, 2004) und somit eine erhöhte Austauschbarkeit der Destinationen besteht. Durch die einzigartigen religiösen, aber auch kulturellen Sehenswürdigkeiten besitzt die Destination Israel ein Alleinstellungsmerkmal (v.a. für den Pilger- und Kulturtourismus), das dazu führt, dass Touristen die Destination Israel trotz der andauernden Sicherheitsproblematik in Betracht ziehen und tatsächlich besuchen. Es ist anzunehmen, dass Israel ohne dieses Alleinstellungsmerkmal bei vielen (potenziellen) Touristen schon lange aus dem Set an relevanten alternativen Reisezielen ausgeschlossen worden wäre.

Die wiederkehrende Sicherheitsproblematik und das Alleinstellungsmerkmal Israels resultieren in einer fluktuierenden Struktur der touristischen Entwicklung (Abbildung 8), die die Destination Israel besonders als Untersuchungsobjekt für die Thematik Sicherheit und Tourismus qualifiziert (z.B. Mansfeld, 1999; Fleischer & Buccola, 2002; Pizam & Fleischer, 2002; Israeli & Reichel, 2006; Mansfeld & Korman, 2015). Der Fokus auf den Terrorismus als Auslöser von Veränderungen in touristischen Reiseströmen lässt sich mit der besonderen Bedeutung von Terrorismus als einer der stärksten Einflussfaktoren der Reiseentscheidung (Gray & Wilson, 2009) begründen. Richter und Waugh (1986) gehen sogar davon aus, dass Tourismus und Terrorismus als „logical companions“ betrachtet werden können, da terroristische Anschläge beispielsweise in vielen Fällen gezielt in touristischen Regionen eines

Landes durchgeführt werden, um die mediale Aufmerksamkeit für die Ziele der Terroristen zu erhöhen.

Abbildung 8. Zusammenhang zwischen Tourismus und Terrorismus in Israel (1990 – 2015)



Quelle: Eigene Darstellung nach CBS, 2000-2015; START, 2016

Mansfeld (1999) verdeutlicht den Zusammenhang zwischen touristischer Nachfrage und Krieg bzw. Terrorismus in Israel anhand von sich stets wiederholenden „Cycles of War“. Diese wiederholten sicherheitsrelevanten Ereignisse in Israel sind besonders gravierend für die Entwicklung des Tourismus, da einmalige schwerwiegende Ereignisse (z.B. Terroranschläge in New York vom 11. September 2001) oftmals kurzfristig einen starken Einfluss haben, dauerhafte und mehrmalige Sicherheitsereignisse jedoch langfristig zu einer stärkeren negativen Entwicklung der Touristenankünfte führen (Pizam & Fleischer, 2002). “Random acts of terrorism curtail travel activity until the public’s memories of the publicized incidents fade. Persistent terrorism, however, can tarnish a destination’s image of safety and attractiveness and jeopardize its entire tourism industry” (Sönmez et al., 1999, 13). Die langfristigen Effekte von Terrorismus und Risikowahrnehmung auf den Tourismus, besonders auf das Sicherheitsimage einer Destination, werden in der vorliegenden Dissertation für die Destination Israel bestätigt (Kapitel 4.3.1). Israel wird in mehreren Befragungen in München als eine der zehn risikoreichsten Destinationen eingeschätzt (Tabelle 8).

Tabelle 8. Top 10 risikoreicher Reiseziele[9] aus Sicht deutscher Touristen

	Oktober 2013 (N = 1.987)			Juni 2014 (N = 1.011)			Oktober 2015 (N = 625)		
		N	Anteil		N	Anteil		N	Anteil
1	Ägypten	463	23,3%	Ägypten	131	13,0%	Syrien	138	22,1%
2	Syrien	298	15,0%	Syrien	109	10,8%	Ägypten	41	6,6%
3	Afghanistan	91	4,6%	Ukraine	106	10,5%	Irak	40	6,4%
4	Naher Osten	91	4,6%	Irak	70	6,9%	Afghanistan	31	5,0%
5	Irak	75	3,8%	Afghanistan	41	4,1%	***Israel***	***28***	***4,5%***
6	***Israel***	***72***	***3,6%***	Thailand	41	4,1%	Naher Osten	27	4,3%
7	Iran	64	3,2%	Iran	33	3,3%	Ukraine	26	4,2%
8	Afrika	64	3,2%	Indien	31	3,1%	Iran	22	3,5%
9	Jemen	62	3,1%	***Israel***	***30***	***3,0%***	Afrika	21	3,4%
10	Türkei	39	2,0%	Afrika	28	2,8%	Türkei	20	3,2%

Quelle: Eigene Berechnung basierend auf Erhebungen von Oktober 2013, Juni 2014 und Oktober 2015

Insbesondere zwei Gründe sprechen für die Auswahl der Destination Israel hinsichtlich einer Untersuchung des deutschen Quellmarktes. Zunächst sind die Eigenschaften des Quellmarktes bzw. deutscher Touristen zu nennen:

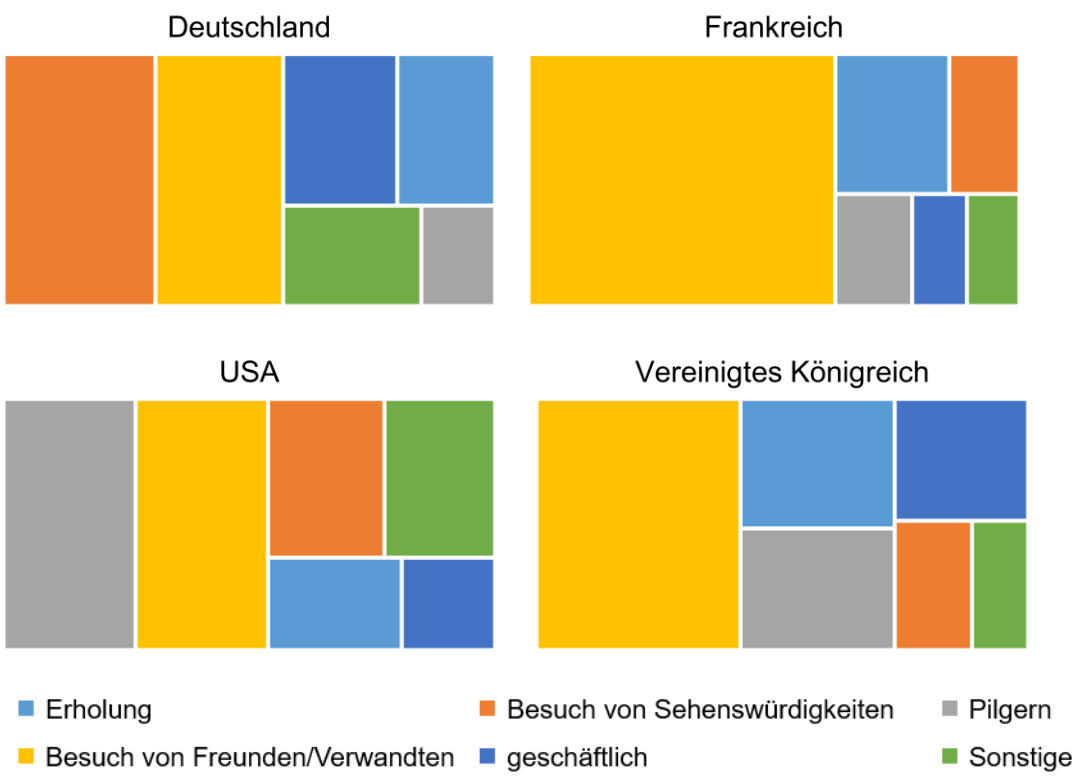
- relativ wenig Erfahrung mit Risiko durch ein geringes Niveau an Sicherheitsrisiken in Deutschland (Control Risks Group Holdings Ltd, 2013),
- eher risikoaverses Reiseverhalten der Deutschen (Sonnenberg & Wöhler, 2004),
- relativ hohe Risikowahrnehmung, besonders in Bezug auf Israel (Fuchs & Reichel, 2004),
- große internationale Reiseerfahrung (Anteil der Auslandsreisen bei durchschnittlich 69 Prozent in den letzten 15 Jahren, FUR, 2001-2016).

Der zweite Grund ist die besondere Bedeutung von Deutschland innerhalb aller internationalen Touristenankünfte in Israel. Deutschland ist seit vielen Jahren ein wichtiger Quellmarkt für den israelischen Inbound-Tourismus. Im Jahr 2015 entfallen 10,6 Prozent der europäischen Besucher in Israel, inklusive Kreuzfahrttouristen, auf Deutschland (CBS, 2016). Bezogen auf die gesamten internationalen Touristenankünfte in Israel im Jahr 2015 ist Deutschland mit 6,4 Prozent zusammen mit dem Vereinigten Königreich nach den USA, Russland und Frankreich viertwichtigster Quellmarkt (CBS, 2016). Bei diesen Quellländern handelt es sich jedoch meist um ethnischen Tourismus mit einer besonderen Motivstruktur (Besuch von Freunden und Verwandten, religiöser Hintergrund), die von Effekten sicherheitsrelevanter Ereignisse weniger betroffen sind (Neubarth, 2013[10]). Dahingegen steht bei deutschen Touristen eher eine klassische Reisemotivation (Besuch von Sehenswürdigkeiten) im Vordergrund (Abbildung 9; Ministry of Tourism Israel, 2016).

[9] Operationalisierung in Fragebogen: „Bitte nennen Sie bis zu drei Reiseziele, die Sie persönlich als aktuell besonders risikoreich einschätzen. (*Es geht bei dieser Frage um Reiseziele und nicht Länder im Allgemeinen*.)“

[10] Gruppendiskussion mit Jürgen Neubarth, Bereichsleiter Israel/Palästina, Bayerisches Pilgerbüro, Juli 2013

Abbildung 9. Hauptreisegrund für Israelreisen, ausgewählte Herkunftsländer (2015)



Quelle: Eigene Darstellung nach Ministry of Tourism Israel, 2016

4.2 Makroperspektivische Betrachtung des Einflusses von Risiko(wahrnehmung) auf die Destination Israel

Für die Analyse des Einflusses von Risiko auf die touristische Entwicklung der Destination Israel aus makroperspektivischer Sicht wird eine Zeitreihenanalyse der Touristenankünfte in Israel durchgeführt. Diese konzentriert sich hauptsächlich auf die zeitliche Dimension der Effekte von Terrorismus auf die touristische Nachfrage, da diese bisher nur in wenigen Studien berücksichtigt werden (Enders & Sandler, 1991; Enders et al., 1992; Pizam & Smith, 2000; Sloboda, 2003; Neumayer, 2004). Der Großteil der (v.a. neueren) Studien legt den Fokus auf die Untersuchung von Zusammenhängen zwischen Terrorismus und Tourismus im internationalen Vergleich (Enders et al., 1992; Drakos & Kutan, 2003; Neumayer, 2004; Thompson, 2011; Saha & Yap, 2014) oder im Vergleich mit anderen Einflussfaktoren der touristischen Entwicklung, wie beispielsweise ökonomischen Faktoren (Enders & Sandler, 1991; Mansfeld, 1999; Pizam & Fleischer, 2002; Sloboda, 2003; Raza & Jawaid, 2013; Buigut & Amendah, 2016).

Ziel dieser Studie ist deshalb, die zeitliche Verzögerung zwischen einem terroristischen Anschlag und dem Nachfragerückgang sowie die Erholungszeit nach einem terroristischen Anschlag in Israel differenzierter zu behandeln. Um dieses Ziel zu erreichen, wird ein Untersuchungsmodell entwickelt, das sowohl kurzzeitige als auch längerfristige Effekte einschließt und dabei destinations- und quellmarktspezifische Variablen als Einflussfaktoren der Destinationswahl berücksichtigt. Grundsätzlich existieren zwei Möglichkeiten der quantitativen Zeitreihenanalyse (Song & Li, 2008): nicht-kausale (z.B. ARIMA) und

ökonometrische (z.B. Regressionsanalyse) Zeitreihenanalysen. Nicht-kausale Zeitreihenanalysen eignen sich dazu, zukünftige Nachfrage zu prognostizieren, sind aber in der vorliegenden Arbeit nicht verwendbar, da der Faktor Terrorismus kaum regelmäßigen Gesetzen folgt und Prognosen demnach nicht sinnvoll sind. Aus diesem Grund werden in dieser Studie kausale ökonometrische Zeitreihenanalysen (hier: Regressionsmodelle) verwendet, die es ermöglichen, Beziehungen zwischen touristischer Entwicklung und anderen Faktoren (hier: Terrorismus) zu identifizieren.

Für die detaillierte Untersuchung der zeitlichen Dimension von Effekten des Terrorismus auf die touristische Entwicklung werden mehrere Indikatoren überprüft (Tabelle 9).

Tabelle 9. Zusammenhang zwischen Tourismus, Terrorismus und medialer Repräsentation für die Destination Israel

	Tourismus[11]		**Terrorismus[12]**			**Medien[13]**
	Ankünfte_D	**Ankünfte_ges**	**Anschläge**	**Tote**	**Verletzte**	**Artikelzahl**
Tourismus						
Ankünfte_D	1	0,89**	-0,25**	-0,56**	-0,50**	-,652**
Ankünfte_ges	0,89**	1	-0,17*	-0,53**	-0,47**	-0,70**
Terrorismus						
Anschläge	-0,25**	-0,17*	1	0,53**	0,63**	0,28**
Tote	-0,56**	-0,53**	0,53**	1	0,76**	0,55**
Verletzte	-0,50**	-0,47**	0,63**	0,76**	1	0,55**
Medien						
Artikelzahl	-0,65**	-0,70**	0,28**	0,55**	0,55**	1

Korrelationskoeffizient nach Spearman; ** Korrelation ist bei Niveau 0,01 signifikant (zweiseitig); * Korrelation ist bei Niveau 0,05 signifikant (zweiseitig).

Quelle: Eigene Berechnung

Um Kollinearität zu vermeiden und die Anzahl der Variablen im Untersuchungsmodell gering zu halten, ist die Auswahl jeweils eines Indikators für Terrorismus und Tourismus für die Entwicklung des Untersuchungsmodells sinnvoll. Der Faktor Terrorismus wird mit der Anzahl der Toten durch terroristische Anschläge in Israel abgebildet. Alle Daten zu Terrorismus werden aus der Global Terrorism Database des National Consortium for the Study of Terrorism and Responses to Terrorism (START) entnommen. Eine Einschränkung dieser Datenquelle ist, dass sie auf Medienberichten zu terroristischen Anschlägen beruht und bestimmte Anschläge in den Medien stärker vertreten sind oder Länder mit eingeschränkter Pressefreiheit keine Informationen preisgeben (LaFree & Dugan, 2007). Da Risikowahrnehmung als

[11] Datenquelle: Statistisches Bundesamt Israel; CBS (2000-2015); Ankünfte_D = Touristenankünfte in Israel aus Deutschland; Ankünfte_ges = internationale Touristenankünfte in Israel

[12] Datenquelle: Global Terrorism Database des National Consortium for the Study of Terrorism and Responses to Terrorism; START (2016); Anschläge = Anzahl der terroristischen Anschläge; Tote = Todeszahlen durch terroristische Anschläge; Verletzte = Anzahl der Verletzten durch terroristische Anschläge

[13] Datenquelle: Eigene Erhebung der Anzahl der Artikel in der Süddeutschen Zeitung mit Suchfunktion „Israel UND Palästin*“. Die Auswahl der Süddeutschen Zeitung als einzige mediale Quelle beruht auf der Funktion der Süddeutschen Zeitung als Leitmedium in Deutschland, die somit als Referenz für die gesamte mediale Darstellung verwendet werden kann (Gespräch mit Prof. Dr. Romy Fröhlich, Institut für Kommunikationswissenschaft und Medienforschung, LMU München, 24.11.2015).

entscheidender Einflussfaktor der Destinationswahl jedoch oftmals von der medialen Darstellung geprägt ist (Cousins & Brunt, 2002), wurde diese Einschränkung der Datenquelle als akzeptabel angenommen. Für die touristische Nachfrage wird die Anzahl der Ankünfte aus Deutschland ausgewählt, die beim Statistischen Bundesamt Israels zur Verfügung stehen. Durch die Auswahl eines einzelnen Quellmarktes und einer Destination können spezifische, den Quellmarkt bzw. die Destination betreffende Einflussfaktoren differenzierter bewertet werden. Folgende Aspekte werden als Kontroll- und Einflussvariablen in das Regressionsmodell integriert:

- Wirtschaftslage: bilaterale reale Wechselkurse (EUR/ILS),
- Reiseaktivität: Anteil der Auslandsreisen an allen Reisen deutscher Touristen,
- zeitliche Veränderungen: Langzeittrend und Saisonalität der Touristenankünfte aus Deutschland,
- religiöse Bedeutung der Destination Israel: Zeitpunkt des Osterfestes.

Als Untersuchungszeitraum wird Januar 2000 bis Dezember 2014 festgelegt, um sowohl friedliche, als auch unruhige Zeiten (z.B. Zweite Intifada) abzudecken. Durch die Auswahl eines Zeitraumes mit mehreren Unruhephasen können Erkenntnisse zum Einfluss des Terrorismus auf den Tourismus gewonnen werden, die über Studien, die sich auf ein einzelnes Ereignis konzentrieren, hinausgehen. Beispielsweise belegt diese Studie, dass der Effekt von Terrorismus nicht auf einen Zeitraum limitiert ist, sondern sowohl direkt (Kurzzeiteffekt ohne zeitliche Verzögerung) als auch mit einer zeitlichen Verzögerung von einem bzw. sogar nach zwei bis sechs Monaten wirksam ist. Die Studie verdeutlicht darüber hinaus, dass Terrorismus als Einflussfaktor der touristischen Entwicklung einer Destination eine besondere Rolle spielt und andere Determinanten der Reiseentscheidung (z.B. finanzielle Faktoren) übertrifft (Karl et al., 2016): Von den in das Regressionsmodell integrierten Kontrollvariablen ist lediglich der Langzeittrend (d.h. langfristig steigende Touristenankünfte aus Deutschland) signifikant. Die fehlende Relevanz der anderen quellmarkt- und destinationsbezogenen Kontrollvariablen impliziert, dass in Zeiten, in denen das Risiko eines terroristischen Anschlages erhöht ist, beispielsweise auch durch Preisreduzierungen keine Steigerung der touristischen Ankünfte in Israel erzielt werden können. Da neben den in diesem Regressionsmodell berechneten Effekten nachrangige Langzeiteffekte zu erwarten sind, die auf einer veränderten Wahrnehmung der Destination beruhen und zu einem Ausschluss der Destination Israel aus dem aktiven Destinationswahlprozess des Touristen führen, wird die Wahrnehmung der Destination Israel aus mikroperspektivischer Sicht in Bezug auf Risiko und Sicherheit in Kapitel 4.3 ausführlicher betrachtet.

Die im Zuge dieser Dissertation durchgeführten, leitfadengestützten Interviews in fünf touristischen Regionen Israels (Tabelle 1) lassen erkennen, dass einzelne Teildestinationen innerhalb Israels unterschiedlich stark von touristischen Krisen, ausgelöst durch sicherheitsrelevante Ereignisse, betroffen sind. Die fünf ausgewählten Regionen in Israel werden besonders stark von Touristen mit ähnlichen Reisemotiven besucht und die Tourismusindustrie hat sich in der Folge weitgehend auf eines oder mehrere bestimmte Marktsegmente eingestellt:

- Haifa – Geschäftsreise und Kreuzfahrttourismus,
- Eilat – Sommer-Sonne-Strand,
- Jerusalem – Kultur- und Pilgertourismus,
- Tel Aviv – Partytourismus, LGBT Tourism, Wochenendtrips,
- Totes Meer – Gesundheitstourismus.

Eilat am Roten Meer beispielsweise, eine Destination mit einer Konzentration auf den Badetourismus, konnte sich nicht von der touristischen Krise im Zuge der zweiten Intifada erholen, da die Touristen dauerhaft auf Substitutionsdestinationen (v.a. Ägypten) ausgewichen sind (Kandelker, 2013[14]; Shay, 2013[15]). Neben der israelweiten Betrachtung des Einflusses von Terrorismus auf die touristische Entwicklung sollten deshalb in einem weiteren Schritt einzelne Regionen und dort vorherrschende Marktsegmente differenzierter analysiert werden. Eine solche Untersuchung trägt dazu bei, die Bedeutung der Reisemotive als Einflussfaktor in dem Wirkungsgefüge zwischen Terrorismus und Tourismus besser zu verstehen, die laut Dreyer et al. (2001, 22) die Austauschbarkeit von Destinationen beeinflussen. Beispielsweise wird für einen Badeurlaub am Mittelmeer problemlos ein adäquates Substitutionsziel gefunden (Dreyer et al., 2001, 22), wohingegen sich dies für Studienreisen mit gewissen Anforderungen an die Destination (z.B. Sehenswürdigkeiten mit hohem Grad an Anziehungskraft) schwieriger gestaltet.

4.3 Mikroperspektivische Betrachtung des Einflusses von Risiko(wahrnehmung) auf die Destination Israel

Das Ziel der mikroperspektivischen Analyse ist es, den Einfluss der Risiko(wahrnehmung) auf die Destination Israel zu untersuchen und Zusammenhänge zwischen der Wahrnehmung von Sicherheit und spezifischen Einflussfaktoren auf Touristenebene zu verstehen. Dafür werden die Daten aus einer Passantenbefragung in München zu Risiko- und Sicherheitswahrnehmung, sowie Reiseentscheidung und Destinationswahl, u.a. in Bezug auf die Destination Israel, verwendet (Empirische Erhebung, April 2016, n = 429). Die in diesem Kapitel diskutierten Aspekte zu Sicherheitswahrnehmung beziehen sich jeweils nur auf die Destination Israel. Zunächst wird der Stellenwert von Risiko und die Wahrnehmung und Bewertung von Sicherheit der Destination Israel anhand des Destinationsimages[16] sowie der Bedenken bei der Reiseentscheidung[17] und der Einschätzung der Sicherheitslage[18] aufgezeigt (Kapitel 4.3.1). Die Entscheidung, im Fragebogen auf das Konzept der Sicherheit anstelle der Wahrnehmung von Risiko zurückzugreifen, wird damit begründet, dass Risiko mit seinen unterschiedlichen Definitionen (Karl & Schmude, 2017) relativ abstrakt und schwer greifbar ist, wohingegen das Konzept der Sicherheit für den Touristen leichter nachvollziehbar und für die Fragestellung dieser quantitativen Passantenbefragung besser umsetzbar ist. Basierend auf den allgemeinen Ergebnissen zur Wahrnehmung und Bewertung von Sicherheit für die Destination Israel wird der Fragestellung nachgegangen, inwieweit soziodemographische und reiserelevante Faktoren die Bewertung und Wahrnehmung von Risiko und Sicherheit beeinflussen (Kapitel 4.3.2). Dabei wird Reiseerfahrung, sowohl mit der Destination Israel als auch generell, aufgegriffen, um den Einfluss der persönlichen Erfahrung als Mittler zwischen

[14] Interview mit Avi Kandelker, Direktor Eilat Tourist Office, Ministry of Tourism Israel, Mai 2013

[15] Interview mit Shabtai Shay, General Manager, Eilat Hotel Association, Mai 2013

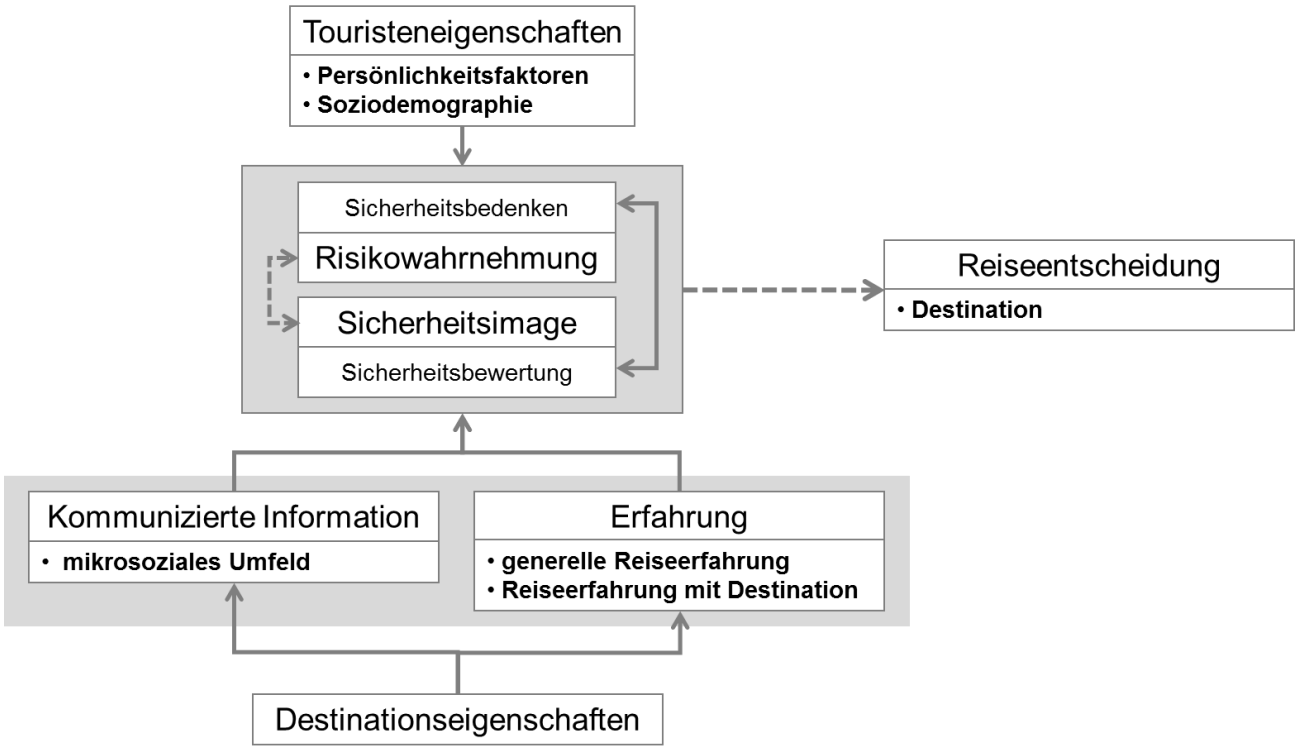
[16] Operationalisierung im Fragebogen: „Was fällt Ihnen spontan ein, wenn Sie an Israel als Reiseziel denken?“

[17] Operationalisierung im Fragebogen: „Bei der Entscheidung nach Israel zu reisen hätte ich Bedenken bezüglich der folgenden Aspekte: 1. Die Sicherheitssituation in Israel, 2. Die Politik Israels / politische Situation, 3. Ökonomische Überlegungen, Reisekosten, 4. Akzeptanz von Freunden, Bekannten und Familienangehörigen, 5. Die deutsch-israelische Vergangenheit“

[18] Operationalisierung im Fragebogen: „Wie schätzen Sie die Sicherheitslage in Israel ein? 1. Sicherheitslage in Israel generell, 2. Sicherheitslage für Touristen in Israel generell, 3. Sicherheitslage für Touristen an touristischen Orten, 4. Sicherheitslage in Bezug auf terroristische Anschläge, 5. Sicherheitslage in Grenzgebieten, 6. Sicherheitslage in palästinensischen Autonomiegebieten“

tatsächlicher Situation und Risiko- bzw. Sicherheitswahrnehmung (Abbildung 10; Anpassung des theoretischen Untersuchungsrahmens aus Abbildung 5) zu untersuchen.

Abbildung 10. Untersuchungsmodell zu Risiko(wahrnehmung), Reiseerfahrung und Destinationswahl



Quelle: Eigene Darstellung basierend auf Karl & Schmude, 2017

4.3.1 Bedeutung von Risiko und Sicherheit für die Destination Israel

Um die Bedeutung von Risiko und Sicherheit für die Destination Israel auf der Ebene des Touristen während der Destinationswahl besser zu verstehen, werden die drei Aspekte Destinationsimage, Reisebedenken und Sicherheitseinschätzung zunächst für die gesamte Destination Israel analysiert.

Die Destinations- und Sicherheitsimages[16] der Probanden werden mit der Methode der freien Assoziationen (d.h. nicht-geleitete Äußerungen von Begriffen zu einer bestimmten Thematik; Reilly, 1990; Ribeiro, 2012) abgefragt. Diese Methodik bietet sich aus mehreren Gründen an, um den Einfluss von Risikowahrnehmung auf die Destinationswahl zu untersuchen. Zunächst eignen sich freie Assoziationen als Einstieg für tiefergehende quantitative Analysen (Ribeiro, 2012) und können einen ersten Einblick in die Thematik verschaffen. Darüber hinaus hat der Einsatz der freien Assoziation in der Anthropologie und Psychologie verdeutlicht, dass sich diese Methode besonders dazu eignet, soziale Erfahrungen und Phänomene aus der Sicht des Probanden zu verstehen (Ribeiro, 2012). Die in freien Assoziationen genannten Begriffe sind für den Probanden selbst von Bedeutung und nicht durch den Wissenschaftler vorgegeben (Reilly, 1990). Laut Ribeiro (2012) wird die Technik der freien Assoziationen in der Tourismusforschung jedoch bisher wenig analytisch, sondern vor allem als ‚Eisbrecher' in Befragungen verwendet. In dieser Studie können die Dimensionen des Destinationsimages aufgezeigt und gezielt aus Sicht des Touristen analysiert werden. Von den acht identifizierten

Dimensionen des Destinationsimages Israels (Tabelle 10) nimmt die Dimension Sicherheit mit etwa einem Drittel aller genannten Begriffe eine zentrale Stellung ein. Weitere zentrale Dimensionen sind Orte, Attribute der Destination Israel (vorwiegend positiv) und religiöse Aspekte, die das Alleinstellungsmerkmal Israels wiedergeben.

Tabelle 10. Dimensionen des Destinationsimages Israels

Dimension	Nennungen	Anteil	Begriffe (Beispiele)
Sicherheit	211	31,0 %	unsicher, Konflikt, Krieg, Gefahr, Terror
Orte	162	23,8 %	Jerusalem, Klagemauer, Totes Meer
Attribute	144	21,1 %	Interessant, schön, kein Interesse, heiß, dynamisch
Religion	71	10,4 %	Religion, Judentum, Christentum, Jesus
Tourismus	31	4,6 %	Baden, Reiseinteresse, Kreuzfahrt
Politik	30	4,4 %	Palästina, Hamas
Geschichte	16	2,3 %	Geschichte, Tradition
Persönliches	16	2,3 %	Freunde, Schüleraustausch

Quelle: Eigene Berechnung basierend auf eigener Erhebung im April 2016

Bei der Betrachtung der häufigsten Nennungen insgesamt, abgesehen von der Einteilung in die oben genannten Dimensionen, spiegelt sich die Bedeutung der Sicherheitsthematik wider. In Abbildung 11 werden alle genannten Begriffe je nach Anzahl der Nennungen in unterschiedlicher Größe dargestellt. Es treten, neben Jerusalem und Religion, vor allem die Begriffe Konflikt, unsicher, gefährlich und Krieg hervor.

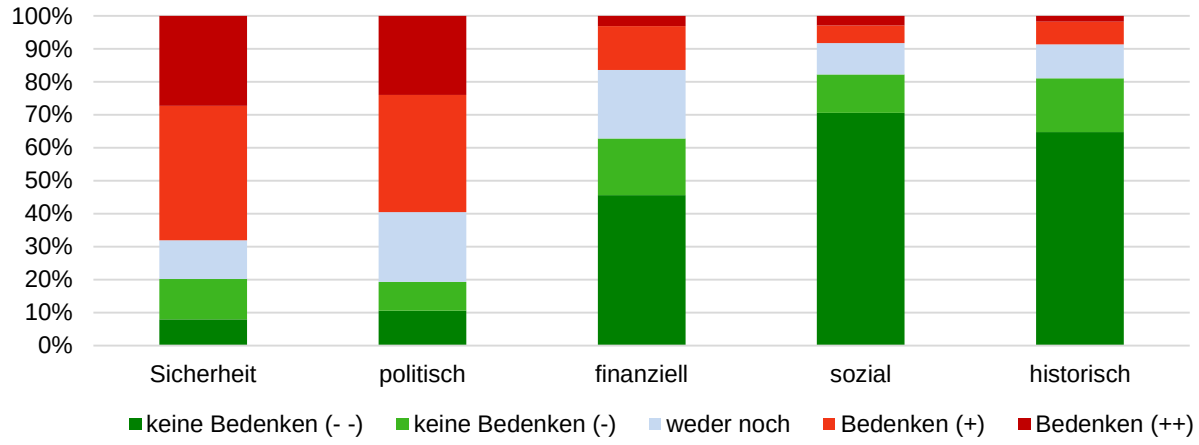
Abbildung 11. Destinationsimage Israels basierend auf freien Assoziationen deutscher Touristen

Quelle: Eigene Darstellung basierend auf eigener Erhebung im April 2016

Insgesamt verdeutlicht die Untersuchung des Destinationsimages Israels aus Sicht deutscher Touristen, dass die Sicherheitsthematik eine wesentliche Rolle bei der Wahrnehmung der Destination spielt und sich folglich als negativer Faktor bei der Reiseentscheidung für die Destination Israel auswirken kann. Diese Annahme bestätigt sich durch die Analyse der

Bedenken bei der Reiseentscheidung zu Israel[17], da die Sicherheitslage mit der politischen Situation in Israel als die stärksten Hemmnisse wahrgenommen werden (Abbildung 12).

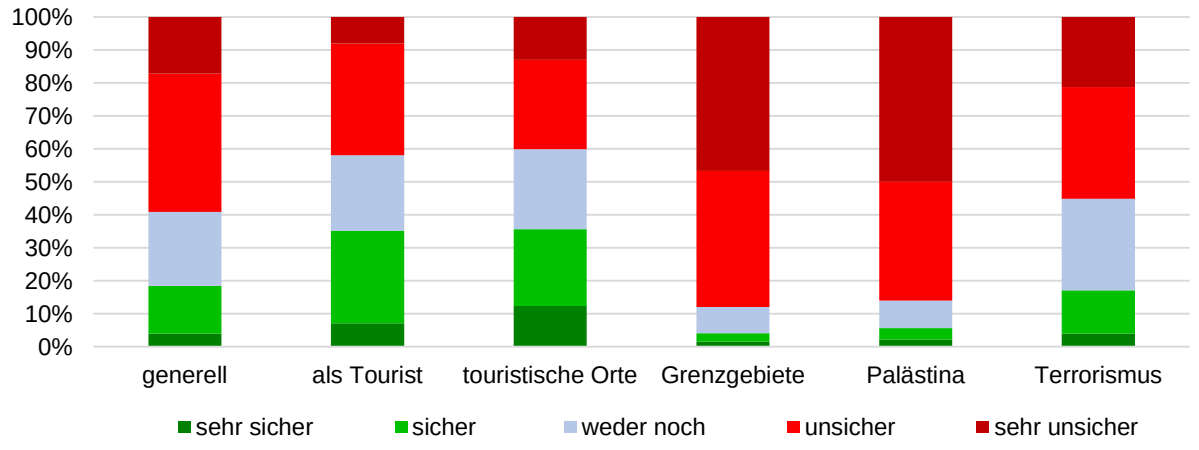
Abbildung 12. Bedenken bei der Reiseentscheidung bezüglich der Destination Israel



Quelle: Eigene Darstellung basierend auf eigener Erhebung im April 2016

Die Bedenken zu den Reisekosten, der Akzeptanz durch das soziale Umfeld und der deutsch-israelischen Vergangenheit werden als weniger schwerwiegend eingeschätzt. Dadurch unterscheidet sich die Destination Israel in Bezug auf Reisehemmnisse von vielen anderen Destinationen, bei denen hauptsächlich finanzielle Gründe wirken (Botha et al., 1999; Karl et al., 2015). Sicherheitsaspekte übertreffen bei der Reiseentscheidung bezüglich Israels somit andere entscheidungsrelevante Faktoren. Es ist anzunehmen, dass diese (positiven) entscheidungsrelevanten Faktoren (z.B. kulturelles Angebot, klimatische Bedingungen) erst wirksam werden, wenn die Sicherheitslage in Israel als akzeptabel eingeschätzt wird. Die großen Bedenken zu Sicherheit während einer Israelreise sind auch in der Sicherheitseinschätzung[18] Israels erkennbar. So schätzen 60 Prozent der befragten Personen Israel generell als unsicher oder sehr unsicher ein (Abbildung 13).

Abbildung 13. Sicherheitseinschätzung der Destination Israel, differenziert nach Zielgruppen und Regionen



Quelle: Eigene Darstellung nach eigener Erhebung im April 2016

Eine räumlich differenzierte Betrachtung der Sicherheitseinschätzung zeigt weiterhin, dass Sicherheitswahrnehmung nicht generalisiert für die gesamte Destination Israel betrachtet werden kann, da Touristen zwischen verschiedenen Zielgruppen (Tourist vs. Nicht-Tourist) und Regionen (touristische Orte vs. Grenzgebiete) unterscheiden (Abbildung 13). Die Sicherheit für Touristen, speziell an touristischen Orten, wird höher eingeschätzt als im gesamten Israel. Grenzgebiete und die palästinensischen Autonomiegebiete werden hingegen als besonders unsicher wahrgenommen. Eine Erklärung hierfür kann aus der Darstellung der Destination in den Medien oder offiziellen Informationsquellen[19] abgeleitet werden. Die Informationen des Auswärtigen Amtes wirken dabei als offizielle Informationsquelle besonders stark auf die Reiseentscheidungen der Touristen ein (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a; Jonas & Mansfeld, 2015). Beispielsweise gibt das deutsche Auswärtige Amt in den Reisehinweisen zu Israel besondere Informationen zu Reisen in Grenzgebiete oder das Westjordanland:

> „[…] Dennoch wird vor allem in Jerusalem und dem Westjordanland dringend zu erhöhter Vorsicht geraten. […] Es kommt immer wieder zu Anschlägen, Angriffen und Auseinandersetzungen zwischen israelischen Sicherheitskräften, jüdischen Siedlern und palästinensischer Bevölkerung mit Toten und Verletzten auf beiden Seiten. Die Sicherheitslage in einigen Teilen des Westjordanlands […] ist angespannt. Insbesondere im südlichen Westjordanland wird […] zu besonderer Vorsicht geraten. Es kommt immer wieder vor, dass einzelne Ortschaften durch das israelische Militär abgeriegelt werden.
>
> Von Fahrten in der Dunkelheit wird generell abgeraten. Im gesamten Westjordanland muss mit verschärften Kontrollen an allen Checkpoints gerechnet werden. Zugangsbeschränkungen zu militärischen Sperrgebieten sind unbedingt zu beachten.
>
> […] Sie sollten das Westjordanland grundsätzlich nicht ohne Ortskenntnis oder ortskundige Begleitung bereisen."
>
> (Auswärtiges Amt, 2016)

Die Informationen des Auswärtigen Amtes sind ein Beispiel für kommunizierte Information, die als Mittler zwischen der tatsächlichen Situation in der Destination und der Wahrnehmung durch den Touristen wirkt (Abbildung 7). Obwohl alle Personen theoretisch dieselben Informationen aus offiziellen oder anderen Quellen (z.B. Medienberichterstattung) empfangen, wird die Sicherheitslage in der Destination am Ende unterschiedlich wahrgenommen und unterschiedliche Rückschlüsse bezüglich der Reiseentscheidung werden getroffen. Andere Einflussfaktoren, wie soziodemographische Variablen oder die Reiseerfahrung, spielen hierbei eine Rolle und werden im folgenden Kapitel erläutert.

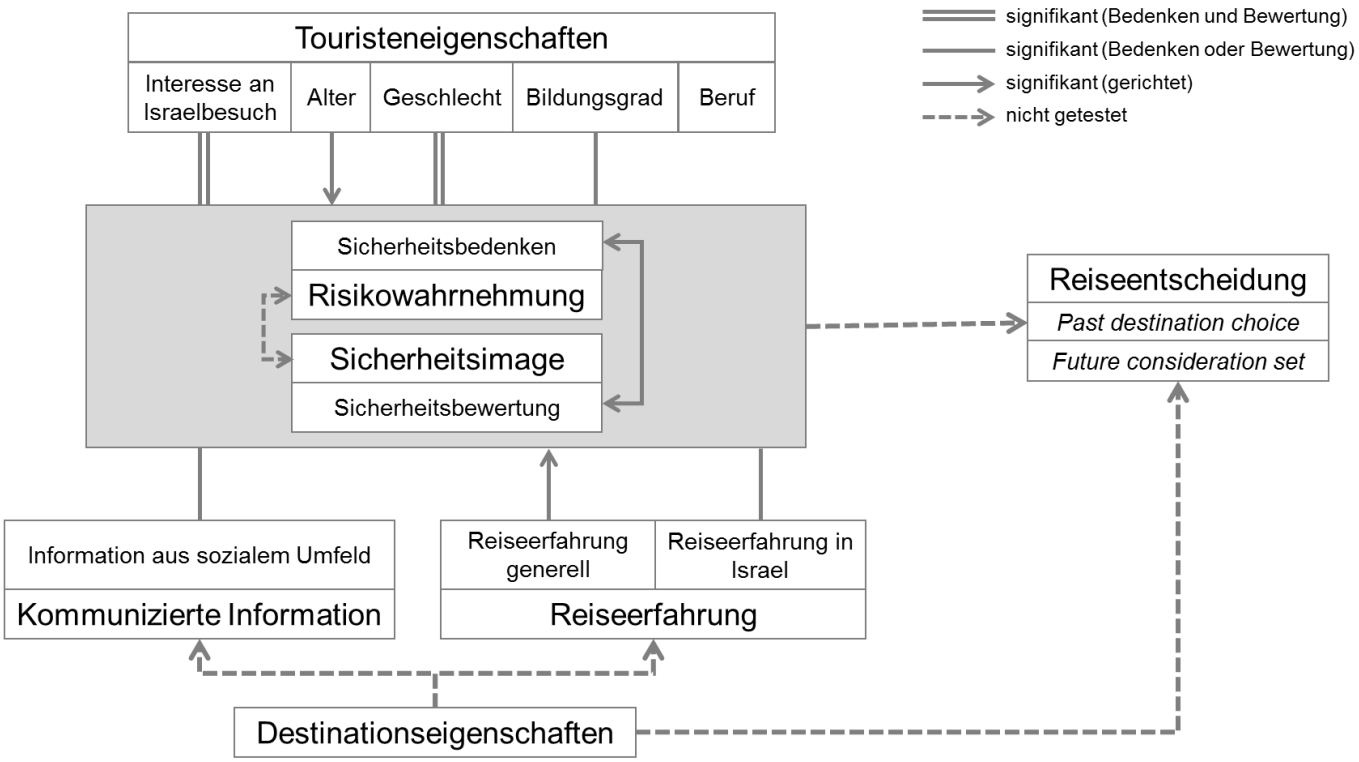
4.3.2 Einflussfaktoren der Sicherheitswahrnehmung der Destination Israel

Da Risiko je nach touristen- und destinationsbezogenen Einflussfaktoren unterschiedlich wahrgenommen wird (Mansfeld, 2006; Kapitel 3.1), kann angenommen werden, dass auch die Wahrnehmung und Bewertung von Sicherheit von diesen Faktoren beeinflusst ist. Um die Bedeutung von soziodemographischen und reiserelevanten, touristenbezogenen Faktoren auf die Wahrnehmung und Bewertung von Sicherheit zu ermitteln, wird das im Rahmen dieser

[19] Einteilung von Reiseinformationen nach Fodness und Murray (1997): Art der Informationsquelle (kommerziell, nicht-kommerziell), Art der Information (persönlich, nicht-persönlich)

Dissertation entwickelte theoretische Untersuchungsmodell (Abbildung 5, Kapitel 3.1, Karl & Schmude, 2017) für die empirische Untersuchung angepasst (Abbildung 14). Die Variablen Sicherheitsbedenken und generelle Sicherheitseinschätzung werden alternativ für die Risikowahrnehmung und Sicherheitsimages verwendet. Neben der Soziodemographie wird das generelle Interesse an einem Besuch der Destination Israel[20] als weitere Touristeneigenschaft in das Modell integriert. Die persönliche Reiseerfahrung generell und in Bezug auf die Destination Israel sowie Informationen aus dem sozialen Umfeld werden als Variablen mit Mittlerfunktion zwischen den tatsächlichen Destinationsattributen und der Wahrnehmung der Destination verwendet. Darüber hinaus wird die Reiseentscheidung der Touristen in Form von vergangenen tatsächlich umgesetzten Reisen und hypothetischen zukünftigen Wunschreisen abgebildet.

Abbildung 14. Modell des Einflusses von Sicherheit auf die Destinationswahl bezüglich der Destination Israel



Quelle: Eigene Darstellung basierend auf eigener Erhebung im April 2016

Die Analysen zeigen, dass Unterschiede in der Wahrnehmung und Bewertung von Sicherheit mit den Eigenschaften des Touristen begründet werden können. Hierbei sind die soziodemographischen Faktoren Alter, Geschlecht und Beruf signifikante Einflussfaktoren. Beispielsweise bewerten Frauen Sicherheitsbedenken als bedeutsamer für Reiseentscheidungen und die Sicherheitslage generell wird als unsicherer wahrgenommen. Auch die Risikowahrnehmungsforschung bestätigt den Gendereinfluss (Pizam et al., 2004; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006; Lepp & Gibson, 2008). Das generelle Interesse an einem Besuch der Destination Israel ist ein positiver Einflussfaktor der Wahrnehmung von

[20] Operationalisierung im Fragebogen: „Würden Sie Israel (nochmals) als Reiseziel in Erwägung ziehen?“

Sicherheitsbedenken und der Sicherheitslage. Das heißt, Touristen, die sich für eine Reise nach Israel interessieren, haben geringere Bedenken zur Sicherheit und schätzen die Sicherheitslage positiver ein. Dies kann mit dem persönlichen Risikoschwellenwert (Mansfeld, 2006) begründet werden, da eine Destination nur dann als Reiseziel in Betracht gezogen werden kann, wenn die Sicherheitslage nach persönlichem Risikoschwellenwert als akzeptabel betrachtet wird. Bei Touristen, die die Sicherheitslage als gefährlich ansehen, kann sich somit theoretisch kein Interesse an einem Besuch aufbauen. Eine weitere Erklärung ist, dass diejenigen Touristen, die Interesse an dem Reiseziel haben, sich über die Destination informieren und die Sicherheitslage weniger risikoreich einschätzen. Diese Suche nach geeigneten Reiseinformationen wurde in der Forschung als eine wichtige Risikoreduzierungsstrategie der Touristen identifiziert (Mäser & Weiermair, 1998; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a; Fuchs & Reichel, 2004; Quintal et al., 2010a; Jonas & Mansfeld, 2015).

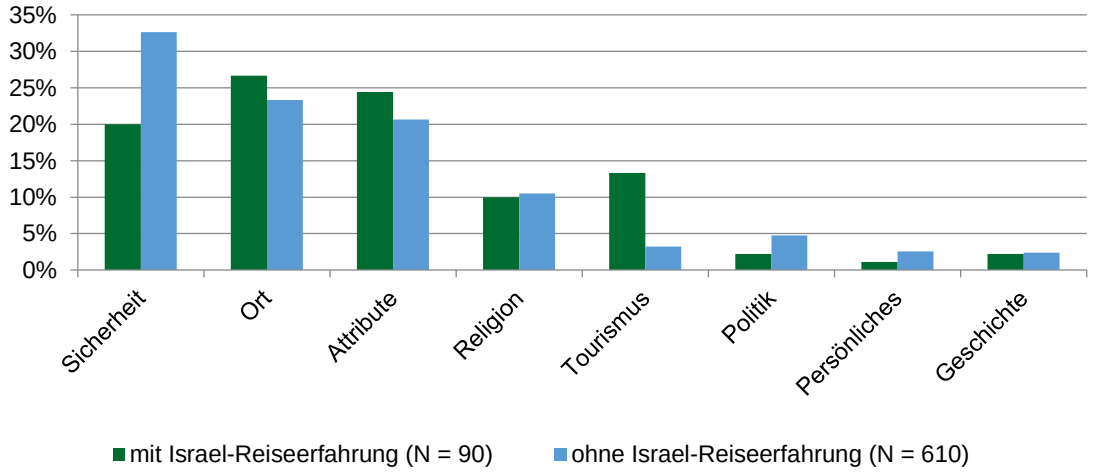
Ein Mittler zwischen der tatsächlichen Situation vor Ort (Destinationsattribute) und der Wahrnehmung und Bewertung von Sicherheit sind Informationen, die dem Touristen durch sein soziales Umfeld vermittelt werden. Dazu dient die Variable ‚Besuch der Destination Israel durch Bekannte/Verwandte' als Indikator. Knapp über die Hälfte der Probanden (55 Prozent) haben in ihrem sozialen Umfeld Bekannte/Verwandte, die bereits in Israel waren. Diese Probanden nehmen die Sicherheit in Israel als weniger bedenklich wahr. Der Besuch der Destination durch Bekannte oder Verwandte und deren Erzählungen zu diesen Erfahrungen führen zu einer Abschwächung von Sicherheitsbedenken und zu einer sichereren Einschätzung der Lage in Israel. Dies bestätigt die starke Überzeugungskraft von Informationen aus dem sozialen Umfeld auf die Risikowahrnehmung und die Destinationswahl (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a; Jonas & Mansfeld, 2015).

Ein weiterer Mittler zwischen der tatsächlichen Situation und der Wahrnehmung sind die Erfahrungen, die ein Proband als Reisender im Laufe seines Lebens gemacht hat. Bisherige Studien belegen, dass Reiseerfahrungen sowohl die Destinationswahl (Prentice, 2006) als auch die Risikowahrnehmung (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b; Kim et al., 2016) positiv beeinflussen. Da aus befragungszeitlichen Gründen im Rahmen dieser Studie keine umfassende Reisebiographie der Probanden erstellt werden konnte, wird die Anzahl der Urlaubsreisen aus den letzten drei Jahren als Indikator der Reiseerfahrung verwendet. Mit steigender Anzahl an Urlaubsreisen (und indirekt mit höherer Reiseerfahrung) gehen die Bedenken bezüglich der Sicherheit in Israel zurück. Die Sicherheitslage jedoch wird unabhängig von der Anzahl der Urlaubsreisen eingeschätzt, so dass Reiseerfahrung in diesem Fall als signifikanter Einflussfaktor ausgeschlossen wird. Eine Erklärung für diese Beobachtung ist, dass Touristen, die während vergangener Reisen Risikovermeidungs- und Krisenlösungsstrategien entwickelt haben, weniger Bedenken bei einer Reise in ein als risikoreich wahrgenommenes Reiseziel haben, da sie diese Strategien auch in der neuen Destination einsetzen können. Diese neuen Fähigkeiten und vorwiegend ein gestiegenes Selbstvertrauen in die eigenen Fähigkeiten führen zu einem Rückgang der Risikobedenken und zu einer Veränderung des Reiseverhaltens. Die Einschätzung der Sicherheitslage in der Destination wird jedoch von den Fähigkeiten zum Umgang mit risikoreichen Situationen nicht beeinflusst. Die Einschätzung der Sicherheitslage beruht auf Wissen, welches nur durch eigene Erfahrungen während einer Reise in Israel selbst aufgebaut werden kann und somit nicht von der generellen Reiseerfahrung beeinflusst wird.

Im Gegensatz zur allgemeinen Reiseerfahrung wirkt Israel-Reiseerfahrung sowohl positiv auf die Sicherheitsbedenken als auch auf die Einschätzung der Sicherheitslage. Dies spiegelt sich

auch in den Destinationsimages der Probanden wider. Während bei Touristen ohne Israel-Reiseerfahrung die Dimension ‚Sicherheit' die stärkste Ausprägung hat, sind die Dimensionen ‚Orte' gefolgt von ‚Attribute' für Touristen mit Israel-Reiseerfahrung am stärksten vertreten (Abbildung 15).

Abbildung 15. Dimensionen des Destinationsimages Israels (anteilig), differenziert nach Israel-Reiseerfahrung



Quelle: Eigene Darstellung basierend auf eigener Erhebung im April 2016

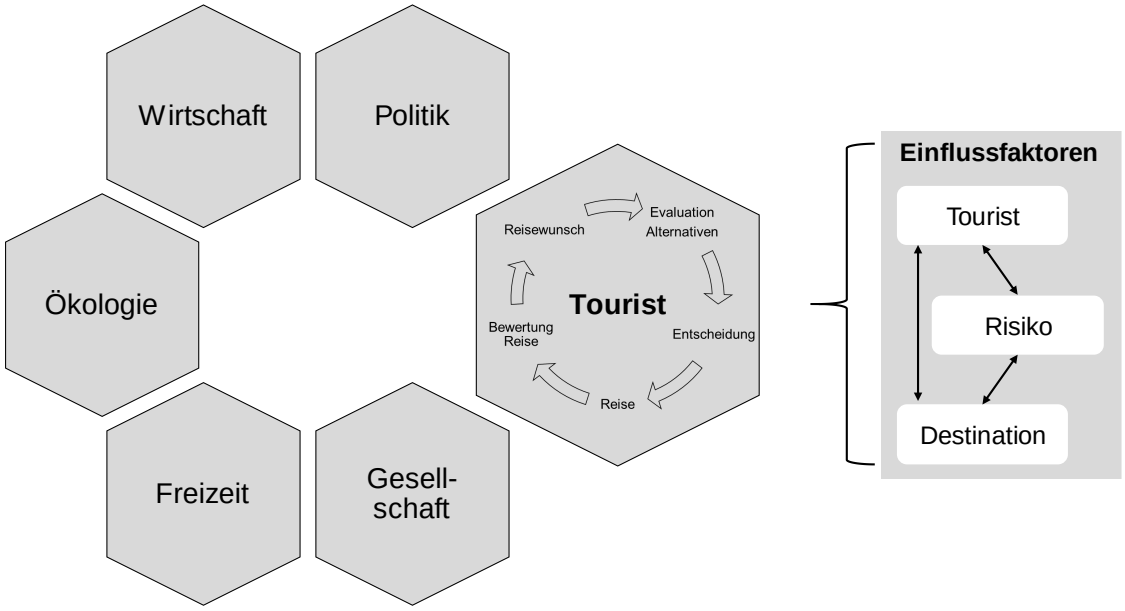
Neben der Analyse der Dimensionen einer freien Assoziation können mithilfe der Anzahl der Nennungen Rückschlüsse auf ein fehlendes Image oder Wissen zu einem Phänomen gezogen werden (Reilly, 1990). So zeigt sich in dieser Studie, dass Touristen mit Israel-Reiseerfahrung signifikant mehr Begriffe nennen als Touristen ohne Israel-Reiseerfahrung. Durch die Israel-Reiseerfahrungen bauen Touristen Wissen auf, welches sich auf die Sicherheitseinschätzung und Sicherheitsbedenken bei einer Reise nach Israel auswirkt. Grund hierfür ist, dass das durch die Reise neugewonnene Wissen über eine Destination zu einer besseren Einschätzung von Risiken führt (Freyer & Schröder, 2004, 74). In erster Linie das subjektive Wissen (d.h. Vertrauensgefühl in eigenes Wissen) reduziert die Wahrnehmung von Risiken (Sharifpour et al., 2014a, 2014b).

Insgesamt bestätigen die Ergebnisse dieser Teilstudie die grundsätzliche Annahme dieser Dissertation, dass ein wechselseitiger Aushandlungsprozess zwischen den Destinations- und Touristenattributen die Destinationswahl bestimmt und die Risikowahrnehmung als Schnittstelle zwischen diesen Aspekten betrachtet werden sollte. Darüber hinaus gibt diese Studie einen ersten Einblick in die Wirkung der Reiseerfahrung auf die Destinationswahl im Kontext von Risiko. Eine Einschränkung dieser explorativen Studie ist, dass von den 429 Probanden nur 47 Probanden (11 Prozent) bereits in der Vergangenheit nach Israel gereist sind und umfassende statistische Analysen des Datensatzes nur bedingt umsetzbar sind. Deshalb tragen die mithilfe der freien Assoziationen gewonnenen Erkenntnisse zu den Dimensionen des Destinationsimages zur Interpretation der Ergebnisse bei.

5 Fazit: Destinationswahl als zirkulärer und dynamischer Prozess im offenen System des Tourismus

Ein Fazit, welches aus den Ergebnissen der vorliegenden Dissertation abgeleitet werden kann, ist, dass Destinationswahl nicht als eine statische Entscheidung, sondern als Prozess betrachtet werden muss. Veränderungen auf der persönlichen Ebene des Touristen bis hin zu sich verändernden Gegebenheiten in der Destination oder im globalen Tourismussystem beeinflussen die Destinationswahl und Reiseentscheidungen der Touristen. Diese Veränderungen unterscheiden sich in ihren zeitlichen Effekten und ziehen sowohl kurzfristige als auch permanente Veränderungen im Destinationswahlverhalten der Touristen nach sich. Destinationswahl im Kontext von Risiko und Sicherheit kann folglich als zirkulärer und dynamischer Prozess definiert werden, der in das offene System des Tourismus eingebettet ist (Abbildung 16).

Abbildung 16. Modell des zirkulären und dynamischen Destinationswahlprozesses im offenen System des Tourismus



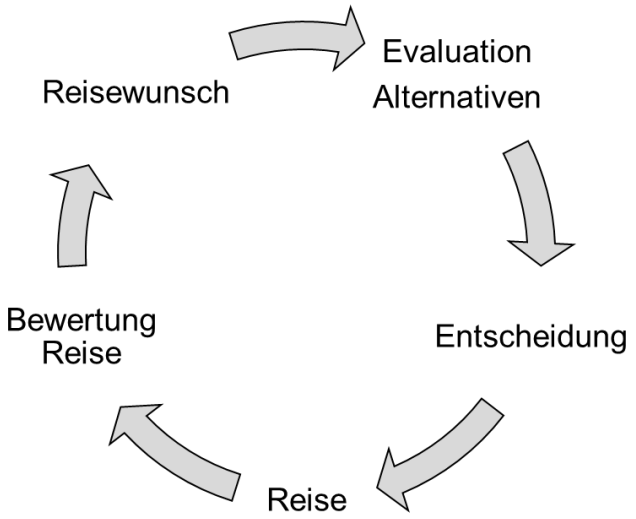
Quelle: Eigene Darstellung

Weiterhin hat diese Dissertation gezeigt, dass Risikowahrnehmung als ein Verbindungsglied zwischen den Bedürfnissen und Eigenschaften des Touristen sowie den Voraussetzungen und dem Angebot in der Destination fungiert. Je nach Risikoaffinität wird die Sicherheitslage in der Destination anders wahrgenommen, unterschiedliche Risikokategorien rücken in den Vordergrund und als Folge verlassen bestimmte Destinationen den Destinationswahlprozess vorzeitig oder werden am Ende des Prozesses als Reiseziel gewählt. Das neu definierte Destinationswahlmodell ist nicht nur für die Destinationswahl unter dem Einfluss von Risiko gültig, sondern kann auch auf andere zentrale Einflussfaktoren des Tourismus, wie die zunehmende Digitalisierung oder den Klimawandel, übertragen werden. Im Folgenden wird das Modell für den Einfluss von Risiko beispielhaft erläutert, einzelne Komponenten basierend auf den Forschungsergebnissen dieser Dissertation vorgestellt und zukünftige Forschungsfragen abgeleitet.

5.1 Destinationswahl als zirkulärer Prozess

Destinationswahl kann zusätzlich zur Unterteilung des Destinationswahlprozesses in einzelne Teilschritte im Sinne der Set Theorie zeitlich in den größeren Kontext der *travel behaviour sequence* (Kapitel 2.1) eingeordnet werden. Hierbei wird zwischen der eigentlichen Entscheidung, der Zeit zwischen Entscheidung und Reiseantritt, der Reise selbst und der Zeit vor der nächsten Entscheidung unterschieden (Mansfeld, 2006). Diese Einbettung der Destinationswahl ist in Bezug auf Risiko und Risikowahrnehmung bedeutsam, da alle Informationen, Eindrücke und Wahrnehmungen, die während der gesamten *travel behaviour sequence* gesammelt werden, in die eigentliche Reisezielentscheidung einfließen. Informationen, die aktiv oder passiv aus verschiedenen Quellen (z.B. soziales Umfeld, Medien, persönliche Erfahrung) gewonnen werden, ändern das Level der Risikowahrnehmung während des laufenden Destinationswahlprozesses. Touristen berücksichtigen diese Informationen bei zukünftigen Entscheidungen, selbst wenn sie sich gerade nicht in der aktiven Entscheidungsphase, sondern beispielsweise in der Bewertungs- oder Reisephase befinden. Aus diesem Grund kann Destinationswahl als zirkulärer Prozess betrachtet werden, in dem die *travel behaviour sequence* als sich beeinflussender Kreislauf definiert ist (Abbildung 17), wohingegen in bisherigen Modellen vorwiegend von einem linearen Prozess ausgegangen wurde (Abbildung 3).

Abbildung 17. Zirkuläre Darstellung der *travel behaviour sequence*



Quelle: Eigene Darstellung

In diesem Zusammenhang sollten in zukünftigen Studien speziell Veränderungen des Destinationswahlprozesses, ausgelöst durch persönliche Reiseerfahrungen, als ein Schritt der *travel behaviour sequence* stärker in den Fokus gerückt werden. Die im Rahmen dieser Dissertation durchgeführte explorative, retrospektive Analyse zum Einfluss der Israel-Reiseerfahrung auf die Sicherheitswahrnehmung belegt, wie die Erfahrung mit einer Destination die Wahrnehmung beeinflusst (Kapitel 4.3.2). Eine weiterführende Panelstudie, in der gezielt Israeltouristen vor und nach der Reise befragt werden, kann noch weitere Kenntnisse zum Einfluss der Reiseerfahrung auf die Risikowahrnehmung und Destinationswahl liefern. Eine mögliche Forschungsfrage wäre, inwiefern die Erfahrung mit

einer als risikoreich wahrgenommenen Destination die Risikowahrnehmung verändert und inwieweit sich diese veränderte Risikowahrnehmung auf zukünftige Reisen auswirkt. Dabei kann beispielsweise geklärt werden, ob Reiseerfahrungen mit einer risikoreichen Destination zu einer Verschiebung weiterer risikoreicher Destinationen im Destinationswahlprozess vom *unawareness*, *initial/future consideration* oder *inept set* in das *relevant set* führen und somit mit einer höheren Wahrscheinlichkeit als finales Reiseziel ausgewählt werden.

5.2 Destinationswahl als dynamischer Prozess

Neben der Betrachtung der Destinationswahl als zirkulärer Prozess zeigen die Ergebnisse der vorliegenden Dissertation, dass die Destinationswahl, beispielsweise aufgrund von Veränderungen im Umfeld des Touristen, als dynamischer Prozess betrachtet werden kann. Eine wichtige touristenbezogene Determinante ist die aktuelle Lebensphase eines Touristen, die die Destinationswahl beeinflusst (Karl et al., 2015). Die Lebenssituation und familiäre Lage können Einschränkungen der Destinationswahl mit sich bringen, die laut Crompton und Ankohmah (1993) neben den Push-Faktoren (z.B. persönliche Motivation des Touristen) und Pull-Faktoren (z.B. Attribute der Destination) berücksichtigt werden müssen. Beispielweise entscheiden sich Touristen trotz hoher Risikoaffinität in der Lebensphase ‚Familie mit Kleinkindern' für sichere Reiseziele, obwohl sie vormals eher risikoreiche Reiseziele besucht haben. Kleinkinder wirken im Destinationswahlprozess als entscheidendes Hemmnis für das Reisen. Da diese touristenbezogenen Einflussfaktoren der Destinationswahl sich im Laufe des Lebens verändern, kann Destinationswahl nicht als statisch begriffen werden, sondern muss als dynamisches Konzept aufgefasst werden. Weitere sich verändernde Einflussfaktoren von Seiten des Touristen sind finanzielle oder zeitliche Umstände (Karl et al., 2015), die sich beispielsweise aus dem Berufsstand des Touristen ergeben (z.B. Übergang von Studentenstatus mit finanziellen Restriktionen zu Berufsanfänger mit zeitlichen Restriktionen).

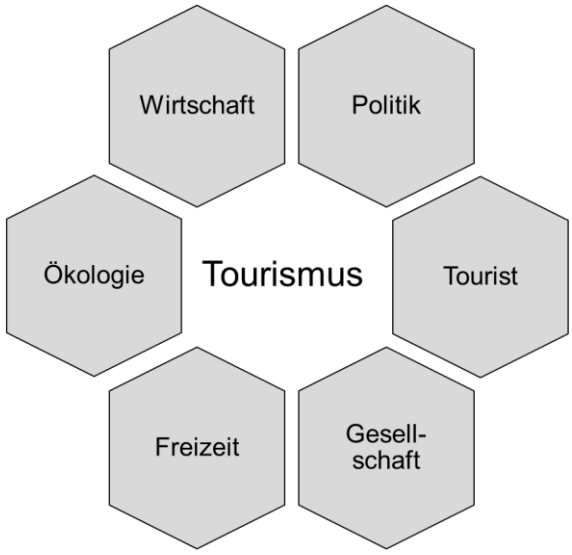
Um den dynamischen Charakter der Destinationswahl zukünftig genauer zu untersuchen, würde es sich in der Tourismusforschung anbieten, Personen im Laufe ihres Lebens zu begleiten. Damit können, anstelle von retrospektiven, teilweise lückenhaften Reisebiographien Veränderungen im Reiseverhalten von Kindheit an betrachtet und Einflussfaktoren der Destinationswahl gezielt analysiert werden. Dieser Ansatz erlaubt es, von den Eltern geprägtes Reisen zu betrachten und darauf aufbauend Destinationswahlprozesse näher zu beleuchten. Es ist anzunehmen, dass sich Destinationswahlprozesse von anfänglich wenig auf eigener Erfahrung bis hin zu erfahrungsgestützten Entscheidungen verändern und auch Reisehemmnisse je nach Lebensphase eine unterschiedlich wichtige Rolle spielen. Jedoch gibt es dazu bisher noch keine Längsschnittstudien. Alternativ bietet es sich an Reisebiographien in detaillierter Form abzufragen und zu analysieren.

5.3 Destinationswahl im offenen System des Tourismus

Da es sich bei dem System Tourismus um ein offenes System handelt (Abbildung 18), ist der Einfluss der Umwelt, ob positiver oder negativer Art, entscheidend für die touristische Entwicklung (Kuschel & Schröder, 2002, 8; Freyer & Schröder, 2005, 103). Dies führt zu einer verstärkten Anfälligkeit des Tourismus bei externen Krisenereignissen (Cooper, 2008, 279), welche in den meisten Fällen nicht von der Destination selbst gesteuert werden können (Mansfeld & Pizam, 2006, 353). Obwohl die Tourismusindustrie in vielen Ländern eine große ökonomische Bedeutung hat und sich oftmals scheinbar schnell von Krisen erholt, kann sie

dennoch leicht durch externe Faktoren wie Risikoereignisse beeinflusst werden (Sönmez et al., 1999; Seddighi et al., 2001).

Abbildung 18. Offenes System des Tourismus



Quelle: Eigene Darstellung nach Freyer, 2011, 36ff.

Auch Destinationswahlprozesse sollten als Teil des offenen Systems des Tourismus betrachtet werden, in dem sich die Komponenten (z.B. Politik, Destination, Tourist) wechselseitig beeinflussen. Reiseentscheidungen werden somit nicht im kontextfreien Raum getroffen, sondern sind in ein bestimmtes soziales Umfeld eingebettet (Mansfeld, 1992) und die Höhe des wahrgenommenen Risikos variiert nach Nationalitäts- und Kulturzugehörigkeit (Seddighi et al., 2001; Fuchs & Reichel, 2004; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006; Aschauer, 2008, 442ff.). Die vorliegende Dissertation muss deshalb aus der Sicht des deutschen Quellmarktes mit seinen besonderen Eigenschaften betrachtet werden (z.B. sicheres Land mit hoher Reiseerfahrung; Lohmann et al., 2014; IEP, 2016).

Zukünftige Arbeiten, die sich dieser Thematik als Vergleichsstudien in mehreren Ländern annehmen, können dazu beitragen, interkulturelle Unterschiede zu identifizieren und länderspezifische Auswirkungen für den Tourismus abzuleiten. Eine Möglichkeit ist die Durchführung von parallel stattfindenden, komplementären Befragungen in Ländern, in denen das objektive Risikoniveau unterschiedlich hoch ist und verschiedene Risikokategorien besonders stark vertreten sind. Dabei ist der Aspekt Terrorismus ein wichtiger Faktor, da er für viele Komponenten des offenen Systems Tourismus eine Rolle spielt. Zudem hat das Terrorismusrisiko in den letzten Jahren global an Bedeutung gewonnen. Auch im Quellmarkt Deutschland und wichtigen Zielgebieten für den deutschen Markt (z.B. Türkei) ist die Gefahr des Terrorismus gestiegen (IEP, 2016). Diese aktuellen Entwicklungen führen zu Veränderungen und Anpassungen im System Tourismus. Inwiefern auf diese neuen Umstände, beispielsweise von Seiten der Politik (z.B. strengere Einreisegesetze und Visabeschränkungen) oder von Seiten der Touristen (z.B. Zunahme des Binnentourismus), Reaktionen erfolgen und wie Touristen aus Ländern mit unterschiedlichem Risikoniveau auf diese Veränderungen reagieren werden, ist ein Aspekt, mit dem sich die Tourismusforschung zukünftig stärker auseinandersetzen muss.

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Reject or select: Mapping destination choice

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to empirically explore tourists' destination choice processes. Destination choices are investigated using a combination of data on destinations and on tourists' individual destination choices. Data were collected in Munich/Germany in 2013 using personal interviews; 622 interviews were completed. This approach allows detecting reasons for the rejection or selection of certain types of destinations during the destination choice process. Results show that tourists often start the destination choice process with various combinations of destination types but act similarly when choosing the final destination. The investigation of tourist and destination characteristics results in a tourist typology that varies in regard to similarity and type of alternative destinations at different stages of the destination choice process.

Introduction

Choosing a travel destination is a very complex process with many influencing factors. Understanding the underlying destination choice (DC) processes of tourists is a fundamental issue both from an academic and destination management point of view. Most previous studies analysing travel decisions concentrate either on the outcome of DCs following a microeconomic input–output approach (e.g. Papatheodorou, 2001; Seddighi & Theocharous, 2002) or on internal and external influencing factors. These psychological, behaviouristic approaches (structural models: e.g. Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; process models: e.g. Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Moutinho, 1987; van Raaij & Francken, 1984) focus on the tourist's behaviour during a travel

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decision-making process. While these models identify cognitive, affective and behavioural influencing factors of DC, characteristics of destination alternatives at the different stages of the DC process and why they are rejected before the final choice remain unexplored.

The aim of this study is to investigate the rejection or selection of destinations during the DC process. To enhance the understanding of the process and structure of DC, this study links destination and tourist characteristics and analyses the interaction between these two aspects. Moreover, this research attempts to shed some light upon tourists' individual DC processes. The purpose is to identify whether and in which way tourists differ in their DC in regard to similarity and type of alternative destinations at the stages of the DC process.

With a long planning period and high personal involvement, DCs are core decisions in the travel decision-making process and on the highest hierarchical order of the three kinds of travel decisions (core, secondary and en route decisions (Fesenmaier & Jeng, 2000)). An approach from consumer research to explain the structure and process of DCs is the set theory (Crompton, 1992; Narayana & Markin, 1975; Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). Set theory is most relevant for purchase decisions that entail intensive information search, evaluation of alternatives, a certain level of perceived risk and high personal involvement (Spiggle & Sewall, 1987), criteria met by DC (Crompton & Ankomah, 1993). According to set theory, DCs are multistage processes where numerous alternative destinations are reduced successively in a funnel-like manner (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005; Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). Theoretical approaches to set theory focus on the creation of a comprehensive model of DC (e.g. Crompton, 1992; Crompton & Ankomah, 1993), while qualitative studies aim at an in-depth investigation of tourists' decision-making process (e.g. Decrop, 2010). Quantitative studies which apply set theory analyse specific sets of the DC structure (e.g. Um & Crompton, 1992; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Woodside & Sherrell, 1977) since it is hardly possible to investigate all DC sets in a quantitative survey. Some subsets are very complex, rather unconscious and difficult to measure. Despite many variations and differences in the terminology, the set model concepts are summarised in a process structure model approach (see Fig. 1).

Alternative destinations are allocated into hierarchically structured sets and only a few destinations are part of the final DC (Crompton, 1992). The allocation in the choice sets depends on internal factors such as socio-psychological characteristics of the tourist, travel constraints as well as external factors related to the distinct features of the destination (Ankomah, Crompton, & Baker, 1996). During the initial phase, prior to the decision to go travelling, several destinations from the total set (i.e. all possible destinations) are grouped in an awareness set (i.e. all known destinations) (Howard & Sheth, 1969). The relevant set (i.e. all considered destinations) is formed once the decision process about taking a trip has been initiated (Um & Crompton, 1990). The total set can be split into three subcategories: unawareness set (i.e. all destinations a tourist is not aware of (Spiggle & Sewall, 1987)); available awareness set (i.e. all destinations a tourist is aware of and has the ability to visit (Woodside & Sherrell, 1977)); unavailable awareness set (i.e. all known but due to different reasons unavailable destinations (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989)). Narayana and Markin (1975) suggest that the (available) awareness set is further divided into an evoked set (equivalent to the relevant set), an inept set (i.e. destinations which are ruled unacceptable) and an inert set (i.e. destinations which

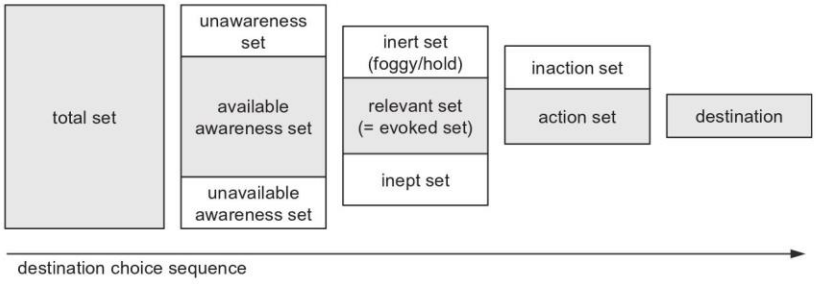

Fig. 1. DC set structure.

are evaluated neither positively nor negatively). Destinations that are evaluated negatively by a tourist are also called excluded set (Decrop, 2006). The last stage of the DC process is the final decision for one destination from the relevant set (Crompton, 1992) which according to Spiggle and Sewall (1987) can be subdivided into an action and inaction set. They proceed on the assumption that the final DC takes place in the action set which encompasses all destinations "towards which a consumer takes some action" (Spiggle & Sewall, 1987, p. 99) to gain more information, for example by contacting a travel agent. Decrop (2010, p. 100) states that in the end of the DC process, a destination is not chosen from the relevant set but from an available set comprising "evoked destinations that really are feasible after considering the vacationer's constraints".

Whether or not a destination is able to pass the whole DC process from the awareness set to the final choice depends on a combination of internal and external factors (Crompton, 1992). These factors, inhibitors or facilitators, play an important role in the narrowing-down process of alternative destinations (Crompton & Ankomah, 1993; Um & Crompton, 1992). Studies on inhibitors or travel constraints often investigate tourist characteristics concentrating on a specific market segment (e.g. Gilbert & Hudson, 2000) or a specific destination (e.g. Botha, Crompton, & Kim, 1999; Nyaupane & Andereck, 2007). The focus is on the question whether tourists travel or not, instead of examining the role of constraints in regard to destination characteristics. However, the assumption that restrictive factors in DC can be related to tourist or destination characteristics but are in most cases a combination of both is hardly addressed.

The majority of studies using set theory tends to concentrate on the size and structure of choice sets (e.g. Crompton & Ankomah, 1993; Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Woodside & Sherrell, 1977) but not on the formation process and the distinct characteristics of the destinations that influence DC. Set models are generally applied as static models although changes in internal or external determinants could lead to displacements within the several sets (Crompton, 1992). The type of alternative destinations changes during the DC process (Decrop, 2010). Nevertheless specific destination attributes which shape the DC process at the different stages are not addressed. Travel decision-making and DC can be seen as an interaction between factors which are more related to the tourist (e.g. travel motives, age) or the destination (e.g. climate, landscape) which has so far been investigated in a more isolated manner in past set theory studies. Moreover, Decrop (2006) as well as Smallman and Moore (2010) criticise that studies on DC are to a great extent theoretical approaches and often lack empirical verification. Some studies on set theory address the relation between sociodemographic characteristics (Crompton & Ankomah, 1993) or travel experience (Woodside & Sherrell, 1977) and set sizes, however, a relation could not be empirically verified yet.

Mapping tourists' destination choice

Tourist and destination characteristics influence the DC process. This study is driven by four research questions focusing on the interaction between tourist and destination characteristics during the DC process which are explored through a series of descriptive analysis techniques.

Research question 1: What role do tourist and destination characteristics play in the decision to reject a destination during the DC process?

Research question 2: Does the number of alternative destinations at the different stages of the DC process vary according to tourist characteristics?

Research question 3: Are alternative destinations similar within one step of the DC process and different between the steps of the DC process according to destination characteristics?

Research question 4: Do tourist characteristics influence the formation of DC set structures?

Study methods

This study applies a more quantitative approach to gain a broader picture of the variety of destinations that are considered throughout the DC process. A combination of information on tourists' individual DCs (DC survey) and independent data on destinations (destination index) supports the

detection of reasons for the rejection or selection of certain types of destinations. The examination of the results of the DC structure and process analysis in a more qualitative approach helps to determine and investigate different DC tourist types.

DC survey: sample and design

Data were collected in Munich/Germany in 2013 using a standardised questionnaire in personal interviews. Specific characteristics of the location of data collection (e.g. high proportion of young professionals) are considered throughout the data analysis and interpretation of the results. Trained interviewers approached the respondents in 15 public spaces where people tend to spend time instead of just passing. An initial question ensured that only persons who are planning a main holiday (i.e. at least four overnight stays) within the next twelve months were included in the survey. Only potential tourists at the age of 14 or older were integrated since children influence but are not actively involved in DC (Decrop, 2006). The final sample size is 622. The questionnaire was tested in a two-stage-pretest to check the validity and reliability: First, on a group of 22 university students and faculty members; second, after modification in a survey (n = 120) of passers-by.

The questionnaire (three sections, 22 questions) was completed in personal interviews in an average time of 15 min. Details on the next planned trip such as length of stay, holiday type and travel expenses are collected in the first section of the questionnaire. The second section concentrates on general and past travel behaviour and collects data on general motives for travelling and destinations previously visited. In both sections, set theory is applied to analyse DC. Since it is difficult to cover the whole DC set structure with its highly differentiated and complex sets in a quantitative survey, the focus is on a selection of key DC sets which were already successfully investigated in past studies. Participants are asked to name destinations in the following sets: (a) relevant set; (b) action set; (c) initial consideration set; and (d) unavailable consideration set. The relevant set includes alternative destinations which the respondent considers for the next planned holiday and is taken from Crompton (1992) and Ankomah et al. (1996) who suggest that the operationalisation of the late consideration set (here: relevant set) should be associated with a specific time frame. (a) "Which destinations do you consider for your next planned trip (in the following twelve months)?" The action set derives from the relevant set and contains destinations for which the respondent is actively searching for information. (b) "Have you already searched for information on the destination(s) (e.g. travel expenses, sightseeing or accommodation)?" This item is based on Ankomah et al. (1996) advancement of Spiggle and Sewall's (1987) original study. The initial consideration set contains destinations participants would like to visit in the future and can be seen as a combination of Woodside and Lysonski's (1989) consideration set (i.e. all destinations considered as holiday destination for a specific time frame) and Crompton's (1992, p. 422) initial set (i.e. "all the locations that might be considered as potential destinations for a vacation before any decision process about a trip has been activated"). Crompton (1992) modified his concept of the awareness set for a more suitable application in tourism research since it is not the mere awareness of a destination that leads to a visit but the appeal for a destination. In this study, the newly introduced initial consideration set is not limited to a specific time frame to follow this modification but the explicitly expressed wish to visit a destination. (c) "Apart from the next planned trip, which other destinations have you always wanted to visit?" The initial consideration set includes the unavailable consideration set with destinations which are considered but cannot be visited due to constraints. It is partly based on Decrop's (2010) unavailable set (temporarily unavailable destinations) and expanded since it includes permanent structural (e.g. health, climate) as well as temporal situational (e.g. time, travel companion) constraints. (d) "Are you not able to realise a trip to one or more of these destinations? If yes, please name the reason(s) why the destination(s) is/are not realisable?"

Destination index: data basis and cluster analysis

A destination index is developed to enable the classification and analysis of the numerous destinations mentioned in the survey on a higher level of abstraction using objective data on destinations. The aim of the destination index is to assess tourists' relative familiarity with a destination and the degree of perceived uncertainty when visiting a new and unknown destination. The concept of familiarity helps to understand DC because tourists rely not only on statistics or objective knowledge when

choosing a holiday destination but also on emotional, affective and tacit knowledge (Williams & Baláž, 2014). Tacit knowledge is lower with unknown destinations and this leads to an increase in uncertainty (Williams & Baláž, 2014) which reflects on DC. Prentice (2006) suggests a framework for an integrated choice set model that includes the concept of affects-as-information, meaning that tourists employ their feelings and emotions as a source of information in DCs. According to this model, familiarity is an important factor that needs to be considered when investigating tourists' decision-making processes. The destination index therefore measures tourists' relative familiarity or novelty of a destination as alluded to by Plog's (1974) psychographic tourist typology of familiarity and novelty seekers. Following this approach, travel behaviour and DC is influenced by certain personality traits such as the level of risk aversion. The psychocentric tourist prefers well-known, highly touristic destinations that offer a certain degree of familiarity. The opposing type, the allocentric tourist, is more likely to travel to destinations that are off the beaten tourist track. The distribution of tourist types changes during a destination's life cycle from a surplus of allocentric tourists in the discovery phase to a surplus of psychocentric tourists at the end of the life cycle (Plog, 1974). This underlines how tourist and destination characteristics are connected and should therefore not be investigated separately.

Based on an extensive literature review on influencing variables in tourists' decision-making as well as expert interviews with practitioners from the tourism industry, the following indicators and indices were chosen to develop the destination index. First, an indicator for tourism intensity (i.e. tourist arrivals per 1.000 inhabitants) (UNWTO, 2013a) which takes into account that a destination has a well-established tourist infrastructure that facilitates travelling and increases familiarity. Another indicator is the relative share of arrivals to a given destination from all German outbound tourists (UNWTO, 2013b). This relies on tourists' awareness of a country as a holiday destination and the possibility to be familiar with a destination either owing to own experience or word-of-mouth information from friends or relatives. Past research shows that both, own experience and word-of-mouth information, have the strongest persuasive power in DCs (Litvin, Goldsmith, & Pan, 2008). Furthermore, the human development index (UNDP, 2013) is added as an indicator for the development of a country as distinguishing mark for infrastructure, public supplies and, probably more important for tourists, healthcare facilities. Accessibility of a destination is chosen as a point of reference for physical distance and is based on a classification of the average flight time from Germany. The greater the distance and the more complicated the access between home and guest country, the lower the level of familiarity with a destination. However, this assumption might not be applicable to all destinations since not only actual geographic but also cognitive distance (i.e. "mental representation of actual distance molded by an individual's social, cultural, and general life experiences" (Crompton & Kim, 2001, p. 512)) is important. Tourists showing a higher involvement with a destination tend to estimate distances to destinations more realistically (Ankomah et al., 1996; Crompton & Kim, 2001). Some countries like the USA are in fact at a great distance to Germany but tourists might nevertheless have a relatively comprehensive knowledge about it and consequently a relatively strong feeling of familiarity. This could be explained by the intensive media representation in the outbound market which may lead to a higher involvement with the destination. Finally, an index for safety and security as a basic prerequisite for a positive tourism development (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005) is included. This index is composed of seven indicators for organised internal conflict, organised external conflict, political instability, terrorism, homicide, violent demonstrations, and relation with neighbouring countries over a period from 2009 to 2013 derived from the peace index (IEP, 2013).

In order to carry out a cluster analysis, objective data on the destinations from all indicators are classified into five categories (see Table 1). Due to data handling and availability it is necessary to aggregate all destinations on a national scale. The 150 destinations mentioned in the survey are clustered by these five indicators using hierarchical cluster analysis following Ward's minimum variance method with squared Euclidean distance. Squared Euclidean distance is applied as distance measure in this study since similarity is defined by the net distance between values. In order to test the validity of the destination index, a multiple discriminant analysis is conducted. The discriminant functions achieve a high degree of classification accuracy: 94.2% of all cases are classified correctly (see Table 2).

The cluster analysis results in five clusters (see Table 1). The easy travel category (cluster 1) includes very safe and very highly developed destinations at a short distance to Germany with a strong

Table 1
Destinations' categorisation based on cluster analysis.

	Cluster 1 easy travel	Cluster 2 out-of-the-ordinary	Cluster 3 safe adventure	Cluster 4 tricky discovery	Cluster 5 no go
Tourism Intensity[1]	High	Low	Low/medium	Very low	Very low
(dominant category)	44.4%	60%	44.4/33.3%	76.7%	88.9%
German tourism market share[2]	Very high	Very low/ medium–low/low	Medium–low/very low	Very low /low	Very low
(dominant category)	44.1%	30/23.3/20%	34.8/30.4%	44.7/23.4%	66.7%
Human development[3]	Very high	High	Very high	Medium/low	Low
(dominant category)	94.4%	80%	72.2%	46.5/39.5%	77.8%
Accessibility/ distance[4]	Very short/short	Short /medium	Long/very long	Long	Medium-long
(dominant category)	47.2/41.7%	40/36.7%	55.6/33.3%	55.8%	55.6%
Safety & security[5]	Very high	Medium/low	Very high /high	Low	Very low
(dominant category)	75%	50/30%	50/33.3%	53.5%	100%
Destination (exemplary)	Germany, France, Italy, Croatia	Albania, Macedonia, Oman	USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand	Myanmar, Vietnam, Senegal	Iraq, Pakistan, Sudan, Syria

[1] Tourist arrivals per 1.000 inhabitants: very high (>2000), high (1000 ⩽ 2000), medium (500 ⩽ 1000), low (100 ⩽ 500), very low (<100).
[2] Classified numbers of arrivals of German tourists: very high (>1%), high (0.5 ⩽ 1%), high-medium (0.1 ⩽ 0.5%), medium–low (0.05 ⩽ 0.1%), low (0.02 ⩽ 0.05 %), very low (<0.02%).
[3] HDI Rank: very high human development, high human development, medium human development, low human development, very low human development.
[4] Average flight time from German airport: very short (<2 h flight), short (2 ⩽ 4 h flight), short-medium (4 ⩽ 6 h flight), medium-long (6 ⩽ 10 h flight), long (10 ⩽ 15 h flight), very long (> 15 h flight).
[5] Aggregated indicators derived from Peace Index: very safe, safe, medium, unsafe, very unsafe.

Table 2
Classification results of the multiple discriminant analysis.

Actual group	Predicted group membership					
	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	Cluster 5	*N*
Cluster 1	35	0	1	0	0	36
	97.2%	0.0%	2.8%	0.0%	0.0%	
Cluster 2	1	29	0	0	0	30
	3.3%	96.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	
Cluster 3	0	0	18	0	0	18
	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	
Cluster 4	0	2	1	37	3	43
	0.0%	4.7%	2.3%	86.0%	7.0%	
Cluster 5	0	0	0	0	10	10
	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	

Percent of grouped cases correctly classified: 94.2%.

tourist flow from Germany. Destinations from cluster 1 are mostly located in Western and Central Europe. Out-of-the-ordinary destinations (cluster 2) are mostly highly developed, at medium distance but with a low general and German market tourism intensity. These destinations are spatially more disperse and located in Eastern Europe, North Africa and the Middle East. The safe adventure category (cluster 3) is characterised by very safe, very highly developed destinations at a long distance to

Germany. Safe adventure destinations can be found in North America, Australia and partly in South America (Argentina, Chile). Tricky discovery destinations (cluster 4) are also at a great distance to Germany but are, in contrast with cluster 3, rather unsafe, non-touristic and less developed. Most destinations in South and Central America are defined as tricky discoveries. Other destinations from this cluster are placed in Sub-Saharan Africa and South/South East Asia. Destinations in the no go cluster (cluster 5) are defined as very unsafe and undeveloped with hardly any tourism and located in countries in Africa and Asia that are affected by severe (military) conflicts.

Results & discussion

The result of the cluster analysis, represented in the destination index as a categorisation of all destinations according to the level of familiarity, is used to analyse and structure the individual DC processes of German tourists. Destinations mentioned in the survey are grouped according to the destination index, which results in a dataset containing the respondents' DC sets linked with information concerning the destinations' level of familiarity. This dataset is used for further statistical analyses to investigate DC more closely.

Travel constraints

The relative strength of beliefs about facilitators and inhibitors of destinations is an important factor in the selection or rejection of a destination (Um & Crompton, 1992). Travel constraints which are related to the destination are likely to vary according to the type of destination (represented by the cluster category of the destination index). Nevertheless, tourists perceive constraints differently depending on individual characteristics (Nyaupane & Andereck, 2007). Travel constraints should therefore vary depending on the destination and the tourist.

To investigate the first research question respondents are asked to name reasons why an initially considered destination can currently not be visited (i.e. measured on a nominal scale with predefined answers and the possibility to expand the item list). In this survey travel constraints are perceived constraints and may not reflect the actual situation in some cases as it often happens with risk perceptions (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998). The main constraints for initially considered destinations are financial and time restrictions (see Table 3). This complies with Botha et al. (1999) who show that financial reasons are amongst the main constraints for visiting an ideal dream destination. The factors family situation, dangers at the destination (e.g. natural disasters, terrorism or criminality), lack of adequate travel companion as well as political situation (e.g. political instability, violent demonstrations, disapproval of the government), health constraints and unfavourable climate conditions are gradually named less frequently. These constraints are hence less relevant at this stage of the DC process. Since safety and security aspects are often seen as very important factors in DC (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998), it seems possible that destinations with these constraints have already been rejected before this DC stage.

Table 3
Relationship between the variables cluster allocation and travel constraints.

	N	Sig.	df	χ^2	Cramér's V	Cluster 1 (in percent)	Cluster 2 (in percent)	Cluster 3 (in percent)	Cluster 4 (in percent)	Cluster 5 (in percent)
Financial constraints	535	0.004**	4	15.372	0.131	54.1	53.6	63.8	61.7	11.1
Time constraints	372	0.009**	4	13.554	0.123	47.6	45.2	37.0	44.5	0.0
Family situation	101	0.164	4	6.506	0.085	–	–	–	–	–
Dangers at the destination	56	0.000***	4	112.612	0.356	0.0	13.4	2.7	10.6	77.8
Travel companion	54	0.001**	4	18.858	0.145	12.9	6.0	4.9	3.4	0.0
Health constraints	29	0.092	4	7.983	0.092	–	–	–	–	–
Political situation	25	0.000***	4	53.342	0.253	0.6	12.3	0.0	5.3	25.0
Climate conditions	22	0.204	4	5.934	0.204	–	–	–	–	–

** $p < 0.01$.
*** $p < 0.001$.

Pearson's chi-squared test is used to examine the relationship between the type of destination and travel constraints to determine if certain destinations are rejected due to certain restrictions (see Table 3).

Some constraints vary according to the type of destination that tourists would like to visit and are probably more related to the destination than to the tourist. Financial constraints, lack of holidays, impossibility to find an adequate travel companion, dangers and political situation in a destination are statistically dependent on the type of destination. Financial constraints dominate in destinations from cluster 3 and 4 and apply less to destinations from cluster 1 and 2. This can be explained by the geographic location of these destinations since travel distance and mode of travel are significant influencing factors of German tourists' DCs (Marcussen, 2011). Destinations from cluster 3 and 4 require in most cases long-distance journeys associated with high travel expenses. A bias in the estimation of travel costs may exist which can be explained by an overestimation of distances to relatively unfamiliar destinations (Ankomah et al., 1996; Crompton & Kim, 2001) and an unrealistic assessment of on-site travel costs at unfamiliar destinations due to lack of knowledge.

Respondents who reject a destination from cluster 5 for safety and security reasons (represented by the items "dangers at the destination" or "political situation") do not consider other constraints because these constraints are more distinct than others. Differences between the five clusters in regard to time constraints and lack of travel companion are comparatively small. These constraints are probably more related to tourist than destination characteristics or it is an interaction between both characteristics. The age group 20–29 years can help to explain this statement. Here, the most dominant travel constraints are financial reasons and these tourists are particularly interested in destinations from clusters 3 and 4 which are significantly linked to financial constraints. Consequently, tourist (e.g. young age, low income and preference for long haul holidays) and destination (e.g. destinations with high (perceived) travel costs) characteristics play an interacting role between travel constraint and DC.

Neither tourist nor destination related constraints are restricted to temporal situational (e.g. one time natural disaster; young children in the family) or permanent structural (e.g. unfavourable climate conditions; chronic diseases) constraints. In fact, tourists' DC structures may change over time as tourists' climb the travel career ladder (Ryan, 1998) or changes in the actual situation at a destination may occur.

Size of destination choice sets

Travel constraints act as filters that help to successively reduce alternative destinations during the DC process in a funnel-like manner. In this study, 95% of all respondents have no more than five destinations in the initial consideration set, three destinations in the relevant set and two destinations in the action set. This corroborates findings of a great deal of the previous work on DC sets and supports the thesis that DC follows a funnel-like process (Crompton, 1992; Crompton & Ankomah, 1993; Jeng & Fesenmaier, 2002; Moutinho, 1987; Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005) and that the relevant set is composed of no more than a few destinations (Crompton & Ankomah, 1993; Decrop, 2010; Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). Due to differences in the methodology and data collection the results of the average set sizes often vary. This underlines the high sensitivity of data collection procedures as well as wording of questionnaires in this research area and limits the comparability of this study's results to previous set theory studies (e.g. Crompton & Ankomah, 1993; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Woodside & Sherrell, 1977), at least in regard to the average set sizes. An analysis on set size variation during the DC sequence in this study reveals that the average set size of the relevant set

Table 4
Descriptive statistics of DC set sizes.

	M (SD)	Mode	Min	Max
Initial consideration set	2.31 (1.67)	1	0	10
Unavailable consideration set	1.72 (1.54)	1	0	10
Relevant set	1.93 (0.94)	1	0	5
Action set	0.68 (0.90)	0	0	5

is 1.9 and of the initial consideration set is 2.3 (see Table 4). The ratio of 0.8 between relevant and initial consideration set size is in the range identified by Crompton and Ankomah (1993).

A further analysis of respondents' DC set sizes related to research question 2 reveals that the number of alternative destinations for a specific trip (relevant set size) is not dependent on tourist characteristics, while the number of initially considered destinations at an earlier (hypothetical) stage of the DC is correlated with these factors. One explanatory approach is the concept of choice overload which suggests that too many choice alternatives can have a negative influence on decision-making (e.g. making no choice) (Park & Jang, 2013). This is particularly relevant in tourism since "the number of products approaches infinity" (Park & Jang, 2013, p. 2) due to multiple options concerning aspects such as accommodation or travel modes. Tourists may react to choice overload by only considering very few destinations at the final choice moment. This does not apply to initially considered destinations since there is no need for the tourist to actively choose between alternatives yet.

Since homogeneity of variances as a precondition for one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is not given, Kruskal–Wallis one-way analysis of variance as a non-parametric method is applied to explore differences in DC set size and sociodemographic as well as travel-related variables. The sizes of the relevant and action sets do not differ significantly amongst the age cohorts and educational level groups. Nevertheless, a tendency for the relevant set can be identified, which partly supports Crompton and Ankomah (1993) who state that a positive correlation between relevant set size and educational level exists. However, the size of the initial and unavailable consideration sets varies significantly between groups of educational levels, age classes and travel frequency (i.e. number of main holidays in the last three years; see Table 5).

A higher level of education corresponds with a higher number of alternative destinations in the initial consideration set. Tourists with a higher educational level are significantly more interested in cultural/educational than in sun-sand-sea holidays. van Raaij and Francken (1984) state that persons with a high educational level show more interest in the destination than other tourists. Consequently, the destination itself plays a more important role in DC for these tourists, while other tourists might focus on different aspects (e.g. sunshine guarantee). The initial consideration set of respondents with the highest educational level however is smaller than the initial consideration set of the second highest education group. This might be due to the fact that the latter consists to a large extent of young university students who have the largest initial consideration set size since age and initial consideration set size are highly correlated. The number of alternative destinations in this set decreases with an increasing age, except for the youngest age group. Respondents from the age 14 to 19 years have comparatively small initial consideration sets, probably because they are at the beginning of their travel career or are not the main decision makers if they travel with their parents. Tourists in the age group from 30 to 59 years are often restricted in their DC by their family situation. It is unclear why the initial consideration set of elderly tourists is the smallest. Two reasons may apply. First, older people are more realistic in their DCs and consider fewer destinations to be visited in the near future with a higher probability. Second, older tourists have already seen many of their initially considered destinations which is why the initial consideration set size has decreased gradually during their life. Similar observations result from an analysis of the unavailable consideration set, except for the group with the highest educational level. This group has a large initial but small unavailable consideration set. A reason might be the higher average income of this group in comparison to the second highest educational level, which facilitates the realisation of travel plans.

The influence of travel frequency on set size is partly accepted. Set sizes in the earlier stages of the DC process vary significantly according to the level of travel frequency, while this does not apply to set sizes of the later stages. Frequent travellers (i.e. at least three main holidays in the last three years) consider significantly more destinations throughout the DC process than interval (i.e. one or two main holidays in the last three years) and infrequent travellers (i.e. no main holiday in the last three years) who have the lowest number of destinations in their initial and unavailable consideration set. The great importance of the travel motives "culture/education" ($p = 0.047$) and "gain new impressions from another country or society" ($p = 0.000$) for frequent travellers indicates that the actual destination of a holiday plays a more important role in their DCs.

Table 5
Relationship between initial/unavailable consideration set size and tourist characteristics.

Test variable	Grouping variable	Mean (SD)	Kruskal–Wallis H	df	Sig.
Initial consideration set size					
	Educational level[1]		36.454	4	0.000***
	Lower secondary education	1.60 (1.38)			
	Secondary education	1.74 (1.12)			
	Advanced secondary education	2.72 (1.81)			
	University degree	2.33 (1.69)			
	Age		80.014	6	0.000***
	14–19 years	1.96 (1.51)			
	20–29 years	2.94 (1.80)			
	30–39 years	2.58 (1.60)			
	40–49 years	2.10 (1.37)			
	50–59 years	1.66 (1.58)			
	60–69 years	1.63 (1.19)			
	70 years and older	1.36 (1.19)			
	Travel frequency		44.456	2	0.000***
	Frequent traveller	2.82 (1.84)			
	Interval traveller	1.91 (1.40)			
	Infrequent traveller	1.76 (1.54)			
Unavailable consideration set size					
	Educational level[1]		21.390	4	0.000***
	Lower secondary education	1.69 (1.42)			
	Secondary education	1.19 (1.11)			
	Advanced secondary education	2.01 (1.62)			
	University degree	1.64 (1.60)			
	Age		42.497	6	0.000***
	14–19 years	1.90 (1.57)			
	20–29 years	2.03 (1.51)			
	30–39 years	1.95 (1.68)			
	40–49 years	1.57 (1.38)			
	50–59 years	1.38 (1.72)			
	60–69 years	1.04 (1.30)			
	70 years and older	0.88 (0.83)			
	Travel frequency		15.220	2	0.000***
	Frequent traveller	2.00 (1.66)			
	Interval traveller	1.47 (1.38)			
	Infrequent traveller	1.70 (1.49)			

Note: Only significant factors are listed in this table.
*** $p < 0.001$.
[1] Others ($n = 21$).

Structure of destination choice processes

The investigation of the cluster composition concerning research question 3 detects remarkable changes during the DC sequence. Two important shifts are identified: A minor shift in cluster composition between initial and unavailable consideration set and a major shift from initial consideration to relevant set (see Table 6).

In the minor shift from initial to unavailable consideration set, the share of cluster 3 and 4 combined increases. This is due to travel constraints which deter a tourist from visiting a destination of these two clusters at the moment (see Table 3). Moreover, the share of cluster 1 is reduced considerably from initial to unavailable consideration set. The observed decrease could be attributed to the characteristics of destinations in this cluster being mostly safe, close to the home country, with a highly developed (touristic) infrastructure and are therefore easy travel destinations. In the second shift from initial consideration to relevant set, the share of cluster 1 increases noticeably, while the share of cluster 3 and 4 declines. The same reasons as for the changes from initial to unavailable

Table 6
Cluster composition in DC sequence.

	N	Cluster 1 (in percent)	Cluster 2 (in percent)	Cluster 3 (in percent)	Cluster 4 (in percent)	Cluster 5 (in percent)
Initial consideration set	1342	27.0	9.3	35.9	27.1	0.7
Unavailable consideration set	903	18.9	9.4	40.6	30.1	1.0
Relevant set	1208	72.5	8.9	11.1	7.5	0.0
Action set	729	72.8	8.0	11.1	8.1	0.0
Destination choice	479	72.0	10.2	11.1	6.7	0.0
Past destination choice	1319	73.5	9.2	8.9	8.4	0.0

consideration set may apply here. Cluster 2 remains stable during the whole DC sequence. It contains many destinations that Germans with a migrant background frequently visit. Visiting family and relatives is the most commonly mentioned decisive motive for travelling to cluster 2. Destination characteristics such as the level of familiarity are probably less relevant for tourists whose main travel motive is to see their relatives or friends. In this case, no real alternative destination exists and the final destination is therefore less variable compared to tourists with other travel motives. In this sample destinations from cluster 5 only occur in the initial and unavailable consideration set. Political instability and terrorism have a strong negative influence on DC (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998), which in regard to the most important travel constraints for destinations from cluster 5, could explain the absence in the relevant set and past DCs. No significant change is detected in the sequence from relevant to action set and to the final choice of one destination for the planned trip. As can be seen from Table 6, the cluster composition of the more realistic DC sets (i.e. relevant and action set) as well as the final DC match past travel decisions. This supports Decrop (2010) who states that many destinations in the relevant set can be deduced from past travel experiences, in many cases even from the last trip. Moreover, post-trip evaluation is an important factor in DC as it helps to support future DC (Martin & Woodside, 2012).

The similarity within DC sets is tested on the homogeneity of the sets. In order to measure homogeneity of cluster allocation in the DC sets, an Index of Destination Differentiation (IDD) is developed. The IDD is calculated analogous to the Index of Economic Differentiation (Amemiya, 1963) which estimates the level of differentiation of economic sectors. In this study the IDD estimates the level of dissimilarity of alternative destinations at the key stages of the DC process. The IDD enables the comparison of choice sets in regard to variety in order to draw conclusions about alternative (competing) destinations in the respective choice set. Values between 0 (even distribution to all clusters) and 1 (concentration on one cluster) can be assumed. The larger the number of clusters (n) in a set, the smaller the IDD and the more heterogeneous the choice set.

$$IDD_{\text{choice set}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{n}{n-1}\left(p_i - \frac{1}{n}\right)^2$$

IDD: Index of Destination Differentiation; $0 \leqslant IDD \leqslant 1$
p_i: proportion of cluster i in choice set; $0 \leqslant p_i \leqslant 1$
n: number of clusters in choice set.

The IDD is calculated on an aggregated level for each DC set. The initial and the unavailable consideration sets are the most differentiated and heterogeneous choice sets with an IDD of 0.105 and 0.128, respectively. Later sets in the DC process are more homogeneous with a stronger concentration on one type of destination: $IDD_{\text{relevant set}} = 0.393$; $IDD_{\text{action set}} = 0.410$. Past DCs are the least differentiated ($IDD_{\text{past DC set}} = 0.427$).

The results of the analysis of cluster composition and homogeneity in the DC sets reveal that while most respondents consider a greater variety of destinations from all cluster categories in their initial consideration set, they mostly choose their potential destinations for a specific trip within one cluster category and travel to one cluster category. DC becomes more realistic by the end of the DC process

(Decrop, 2010) and consequently familiar destinations from cluster 1 which can be visited more easily dominate in the homogeneous sets by the end of the DC process. This implies that competitive destinations for one distinct trip are similar in regard to familiarity. Although travel decisions are associated with a high level of involvement (Moutinho, 1987), habitual or rational behaviour also shapes travel decision-making leading to revisit familiar destinations or cautious DCs (Decrop & Zidda, 2006). Two factors have to be taken into account here: information search costs and risk reduction tendency. Tourists' motivation to deal with different alternatives and gather information to make DCs are limited since every information search is bound by costs (time or money) (Mansfeld, 1992). When tourists decide to visit familiar destinations, probably even already visited destinations, they are able to reduce information search costs. Furthermore, "the unique characteristics of tourism products can cause unexpected outcomes compared with retail products" (Park & Jang, 2013, p. 2). If tourists concentrate on familiar destinations, they are able to better estimate the outcome of their DC and reduce risks for their holiday. Facilitators are more meaningful at the beginning of the DC (Um & Crompton, 1992) and assist the inclusion of those destinations into the initial consideration set which would lead to an ideal DC outcome. In contrast, inhibitors and potential risks play a more important role at the end of the DC process and a destination is chosen which offers "a satisfactory pay-off which can be attained within perceived constraints" (Um & Crompton, 1992, p. 24).

Tourist typology of destination choice

A tourist typology of DC structures can help to explain the interaction between destination and tourist characteristics in the DC process. In contrast with previous studies on travel decision-making typologies which concentrate on various factors concerning the tourist such as personality traits (e.g. Cohen, 1972; Plog, 1974), this study focuses on the key points of the DC structure.

Based on the results of the DC structure analysis, set structures are examined in more detail on the level of the individual tourist. The tourist typology is developed using a combination of classification techniques and qualitative data mining. The qualitative data mining (i.e. manual extraction of patterns from the data set) applied here as statistical cluster analysis is not possible for this data set due to the large number of different variable values. In the first step, a DC set type is developed for each set that integrates all mentioned destination clusters for one respondent. Subsequently, all respondents with the same DC set structure (composed of DC set types in the relevant, initial consideration and past DC set) are grouped in one tourist type. The most common and distinctive groups are further analysed and represented by case examples. These case examples are applied to study the fourth research question whether tourist characteristics such as sociodemographic and travel-related factors are decisive determinants in the formation of DC structures.

As previous studies on set theory as well as statistical tests of this study show, set sizes vary depending on tourist characteristics. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is calculated in order to detect differences in the initial and unavailable consideration set sizes between the DC tourist types (see Table 7). Pearson's chi-squared test shows that the factors age, gender, travel frequency and travel motives (discovery/extraordinary experience, culture and education, risky experience, time with family/friends) are significant determinants of DC set structures.

The down-to-earth tourist types (realistic planner, safe dreamer) are characterised by a realistic DC set structure with safe and familiar destinations. Realistic planners such as respondent 179, who is female, 40–49 years old and highly educated, have a high congruency in their imagination of travelling, travel wishes and actual travel behaviour. In this case, alternative destinations for her next trip are Germany and France, she would like to visit Ireland and Portugal in the future (none of them are perceived to be unavailable) and she has already visited the destination which she considers for her next trip. Like the average down-to-earth tourist types, she is a less frequent traveller with small initial and unavailable consideration set sizes. This respondent prefers individually organised holidays and is particularly interested in cultural/educational or natural themes as well as the country and people of the visited destination. Safe dreamers on the other hand are less interested in culture and education while travelling. This travel motive is highly linked to the variable age which is one of the most important distinctive factors between these two tourist types (i.e. realistic planners are generally older than safe dreamers). The selected exemplary respondent 565 for safe dreamers is female, between 14 and 19 years old and has not (yet) graduated. The planned nature/camping trip with her family to

Table 7
Distinct characteristics of the DC tourist typology.

	Sig.	Realistic Planner		Safe Dreamer		Unrealistic Planner		Day Dreamer		Adventurer	
Set composition											
Relevant set		Cluster 1		Cluster 1		Cluster 1–4		Cluster 1		Cluster 1–4	
Initial consideration set		Cluster 1		Cluster 1/3		Cluster 1–5		Cluster 2–5		Cluster 1–5	
Past destination choice		Cluster 1		Cluster 1		Cluster 1		Cluster 1		Cluster 1–5	
Set size (mean)		*M*	SD	*M*	SD	*M*	SD	*M*	SD	*M*	SD
Initial consideration set	0.010*	1.9	1.0	2.0	1.2	2.8	1.5	3.2	1.7	2.8	1.5
Unavailable consideration set	0.000***	0.9	1.0	1.5	1.2	1.5	1.2	2.5	1.8	2.0	1.5
Age	0.000***										
Overrepresented group		40–49 years 60–69 years 70 years or older		14–19 years		20–29 years		30–39 years		20–29 years 50–59 years	
Underrepresented group		20–39 years				60–69 years		60–69 years 70 years or older		14–19 years 40–49 years 70 years or older	
Gender (in percent)	0.002**										
Female (55.3)		59.6		43.3		48.5		71.4		34.1	
Male (44.7)		40.4		56.6		51.5		28.6		65.9	
Travel regularity (in percent)	0.014*										
Regular traveller in past 3 years (44.0)		30.8		34.2		40.0		52.6		65.0	
Travel motives (in percent)											
Discovery, extraordinary experience (35.2)	0.031*	24.5		32.9		48.6		37.2		60.0	
Culture and education (46.5)	0.019*	54.7		27.6		45.7		48.7		50.0	
Risky experience (13.7)	0.000***	3.8		13.2		5.7		11.5		45.0	
Time with family/friends (42.3)	0.016*	50.9		43.4		40.0		64.1		30.0	

Note: Only significant factors of tourist destination choice typology are listed in this table.
* $p < 0.05$.
** $p < 0.01$.
*** $p < 0.001$.

either England or France (which she has visited in the past) is a typical holiday for her. Destinations in her initial/unavailable consideration set (Australia, USA) reflect the distinguishing feature between the down-to-earth tourist types. Realistic planners initially consider only safe and short-distance destinations (cluster 1), safe dreamers, however, also safe and long-distance destinations (cluster 3). The respondent's travel motives (relaxing, discovering, spending time with family/friends) and the relative low cultural interest while travelling are in line with the average safe dreamer.

In contrast with down-to-earth tourists, more unrealistic tourist types indicate a rather imaginative DC with initial consideration set sizes above average. A typical unrealistic planner is respondent 75. She is 20–29 years old, has a high educational level and her initial consideration set (China, Chile/Argentina, South Africa, Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia, Morocco) as well as her relevant set (Canada, India) are composed of destinations from various clusters except for cluster 1. Furthermore with France, Germany and England, she has only travelled to destinations from cluster 1 in the past three years. Like many unrealistic planners, she prefers extraordinary but non-risky relaxing holidays. As opposed to unrealistic planners, day dreamers have a more realistic DC structure and do not consider destinations in the relevant set which cannot be realistically realised in the near future. An example for the day dreamer tourist is respondent 299, a female tourist between 20 and 29 years with a high educational level. Her plan is to go on a package trip and to spend a relaxing but sporty nature/sun holiday with her family or friends in Austria, Croatia or Italy, destinations which she has visited before. Nevertheless, she would like to visit USA, Brazil, India, China or Thailand and does not judge them as unavailable for future holidays. A remarkable characteristic of day dreamers is the high travel frequency. Apparently travelling is important to day dreamers even though they are not able to realise initially considered destinations at the moment. Day dreamers do not postpone all travel plans but substitute travel destinations which are not realisable at the moment with other destinations. An explanation can be the current family situation as a possible constraint that strongly influences DCs. The high relative importance of the travel motive "spending time with family/partner/friends" in this tourist type and sociodemographic factors (higher proportion of female tourists and the age group 30–39) support this argument.

The least familiarity-seeking adventurer tourist type has a fairly realistic DC set structure like respondent 472, a male tourist between 20 and 29 years with a high educational level. His relevant set (China, Australia), past DCs (China, Peru, Bolivia) and initial consideration set (Israel, Africa, Eastern Europe) are all composed of destinations from various cluster categories except for cluster 1. Thus, actual and imagination of travel behaviour are highly consistent. This frequent traveller is planning an individually organised sport/cycling/hiking trip. Like many adventurer tourists, this respondent has a different motivation to go travelling than other tourist types. He is attracted by extraordinary experiences and cultural/natural aspects while travelling but less motivated to go on a holiday in order to spend time with family and/or friends. None of the initially considered destinations are perceived to be unavailable. Due to the dominant age groups (20–29 and 50–59 years), adventurer tourists might be less restricted by familial reasons, have a certain level of travel experience and are therefore able to carry out travel plans more easily.

Conclusion

Tourists' DCs are complex processes with various determinants that decide whether or not a destination moves from one step of the DC sequence to the next and is finally chosen as a travel destination. Set theory helps to reduce some of the complexity and allows investigating several alternative destinations during the choice process even if these destinations are finally not chosen.

Theoretical contribution

This empirical study enhances the understanding and research methodology of the DC process by applying set theory which was often used as a conceptual model lacking empirical evidence (Decrop, 2010). In particular, this research determines whether there is a link between the stage in the DC process and the kind of destination that is considered at that stage. The construction of a destination index in this study based on objective destination characteristics instead of tourists' subjective estimation like the "individualised index of attraction" (Deutsch-Burgner, Ravualaparthy, & Goulias, 2014) allows to analyse the influence of destination attributes on the selection or rejection of a destination.

A significant finding to emerge from this study is that DC sets vary in regard to variety and type of dominant destinations. The initial consideration set consists of a wide range of destinations from various clusters that is narrowed down during the DC process and the definite travel behaviour. The more realistic DC sets are dominated by close, well-known and safe destinations with a highly developed tourist infrastructure. This supports Plog's theory (1974) as it emphasises the importance of familiarity in DC. Moreover, this study is able to identify a tourist typology of DC that is characterised by similar DC structures. Decrop and Snelders' (2005) or Decrop and Zidda's (2006) tourist typology (based on decision-making behaviour) is partly reflected in these tourist types. For example, rational vacationers with a high risk avoiding tendency, rational decision-making behaviour and realistic DC structure are comparable to realistic planners in this study. Furthermore, hedonistic vacationers are similar to day dreamers since these tourists also tend to plan their dream holiday without consideration of travel constraints. This study can be seen as an enhancement of past tourist typologies since it includes the specific characteristics of the destinations as an additional explanatory factor for the formation of DC tourist types.

The results of this study underline that not only final DCs are essential in the investigation of travel decisions. Tourists often start the DC process with various combinations of destination types but decide very similarly when it comes to choosing the final destination. This specifies Decrop's (2010) findings that the degree of realism increases during the DC process: "Vacationers may move from a preference/ideal value level [...] to an expectation level [...] and finally to a tolerance level [...] as far as plans evolve" (Decrop, 2010, pp. , 110–111). The present study deepens the knowledge about changes in the DC process as it furthermore includes information on the destinations at the different steps of the DC process. One of the few approaches including destination characteristics is Marcussen's (2011) microeconomic study that analyses several influencing factors on DC. However, this study concentrates on the outcome of DC and is therefore not able to answer the question why destinations are

rejected during the DC process. This study shows that besides tourist characteristics, destination related constraints also play an important role in the selection or rejection of destinations during the DC process. Another contribution of this study is the integration of travel constraints into DC, an important factor which has not been considered in many set theory studies. This helps to understand why certain destinations are not realistically considered but excluded for the present time.

Managerial contribution

Travel constraints which occur by the end of the DC process are often more related to personal inhibitors and consequently marketing strategies might be less efficient here (Crompton, 1992). In contrast with this, a strategic marketing which helps to change the perception of travel constraints concerning destinations at the beginning of the DC process (e.g. safety and security image, pricing strategy) would prove to be more successful. For example, the island of Crete has dealt with the discrepancy between the actual and perceived safety and security situation in their destination in a marketing campaign which directly addresses this problematic. Their video campaign shows a tourist who obviously enjoys a peaceful holiday at the destination while frequently observing media reports from his home country that portray a situation of a chaotic destination full of protest and crisis. Destinations that have to deal with a discrepancy between perceived and actual travel costs could apply a similar strategy. Many long-distance destinations are perceived to be unavailable to the tourist due to financial reasons. Nevertheless, the cumulative costs of the whole holiday may in fact be less in comparison to short distance destinations because of lower on-site expenses despite relatively high journey costs.

More detailed information on travel constraints may also be of specific interest to destination management and tourism organisations. Destinations managers with more knowledge about tourists who initially consider their destinations but rate them as unavailable for the moment are able to develop a more target-group-specific marketing strategy. They can address their marketing to tourists who would initially be interested in the destination but decide to travel to another destination in the end. Another aspect which might be of relevance in this context is the identification of competing destinations for one specific trip but also for future holidays (i.e. all destinations in one tourist's relevant or initial consideration set). If destination managers know competing destinations, amenities and the unique selling proposition of a destination can be addressed specifically in comparison to competing destinations.

Limitations and further research

One limitation of this study is the transferability to other source markets and the generalisability of statistical research findings. Cultural factors influence tourists' decision-making processes in several aspects such as information search or travel purchase behaviour (Money & Crotts, 2003). Beside geographic distance which leads to an increase in disfamiliarity, cultural distance (i.e. "the degree to which cultural values in one country are different from those in another country" (Sousa & Bradley, 2006, p. 52)) should also be considered. A great difference between culture or habits of home and host country producing a feeling of uncertainty concerning one self's behaviour (Lepp & Gibson, 2008), most likely reinforces the feeling of disfamiliarity towards a destination. The high uncertainty avoidance of German tourists (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010) should be borne in mind as it leads to a tendency towards safe decisions with a low level of uncertainty which might explain the dominance of relatively easy travel destinations in the relevant set and past DCs. The study's findings should thus be considered in regard to specific features of the German source market such as the very high and stable travel intensity or the strong outbound market (Lohmann & Aderhold, 2009) which lead to a high (international) travel experience. A similar study in a country with a different tourism market structure (e.g. weak outbound market) and lower uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede et al., 2010) such as the USA would help to clarify the influence of specific market structure and culture. Although the DC tourist types are case examples for the German source market and do not allow a generalisation of the findings, this exploratory approach nevertheless indicates that certain patterns of DC structures exist.

Several research questions concerning tourists' DC set structures remain unanswered at present. DC is in most cases a joint decision between travel partners (van Raaij & Francken, 1984) and cannot be investigated without consideration of the social environment (Mansfeld, 1992). Therefore, destinations are not only located in tourists' relevant sets because of personal preferences but because of mutual decisions with travel companions (Jang, Lee, Lee, & Hong, 2007).

Moreover, DC is not a static but dynamic concept that is exposed to external and internal influencing factors (Crompton, 1992; Decrop, 2006; Decrop, 2010; Um & Crompton, 1990). The application of a quantitative approach focusing on the key decision points does not allow investigating the formation of DC sets in this dynamic process. A more qualitative and longitudinal approach, as Decrop (2010) shows, will help to shed light on the role of influencing factors in the formation of DC sets. Qualitative methods are furthermore able to detect the unconscious elements of DC (Martin & Woodside, 2012). Moreover, the second step of the DC process—the evaluation of alternative destinations in the latest set and the selection of one destination (Um & Crompton, 1990)—is not investigated in this study. Factors influencing the rejection of a destination in the early stages of the DC process are probably of another nature than factors which lead to the selection of one final holiday destination (Perdue & Meng, 2006) and should therefore be included in future studies.

DC is not concentrated on one but often on several consecutive trips for some years. Destinations which are excluded for one holiday do not necessarily leave the DC structure but can be postponed for the next DC (Decrop, 2010). An important trend in German tourism is the increase in the number of holidays per year (Lohmann & Aderhold, 2009) which leads to an intensifying complexity of travel decisions. A DC is now simultaneously dealing with several trips. This suggests that tourists' DCs not only concern several consecutive trips which are combined in macro-evoked sets (i.e. "set of product alternatives which are all possible in the near future" (Decrop, 2010, p. 102)) but also several types of holidays. Some destinations will shift between holiday DCs but other destinations which are strongly linked to a certain type of holiday will only be relevant for decisions concerning this type of holiday. It seems therefore possible that several parallel relevant sets exist as a sub-category of the macro-evoked set. Woodside and Sherrell (1977) as well as Decrop (2010) state that mode of travel or length of stay, respectively, influence DC sets. Other important characteristics in this context could be: type of holiday (sea-sun-sand vs. ski), travel motive (adventure vs. culture), travel season (summer vs. winter), length of trip (weekend vs. week/s), travel companion (single vs. family), or mode of transport (airplane vs. car). A tourist who is deciding on a weekend shopping trip will probably consider a different number of alternatives as when deciding on a three week adventure backpacking trip. Nevertheless, studies on set theory have not yet concentrated on the question if and how tourists' relevant sets differ depending on the characteristics of a holiday and further research needs to integrate this variety of DC sets.

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Risk and Uncertainty in Travel Decision-Making: Tourist and Destination Perspective

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Abstract
Many studies on risk and destination choice focus on specific destinations or tourist characteristics in an isolated way, resulting in a fragmented nature in research results without a comprehensive understanding. Therefore, an integrated research approach is applied using tourists' self-assessments of risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making, as well as key characteristics of destinations at hypothetical and realistic stages of the destination choice process. The study uses data collected from a survey on German tourists' destination choice behavior. The results show that high educational levels and high travel frequencies are distinct characteristics of risk-affine tourists, while higher age groups are more dominant in risk- and uncertainty-averse tourist types. Tourists with varying attitudes toward risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making differ strongly with respect to ideal destinations initially, but choose rather similar destinations when it comes to the final destination choice.

Keywords
risk, uncertainty, destination choice, travel decision, perception, set theory

Introduction

Risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making has become an important research area, especially since the terror attacks of September 11, 2001 (Mansfeld 2006), and continue to be relevant, for example, with the recent Arab Spring events and conflicts impacting Mediterranean destinations such as Egypt or Tunisia. There are two dominant strategies that exist in tourism research to study risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making. One branch of research approaches this topic on an aggregated level by investigating real destination choices (DCs) using secondary data from tourist arrivals (Drakos and Kutan 2003; Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty 2009). The focus of this research branch is on a better understanding of the outcome of DC and changes in tourism flows. However, tourists' individual choices not to visit a destination because of high risk levels leading to these changes are not observed. The second strategy therefore approaches the research topic using an individual perspective to address perceptions of risk as an influencing factor of DC (Kozak, Crotts, and Law 2007; Sönmez and Graefe 1998a, 1998b). Such research often either concentrates on the destination itself to investigate risk categories (Fletcher and Morakabati 2008) or on specific tourist groups with similar attitudes, perceptions, or behaviors toward risk (Fuchs 2013; Jonas et al. 2011). While all studies agree that risk and uncertainty play an important role in DCs, the question of how and when these factors influence tourists in their decisions whether or not to visit certain destinations are ambiguous and often the results are contradictory (e.g., the influence of sociodemographic factors such as age or gender).

Some of the reasons for the fragmentary nature of past research may be due to the fact that various conceptual or methodological approaches are applied. First, numerous studies make either–or decisions regarding the analysis of hypothetical or real DCs, which is problematic because of an existing discrepancy between hypothetical desired holidays versus actually executed holidays (Karl, Reintinger, and Schmude 2015). Second, either–or decisions are made about a focus on certain tourists or destinations, which is controversial seeing that DC is considered a negotiation process between tourists' needs and amenities offered by destinations (Bekk, Sporrle, and Kruse 2015). Lastly, either–or decisions are made about the research methodology between the survey of self-assessments or actual DC behaviors, which is particularly precarious with regard to social desirability as a

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factor in surveys that retrieve personal estimations of individual attitudes or behaviors.

Therefore, an integrated research approach is applied in this study that avoids either–or decisions about these aspects. By looking at hypothetically considered destinations at the beginning of the DC process as well as the actually planned or executed DCs at the end of the process, this study is able to shed light on the way and the timing of risk and uncertainty as influencing factors of DC. Furthermore, the combination of a tourist and destination perspective allows investigations of interdependencies between tourists' personalities and destination attributes under the influence of risk and uncertainty to understand why certain types of destinations are chosen or rejected during the DC process by tourists with a certain level of risk and uncertainty affinity. Lastly, the inclusion of tourists' self-assessments of risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making, as well as key characteristics of destinations considered at different stages of the DC process, allows the assessment of discrepancies between individual imagination and actual travel behavior caused by risk and uncertainty.

The research is guided by three main research aims focusing on

1. The development of a tourist typology based on respondents' self-assessments of concepts related to risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making,
2. The profiling of significant determinants of the tourist typology based on tourists' sociodemographic and travel-related characteristics, and
3. The identification of differences between the tourist types in the hypothetical and realistic stages of the DC processes based on destination characteristics.

To achieve these research aims, the study uses data from a survey on German tourists' self-assessments of travel decision-making with regards to risk and uncertainty, and actual DC behaviors. Based on a literature review, several items related to risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making are chosen and used to develop the tourist typology. For a better understanding of the tourist types, sociodemographic and travel-related factors are tested to determine relations between tourist type and tourist characteristics. Alternative destinations on several stages of the DC process, representing rather hypothetical or realistic choices, are further investigated to depict differences in DCs between the tourist types. To capture the destination itself, destinations that are considered during the DC process are characterized using an objective index on familiarity and uncertainty.

Literature Review

The first part of the literature review discusses why DC should be investigated from a tourist and destination perspective. The second part outlines the role of risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making and DC, while the third part introduces several concepts relating to risk that are of relevance for this study.

Tourist and Destination Perspective in Destination Choice Research

DC is based on a negotiation process between tourists' needs and amenities offered by destinations (Ankomah, Crompton, and Baker 1996). Bekk, Sporrle, and Kruse (2015) follow this idea and propose a theoretical model for examining tourist behavior that recognizes the interplay between destination and tourist characteristics as an influencing factor of tourist behavior. Their study is based on perceived similarity of brand dimensions and could be expanded to actual features that characterize destinations. Butler (2012, 30) criticizes a general negligence of the spatial dimension in tourism research since tourism "is about the places from which they [tourists] come and even more the places to which they go, . . . and as geographers I would argue it is essential that we focus on these aspects beyond all others." However, there are few studies on risk and uncertainty in DC that investigate DC as a negotiation process between tourists' needs and destinations' amenities, and destination information is included to a limited extent (Lo, Cheung, and Law 2011; Lo, Law, and Cheung 2011; Roehl and Fesenmaier 1992). For example, Lo, Law, and Cheung (2011) consider the destination as a travel-related determinant; however, whether tourists visit a national or international destination was the main destination characteristic that was further tested.

While the isolated treatment of destination and tourist characteristics allows us to gain insight into specific aspects and their function in the DC process, it impedes the understanding of the complex role of risk and uncertainty during the DC process. Following the basic assumption of an interplay between tourist and destination, this study focuses on the question why tourists decide to visit destinations with a certain level of risk depending on factors relating to the tourist or the destination. Therefore, this study incorporates key destination attributes influencing DCs in the context of risk and uncertainty, such as familiarity and relevant tourist characteristics, such as risk and uncertainty affinity.

Risk and Uncertainty in Travel Decision-making and Destination Choice

The focus of this study is on risk and uncertainty because these factors play an important role in many stages of the travel decision-making process, specifically during the DC (Quintal, Lee, and Soutar 2010), one of the most important subdecisions of the multistage travel decision-making process (Crouch, Huybers, and Oppewal 2016). An important aspect of DC of relevance for studies on risk and uncertainty is that tourists are not able to predict or anticipate the

situation at a destination before traveling, and therefore rely on information from other sources, such as media, friends and family members, or travel organizations. In cases where the perceived situation is not acceptable or desirable for the tourist, tourists will modify their travel plans (Mansfeld 2006) depending on the stage of their travel decision. Before a final choice is made, tourists may decide to travel to a different destination and find a substitute for an alternate destination (Decrop 2010). After the final choice is made, tourists may then choose to travel to the same destination but, at another time, alter their travel plans by shifting from traveling individually to booking a package tour, or from traveling alone to traveling in groups (Adam 2015). Other important strategies after the final choice are purchasing travel insurance, bringing extra cash, and searching for the latest information about the destination (Lo, Cheung, and Law 2011).

Risk and *uncertainty* are often used interchangeably (Quintal, Lee, and Soutar 2010). However, risk refers to assessments of possibilities that certain (negative) events occur (Weber and Bottom 1989), whereas uncertainty refers to partial knowledge during the decision-making process (Crompton 1992). Uncertainty is relevant for DCs as it can arise in situations where tourists are exposed to an overload of information which they are not able to process (Crompton 1992), or from specific characteristics of traveling such as intangibility, inseparability, variability, and perishability of the product travel (Fuchs and Reichel 2006). In regard to risk and DC, Sönmez and Graefe (1998a, 125) state that "potential tourists select the destination which best matches their needs by offering the most benefits for the least cost (or risk)." Past studies on risk and DC consider various risk factors such as the risk that a holiday would not provide personal satisfaction. However, risk factors that affect tourists' physical well-being are the strongest influencing factors of DC (Gray and Wilson 2009); therefore, this study focuses mainly on such safety and security risks.

Focusing on the perception of the situation is important in the context of risk, as risk perceptions (i.e., subjective assessment from an individual's perspective and the likelihood of negative consequences of an event or choice; Mowen and Minor 2001) are proven to be stronger determinants of DC than actual existing risks (Fuchs and Reichel 2006). Studies on risk (perceptions) and DC agree that risk influences DC (Floyd et al. 2004; Fuchs and Reichel 2006; Kozak, Crotts, and Law 2007; Sönmez and Graefe 1998a, 1998b) but do not agree on the strength or the manner of the influence: A study by Floyd et al. (2004) in the aftermath of the September 11 terrorist attacks shows tourists avoid international travel if the level of perceived risk is too high. However, further research reveals that high levels of risk or perceived risk only lead to a substitution of travel destinations but not a canceling of all (international) travel plans (Drakos and Kutan 2003; Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty 2009). General leisure constraint theories may provide more insight. Translating Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey's (1991) hierarchical model of leisure constraints to the context of risk and uncertainty implies that intrapersonal constraints including risk perceptions affect travel intentions and DCs at the beginning of the process while interpersonal (e.g., suitable travel partner) or structural constraints (e.g., financial situation) become stronger toward the final decision.

So far research is not able to identify whether risk (perception) has the strongest influence on DCs at the beginning of the DC process when tourists dream about hypothetical holidays, toward the end of the DC process when tourists actively consider alternatives for a certain holiday, or at the last step when tourists overcome all constraints and choose one final destination. To address this research gap, this study focuses on hypothetical and realistic DCs, based on the assumption that a discrepancy exists between those DCs (Karl, Reintinger, and Schmude 2015), to investigate when risk and uncertainty trigger changes in tourists' DCs.

Hypothesis 1: Tourists with higher levels of risk and uncertainty affinities in travel decision-making consider destinations with lower levels of risk and uncertainty for hypothetical future holidays.
Hypothesis 2: A high level of risk is a constraining factor in realistic DCs for tourists with a low level of risk and uncertainty affinity in travel decision-making.

Many studies dealing with risk perception and DC concentrate on risk categories as possible generators or sources of risk at a destination such as natural disasters (Park and Reisinger 2010), health risks (Jonas et al. 2011), criminality (Ryan 1993), political instability (Fletcher and Morakabati 2008), or terrorism (Fuchs et al. 2013). The results of many past studies are connected to a specific research context and often are either spatially restricted by the investigation of case studies or restricted by the sample through the investigation of specific tourist groups. Case studies of specific destinations (Fuchs 2013; Sharifpour et al. 2014) may affect the results because DC is influenced by a variety of factors that could outweigh the influence of risk and uncertainty, which is often not controlled for in case studies. Moreover, research focuses on certain groups of tourists with high influence of risk on DC, such as visitors of a medical clinic concerned about health risks (Jonas et al. 2011), or low influence of risk on DC, such as tourists traveling to a region affected by terrorism (Fuchs et al. 2013). The focus on specific tourist groups is insofar problematic as past research has shown that risk perceptions are influenced by sociodemographic variables such as age (Hajibaba et al. 2015; Reisinger and Mavondo 2006), gender to some degree (Lepp and Gibson 2008; Pizam et al. 2004), or educational level (Park and Reisinger 2010; Sönmez and Graefe 1998a).

Although most studies agree that sociodemographic variables influence risk perceptions, results are sometimes ambiguous, which might be due to a focus on certain age groups, as one explanation. Therefore, this study aims to further clarify

these results by including sociodemographic variables as explanatory factors of tourists' attitudes and behaviors toward risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making.

Hypothesis 3: The level of risk and uncertainty affinity in travel decision-making is related to the tourists' gender.
Hypothesis 4: The level of risk and uncertainty affinity in travel decision-making decreases with increasing age.
Hypothesis 5: The level of risk and uncertainty affinity in travel decision-making increases with the tourists' educational levels.
Hypothesis 6: The level of risk and uncertainty affinity in travel decision-making is related to the tourists' professions.
Hypothesis 7: The level of risk and uncertainty affinity in travel decision-making is related to the tourists' household incomes.

Aside from sociodemographic variables, risk perceptions are influenced by factors related to traveling such as traveling with children or travel experience. Past research conducted by Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) has shown that tourists focus on different kinds of risks depending on whether or not they are traveling with young children. In particular, functional risks such as organizational difficulties at the destination are most concerning for travelers with young children. Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) do not differentiate between age groups and focus on young children. However, tourists traveling with older children may be affected in their risk and uncertainty attitudes or behaviors. This study therefore aims to investigate the factor "traveling with children" in a more differentiated way to understand how it affects risk and uncertainty affinity and DCs.

Hypothesis 8: Traveling with children is related to tourists' risk and uncertainty affinity in travel decision-making.

Several past studies demonstrate that travel experience influences, at least, some dimensions of risk perception (Fuchs and Reichel 2011; Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty 2009; Sönmez and Graefe 1998a, 1998b). Moreover, Lo, Cheung, and Law (2011) found that not all tourists apply the same risk reduction strategies, and differences exist, for example, as seen between experienced and inexperienced travelers. One explanation can be taken from the concept of self-efficacy by Bandura (1977), which states that the accomplishment of a certain situation and repeated success strengthen the belief in someone's own skills and strongly influences their behavior. Since self-efficacy belief is transferable to other situations, inexperienced tourists may cautiously approach more and more "difficult" destinations through the establishment of self-efficacy by visitation of other destinations. This implies that travel experience, risk perception, and DC are interconnected. An increase in travel experience lowers the level of perceived risk and leads to the choice of destinations with higher levels of risk for future holidays, which then increases travel experience even further. However, while travel experience was detected as an influencing factor of risk perceptions, the influence on risk and uncertainty affinity is not yet clear. Therefore, this study integrates past travel experience as a direct influencing factor of attitudes and behavior toward risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making and an indirect determinant of DCs.

Hypotheses 9: Gaining travel experience increases tourists' risk and uncertainty affinity in travel decision-making.

Concepts Relating to Risk and Uncertainty Relevant for Destination Choices

Yang and Nair's (2014) review of risk in tourism states that risk and risk perception are multidimensional concepts related to aspects such as uncertainty avoidance, worry, anxiety, or fear. Other aspects that are associated with risk are sensation seeking (Fuchs 2013), risk-taking propensity (Pizam et al. 2004), and familiarity seeking (Plog 1974, 2001).

Uncertainty avoidance is defined as the extent to which someone feels threatened or uncomfortable by ambiguous, unknown, or uncertain situations (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov 2010). Consequently, persons with high uncertainty avoidance refrain from situations where the outcome is not clearly predictable. From a DC context, this could mean tourists may decide not to travel to destinations with less developed touristic infrastructures as it is more difficult to estimate or predict the outcome of a holiday in such a destination. Another strategy to reduce uncertainty can be derived from risk reduction strategies such as traveling with a tour operator instead of individual traveling (Adam 2015; Lo, Cheung, and Law 2011). Here, lack of knowledge about the destination is compensated by engaging a professional travel agent and tour guide.

The concept of familiarity is another important aspect related to risk and uncertainty due to how destination characteristics and tourist needs interact within the DC process. Plog (1974, 2001) determined that familiarity- and novelty-seeking behavior is reflected in DC, as well-known destinations are chosen by familiarity-seeking tourists and unknown destinations by novelty-seeking tourists. Plog's (1974) focus on the development of destinations moreover reveals that novelty seekers dominate in the beginning of a destination's lifecycle versus familiarity seekers at the end. One possible explanation for this outcome may be that well-known destinations with a history of tourism can provide sufficient tourism infrastructure and are therefore chosen by familiarity seekers. Karl, Reintinger, and Schmude (2015) operationalize Plog's (1974, 2001) familiarity concept to investigate tourists' DCs and show that most tourists prefer traveling to rather familiar destinations, yet dream about visiting destinations with different levels of familiarity. Morakabati and Kapuściński (2016) seize on Plog's (1974, 2001) typology to analyze differences in risk perceptions, benefits sought from

a holiday, and a terrorism effect depending on the type of tourist. Their results emphasize the relation between familiarity and risk perception, revealing that familiarity-seeking tourists tend to have significantly higher risk perceptions than novelty-seeking tourists.

Sensation seeking and risk-taking propensity are two concepts that refer more to attitudes and behaviors rather than mere perception. Sensation seeking describes the "generalized tendency to seek varied, novel, complex, and intense sensations and experiences and the willingness to take risks for the sake of such experiences" (Zuckerman 2010, 1545), whereas risk-taking propensity is the generic orientation or attitude of a person toward taking or avoiding risks (Rohrmann 2008). This implies that risk may be a positive asset of traveling or a travel motive for some tourists (Adam 2015). As it pertains to DC, high sensation seeking and risk-taking tendencies may direct tourists toward new and unknown destinations with little touristic infrastructure that pose a certain risk instead of revisiting familiar destinations. Hajibaba et al. (2015, 49) analyze risk-taking propensity on a group of tourists visiting a highly volatile destination and found that such crisis-resistant tourists "tend to absorb risks instead of engaging in risk avoidance strategies." This implies that these tourists are not attracted by the risk but attracted to the destination despite the risk. Regarding on-site behavior, Pizam et al. (2004) study risk-taking and sensation seeking in form of a combined influencing factor of tourist behavior and are able to show that tourists with high risk-taking and sensation seeking tendencies are more likely to engage in adventurous activities that might pose a certain level of risk. A study conducted by Lee and Tseng (2015) furthermore reveals that how tourists evaluate situations with a certain level of risk or uncertainty influences the degree to which tourists engage in activities with dangerous or uncertain results.

All these concepts have been covered in research but mostly not in a complementary way, and focus on one factor interrelated to others creates research results that are sometimes difficult to interpret on a more comprehensive scale. Furthermore, many of these concepts overlap and this study therefore combines these concepts for the development of the tourist typology (Table 1) to reveal the role of risk and uncertainty in DC.

Methodology

Research Design

An integrated research model was developed in which hypothetical and realistic DCs are investigated from a tourist and destination perspective (Figure 1). A tourist typology is developed based on literature on several concepts related to risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making. The tourist types are then profiled regarding specific sociodemographic and travel-related characteristics before DCs are analyzed using a destination index that characterizes destinations according to their level of familiarity. The separate components of the research model will be described in the following sections.

Development of the tourist typology. The tourist typology is based on risk and associated aspects as influencing factors of travel decision-making behavior. The chosen items (Table 1) refer to uncertainty avoidance, sensation seeking, novelty seeking, and risk-taking propensity during the travel decision-making process, as outlined in the literature review. All items were measured using a semantic differential technique (5-point scale) stating how much a respondent would prefer each contrasting option. To avoid a bias caused by the wording of the items, statements started with risk and uncertainty averse as well as affine options. The scores were later reversed to obtain meaningful scores.

The items represent three dimensions of travel decision-making: type of destination, type of holiday, and on-site behavior. Table 1 provides the dimensions and items incorporated in the tourist typology with literature examples for the concepts and methodology that supported the development of the items.

The type of destination is represented by three items. The first item refers to tourists' needs for familiarity or sensation and can be best explained using Plog's (1974) tourist typology, which suggests familiarity-seeking tourists choose destinations with a high level of familiarity, which they can find in destinations that they have already visited before (item 1). The second item regarding destinations' touristic infrastructures is derived from the concept of uncertainty avoidance (Quintal, Lee, and Soutar 2010), which assumes tourists with higher uncertainty avoidances prefer destinations with well-developed touristic infrastructures to facilitate traveling and to reduce the level of uncertainty (item 2). The third item directly refers to safety and security levels at a destination with risk-taking propensity as a theoretical concept (Williams and Baláž 2013) and derived from a study conducted by Hajibaba et al. (2015) on crisis-resistant tourists who decide to visit a destination despite safety concerns (item 3).

The type of holiday is represented by items on the preplanning process and travel organization. Preplanning is based on the category experience seeking from Zuckerman's (1971) sensation-seeking scale. It is assumed that traveling without a thorough preplanning expense adds a certain level of sensation appealing to high sensation seeking tourists (item 4). Hofstede's concept of uncertainty avoidance is applied in this study for the item "travel organization." The assumption is that tourists who prefer to travel with tour operators instead of organizing the holiday themselves are more averse to uncertainty (item 5) since the organizer is responsible for tourists' safety and will avoid potential threats or inform tourists when necessary.

On-site behavior is represented by two items where the first deals with the kind of activities located at

Table 1. Operationalization of the Tourist Typology with Literature Examples for the Concepts and Methodology.

Item No.	Item Description: I Prefer . . . (Measured on a 5-Point Scale)	Dimension: Travel Decision-making	Dimension: Risk and Uncertainty	Literature: Conceptual and Methodological
1	To revisit destinations or destinations that I have not yet visited.	Type of destination	Novelty seeking Sensation seeking	Lepp and Gibson 2008; Zuckerman 1971
2	Destinations with highly developed touristic infrastructures or destinations with less developed touristic infrastructures.	Type of destination	Uncertainty avoidance Novelty seeking	Plog 1974, 2001; Quintal, Lee, and Soutar 2010
3	Destinations despite safety concerns or destinations with high safety levels.	Type of destination	Risk-taking propensity	Hajibaba et al. 2015; Williams and Baláž 2013
4	Preplanned trips or trips without definite route or timetables.	Type of holiday	Sensation seeking	Lepp and Gibson 2008; Pizam et al. 2004; Zuckerman 1971
5	Travel organization through tour operators or individual independent organization.	Type of holiday	Uncertainty avoidance Novelty seeking	Cohen 1972; Lepp and Gibson 2008; Lo, Law, and Cheung 2011; Seabra et al. 2013
6	Exciting activities that might be dangerous or safe activities which might be less exciting.	On-site behaviour	Sensation seeking Risk-taking propensity	Fuchs 2013; Jackson, Hourany, and Vidmar 1972; Lee and Tseng 2015; Lepp and Gibson 2008; Pizam et al. 2004; Zuckerman 1971
7	Unfamiliar local food or familiar international food.	On-site behaviour	Uncertainty avoidance Novelty seeking	Larsen et al. 2007; Lepp and Gibson 2003, 2008

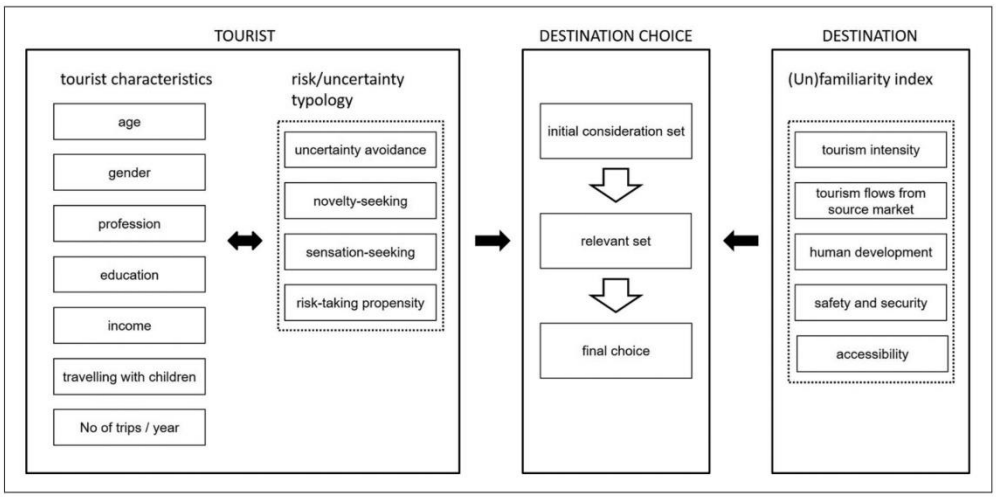

Figure 1. Research model.

the destination. The theoretical concepts used here are the categories of thrill and adventure seeking from Zuckerman's (1971) sensation-seeking scale and the physical risk–taking propensity from the Jackson Personality Inventory (Jackson, Hourany, and Vidmar 1972). An item on activities was chosen in part because of research conducted by Crouch, Huybers, and Oppewal (2016), where the choice of activity and choice of destination are identified as fundamental aspects of travel decision-making. The operationalization of sensation seeking and risk taking during traveling is derived from the results of a study conducted by Pizam et al. (2004) revealing sensation seeking and risk taking being related to

engagement in risky activities. The assumption is that tourists who choose activities with a certain level of risk are more risk affine than tourists who choose safe activities (item 6). The second item relating to on-site behavior includes uncertainty avoidance and novelty seeking with regard to food preferences at the destination. The supposition is that unknown local food is a positive asset of traveling for novelty-seeking tourists and a potential source of risk for tourists with high uncertainty avoidances (item 7). It is partially based on Lepp and Gibson's (2003) study that reveals strange food being a concern particularly for tourists with high familiarity needs while it is not relevant for other tourists. Since food risks are perceived to be higher abroad than at home (Larsen et al. 2007), concern about food was operationalized using the terms unfamiliar local food versus familiar international food.

Analysis of destination choice. Set theory was applied to investigate DC as it allows to focus on the process rather than the outcome of the choice process (Karl, Reintinger, and Schmude 2015). Reasons for the rejection of destinations at certain stages can be identified further to clarify as to when and how risk and uncertainty affect the DC process. In set theory, DC is treated as a multistage process where alternative destinations are grouped into hierarchically ordered sets that gradually reduces the complexity of the DC (e.g., Crompton 1992; Crompton and Ankomah 1993). The focus for this study is on DC sets that permit capturing differences between hypothetical future, realistically planned, and actually executed DC behaviors known as initial consideration set, relevant set, and past DC.

The initial consideration set represents rather hypothetical choices at the beginning of the DC process, built from destinations respondents would like to visit in the future (Karl, Reintinger, and Schmude 2015). Similar to Crompton's (1992) initial set, it is created before the DC for an actual trip is activated. The initial consideration set is able to illustrate the range of destinations respondents are drawn to without consideration of temporal constraints that might be immediate deterrents to travel at the present time.

> *Initial consideration set*: "Please name up to six other destinations that you would like to visit in the future."

In contrast to the hypothetical initial consideration set, the relevant set refers to planned choices relating to a specific holiday containing all alternative destinations which are considered for this trip. The relevant set is based on the late consideration set (Ankomah, Crompton, and Baker 1996; Crompton 1992) as a limited time frame between choice and start of the holiday is included, with a maximum of 12 months used for this study. The importance of relevant sets in DC stems from the fact that the final destination is ultimately taken from this set (Crompton 1992).

> *Relevant set*: "Which are/were alternative destinations for your next main holiday (i.e., at least four overnight stays)?"

Besides travel plans, respondents' past DCs (i.e., main holidays of the last three years) were included to represent the actual finalized choices. Past DCs display a highly realistic image of the DC without destinations that are not suitable for the respondent because of temporal or permanent constraints. Past DCs not only represent the geographical dimensions of travel behavior but also allow for drawing conclusions on travel frequencies and travel experience. Travel frequency, measured as the number of main holidays in the past three years, is based on past studies by Floyd et al. (2004), Pizam et al. (2004), or Sönmez and Graefe (1998a). Respondents were not restricted to a specific geographical scale concerning the destinations in the questionnaire as destinations "come in all shapes and sizes and can be found in a variety of geographical settings" (Fyall 2013, 118).

To test whether tourist types differ significantly regarding the alternative destinations of hypothetical, planned, and executed DC, destinations are categorized according to a destination index from a former study by Karl, Reintinger, and Schmude (2015) that captures the level of (un)familiarity toward destinations from German tourists' perspectives. The destination index operationalizes Plog's (1974, 2001) familiarity concept to develop an objective categorization of destinations based on secondary data. The destination index is based on a cluster analysis of indicators for tourism intensity (UNWTO 2013a), tourism flows from Germany (UNWTO 2013b), human development (UNDP 2013), accessibility, and safety/security (IEP 2013). The destination index distinguishes five types of destinations that vary in their distance to the source market Germany, general importance as a holiday destination, experience of German tourists with a destination, development status, and safety/security level. Table 2 displays the key characteristics of the destination categories with exemplary countries. The destination index was used to investigate DC processes of the respondents to capture what type of destination is most relevant for each tourist type in each DC set. All destinations mentioned in the survey are aggregated on the national level for the application of the destination index.

Data Collection

A quantitative survey was conducted in Munich, Germany, in June 2014 (n = 402) using a standardized questionnaire in personal interviews. The survey took place when no major natural disaster or man-made safety and security issue occurred or was discussed in the German media. This is insofar important as judgments of destinations in regard to risk and uncertainty are often highly influenced by current events, especially by the media representation of these events (Hall and O'Sullivan 1996). Specially trained interviewers

Table 2. Description of Destination Index with Key Characteristics and Locations.

Category	Key Characteristics	Location
Easy travel	Very safe, very highly developed, short distance to Germany, high tourism intensity, strong tourist flow from Germany	Western Europe, Central Europe e.g., Germany, France
Out-of-the-ordinary	Rather unsafe, highly developed, medium distance to Germany, low tourism intensity, weak tourist flow from Germany	Eastern Europe, North Africa, Middle East e.g., Albania, Macedonia
Safe adventure	Very safe, very highly developed, long distance to Germany, low/medium tourism intensity, medium/weak tourist flow from Germany	North America, Australasia, South America e.g., USA, New Zealand, Chile
Tricky discovery	Unsafe, less developed, long distance to Germany, low tourism intensity, weak tourist flow from Germany	South America, Central America, Sub-Saharan Africa, South/Southeast Asia e.g., Colombia, Vietnam
No go	Very unsafe, less developed, medium/long distance to Germany, hardly any tourism	Africa, Asia e.g., Syria, Iraq

Source: Karl, Reintinger, and Schmude 2015.

approached the respondents using a random sampling strategy. The interviews took place in 15 public spaces where people tend to spend time instead of just passing. This research setting allows respondents to reflect on their DC processes to uncover subconsciously executed DCs. A screening question ensured that only potential tourists who were planning to travel within the next 12 months for at least four overnight stays participated in the survey. Only potential tourists at the age of 14 or older were included since children influence but are not actively involved in DCs (Decrop 2006).

Technical and comprehension-related pilot tests were conducted to improve the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. The questionnaire comprises four sections (13 questions with secondary questions): The first section focuses on actual DCs using the set approach as theoretical base, while the second section concentrates on risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making. Please note that the third section on risk assessments of travel destinations is not part of this article. The fourth section collects sociodemographic information. The questionnaire was completed in an average time of 10 minutes. Table 3 illustrates the profile of respondents. The age group 20–29 years is particularly dominant since the survey took place in a city with a high student population. However, the bias in the sample is not relevant for the further cluster analysis since no conclusions are drawn from the sizes of the clusters.

Data Analysis

A cluster analysis is carried out to develop a tourist typology that differentiates tourists according to various aspects associated with risk as outlined in the research design section. All items described in Table 1 are included in the cluster analysis. Hierarchical cluster analysis following Ward's minimum variance method is applied with squared Euclidean distance measure since similarity is defined by the net distance between values. To test the validity of the cluster analysis, multiple discriminant analysis is carried out for confirming the classification reliability, resulting in a high percentage (88.2%) of correctly classified cases.

The tourist typology is tested for significant determinants both from the tourist and destination perspective to profile tourist types based on sociodemographic and travel-related characteristics, to identify significant factors that distinguish the tourist types, and to investigate differences in DCs. Pearson's chi-squared tests are conducted for all variables except for the metric variables age and number of trips in the past three years. Here, homogeneity of variances as a precondition for one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is not given; therefore, Kruskal–Wallis one-way ANOVA as a nonparametric method is applied to explore differences between ages and travel frequencies among tourist types.

Results

The objectives of this study were to develop a tourist typology based on concepts relating to risk that would be further investigated for significant determinants to identify differences in tourist characteristics and DCs between the tourist types.

Tourist Typology

The cluster analysis of respondents' self-assessment of several aspects associated with risk in travel decision-making (Table 1), which was conducted to segment tourists according to their risk and uncertainty affinity, reveals five types of tourists from avoidance of risk and uncertainty to high risk-taking tendencies. Table 4 displays the results of the cluster analysis with mean scores and standard deviations, calculated for each tourist type, for each item (Table 1) of the tourist typology.

Risk and uncertainty avoiders are characterized by values directing at risk aversion, sensation and uncertainty avoidance, as well as familiarity seeking. Among all tourist types, the risk and uncertainty avoider has the strongest preference

Table 3. Profile of Respondents (n = 402).

	n	%
Gender		
Female	205	52.4
Male	186	47.6
Age, years		
14–19	18	4.5
20–29	177	44.5
30–39	66	16.6
40–49	41	10.3
50–59	44	11.1
60–69	30	7.5
>69	22	5.5
Highest level of education achieved		
Apprenticeship	9	2.3
Junior high school	13	3.3
Secondary school	68	17.4
High school	153	39.2
University or college	140	35.9
Other	7	1.8
Occupation		
Retired	31	30.6
House wife/husband	15	3.8
Student	120	30.6
Pupil	8	2.0
Apprentice	19	4.8
Employee, civil servant	158	40.3
Self-employed	29	7.4
Unemployed	8	2.0
Other	4	1.0
Household income per month, €		
<750	68	17.0
750–1,499	50	12.5
1,500–1,999	41	10.3
2,000–2,499	26	6.5
2,500–2,999	31	7.8
3,000–3,499	27	6.8
3,500–3,999	25	6.3
4,000–4,499	23	5.8
4,500–4,999	21	5.3
5,000–7,499	24	6.0
>7,499	11	2.8
n/s	52	13.0
Household size		
1	150	37.8
2	103	25.9
3	59	14.9
4	62	15.6
>4	23	5.9

for destinations with highly developed infrastructures, holidays organized through tour operators, and familiar food available at the destination. The overall high safety needs and uncertainty avoidance suggest that risk and uncertainty avoiders are tourists who prefer holidays that are predictable without complications such as those that would be triggered by risk.

The second most risk-averse tourist type, risk avoider, is characterized by very high intentions to revisit familiar destinations with a high safety level, and where safe activities are offered. Risk avoiders moreover prefer preplanned trips in lieu of spontaneous traveling at the destination. In contrast to risk and uncertainty avoiders, risk avoiders prefer to organize their holidays themselves and are more willing to try unfamiliar local food. The choice of safe destinations allows this tourist type to avoid the risk that may arise from the individual holiday organization or the unfamiliar local food.

Two types of novelty-seeking tourists have emerged from the cluster analysis: safe novelty seeker and adventurous novelty seeker. The most distinct features of safe novelty seekers are their preference for new and unfamiliar destinations, unfamiliar local food, and preplanned trips that are often organized by tour operators. This means that while safe novelty seekers desire new experiences at unknown destinations, they are still trying to eliminate risk factors through a well-organized holiday preparation as a strategy to reduce risk and uncertainty factors compensated by a certain type of travel organization. In contrast, adventurous novelty seekers prefer new and unfamiliar destinations where they try local food but tend to largely organize their holidays individually. This individual organization adds a certain level of risk to traveling such as dealing with on-site problems by themselves. An important distinguishing factor of adventurous novelty seekers from their counterpart is the focus on adventurous activities during a holiday.

The most risk-affine tourist type, risk taker, has high values pointing toward risk taking, novelty seeking, and uncertainty acceptance. From all of the tourist types, risk takers have the strongest preference for destinations with less developed infrastructures, and/or safety concerns where they carry out individually organized spontaneous trips without definite routes or timetables. Hence, DCs of risk takers are driven by high risk-taking propensities and novelty-seeking tendencies.

Determinants of the Tourist Typology

To gain a clearer picture of each tourist type, relations between the tourist typology and tourist characteristics or types of destinations considered during the DC were examined. Table 5 summarizes the results, revealing age, educational level, profession, traveling with young children under the age of six, and travel frequency as significant tourist-related determinants. The low values of Cramér's V show a weak association between significant determinants and the tourist typology. The three investigated stages of DC processes are highly significantly related to the tourist typology. The following sections present the results in more detail, first for variables related to tourist characteristics and second for variables concerning DCs.

Table 4. Results of the Cluster Analysis for the Tourist Typology.

	Risk and Uncertainty Avoider	Risk Avoider	Safe Novelty Seeker	Adventurous Novelty Seeker	Risk Taker
Total score,[a] M (SD)	2.37 (1.13)	2.62 (1.03)	3.09 (0.83)	3.54 (0.82)	3.9 (0.95)
Type of destination, M (SD)					
Familiarity[b]	3.03 (1.24)	2.80 (1.28)	4.50 (0.58)	4.24 (0.79)	3.91 (1.0)
(Touristic) infrastructure[c]	1.94 (1.01)	2.60 (1.24)	3.21 (0.92)	3.27 (1.19)	3.76 (0.89)
Safety[d]	2.08 (1.13)	1.54 (0.84)	2.36 (1.03)	2.44 (1.02)	3.12 (1.15)
Type of holiday, M (SD)					
Preplanning[e]	1.97 (1.14)	1.76 (1.10)	1.75 (0.70)	1.99 (0.82)	4.16 (1.03)
Travel organization[f]	2.30 (1.14)	4.56 (0.76)	2.43 (0.92)	4.73 (0.47)	4.71 (0.61)
On-site behaviour, M (SD)					
Activities[g]	2.66 (1.14)	1.49 (0.63)	2.96 (1.07)	3.72 (0.70)	3.53 (1.10)
Food[h]	2.62 (1.13)	3.54 (1.37)	4.43 (0.57)	4.35 (0.79)	4.19 (1.04)

Note: Values are the mean of reported scores on a 5-point scale. M = mean; SD = standard deviation.
a. Accumulated from scores of the seven items of the cluster analysis; 1 = strong risk and uncertainty avoidance; 5 = strong risk and uncertainty affinity.
b.1 = revisit of familiar destinations; 5 = visit of unfamiliar destinations that have not been visited before.
c.1 = destinations with highly developed touristic infrastructures; 5 = destinations with less developed touristic infrastructures.
d.1 = destinations with high levels of safety; 5 = destinations with safety concerns.
e.1 = preplanned trips; 5 = trips without definite routes or timetables.
f.1 = organization through tour operator; 5 = individual independent organization.
g.1 = safe activities; 5 = adventurous activities.
h.1 = familiar international food; 5 = unfamiliar local food.

Table 5. Results of the Analysis of Relationships Between Tourist Characteristics or Destination Types and the Tourist Typology.

	Significance	df	χ^2	Cramér's *V*	*r*
Tourist characteristics					
Gender[a]	n.s.	4	1.77	–	–
Age[b]	0.000***	–	–	–	–0.231
Educational level[a]	0.000***	16	41.31	0.166	–
Profession[a]	0.002**	28	55.22	0.191	–
Household income[a]	n.s.	40	45.61	–	–
Traveling with children under 6 years[a]	0.049*	4	9.55	0.326	–
Traveling with children under 14 years[a]	n.s.	4	4.13	–	–
Travel frequency[b]	0.000***	–	–	–	0.183
Destination type					
Initial consideration set[a]	0.000***	16	50.48	0.100	–
Relevant set[a]	0.000***	12	42.07	0.123	–
Past destination choice[a]	0.000***	16	53.50	0.098	–

Note: n.s. = not significant.
a. Pearson's chi-squared test.
b. Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis.
*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$.

Tourist characteristics. The research question driving the analysis focusing on tourist characteristics is whether tourists with varying attitudes and behaviors toward risk and uncertainty in the travel decision-making process differ in their sociodemographic and travel-related profiles (hypotheses 3–9). Table 6 displays the mean scores for each significant determinant to illustrate their importance for each tourist type, specifically highlighting over- and underrepresentation with an allowance of 10% variance.

Gender is not a significant influencing factor of the tourist typology. A significant relationship ($p<0.001$) and negative correlation (–0.231) exists between the age of the respondents and the tourist typology. This means that the older tourists are, the more likely they are assigned to a tourist type that avoids risk and uncertainty while traveling. However, the risk and uncertainty avoider is characterized by an overrepresentation of the age groups between 30 and 59 years, while the age group 60 to 69 years is underrepresented. Moreover,

Table 6. Scores of Significant Determinants for Each Tourist Type: Focus on Tourist Personality Variables.

	Risk and Uncertainty Avoider	Risk Avoider	Safe Novelty Seeker	Adventurous Novelty Seeker	Risk Taker
Age, years, M (SD)	38.1 (16.3)	43.9 (19.1)	41.5 (19.9)	30.5 (12.2)	31.8 (13.6)
14–19	(–) 3.5%	(–) 2.4%	(+) 10.7%	(+) 5.1%	(+) 5.4%
20–29	(–) 38.4%	(–) 29.8%	(–) 32.1%	(+) 57.7%	(+) 55.4%
30–39	(+) 20.9%	15.5%	(–) 0.0%	(+) 19.2%	16.1%
40–49	(+) 11.6%	(+) 11.9%	(+) 21.4%	(–) 6.4%	(–) 8.0%
50–59	(+) 14.0%	(+) 11.9%	10.7%	(–) 9.0%	(–) 7.1%
60–69	(–) 5.8%	(+) 14.3%	(+) 14.3%	(–) 1.3%	7.1%
>69	5.8%	(+) 14.3%	(+) 10.7%	(–) 1.3%	(–) 0.9%
Traveling with children under 6 years	(+) 54.5%	(–) 22.7%	(–) 9.1%	28.6%	(–) 23.8%
Education					
Apprenticeship	1.3%	(+) 3.8%	(+) 7.4%	(–) 1.3%	(–) 0.9%
Junior high school	(+) 6.4%	(+) 6.3%	(–) 0.0%	(–) 1.3%	(–) 1.8%
Secondary school	(+) 25.6%	(+) 23.8%	(+) 25.9%	(–) 3.9%	(–) 13.4%
High school	(–) 33.3%	(–) 23.8%	40.7%	(+) 54.5%	(+) 47.3%
University or college	33.3%	(+) 42.5%	(–) 25.9%	39.0%	36.6%
Profession					
Retired	(+) 10.8%	(+) 15.7%	(+) 19.2%	(–) 1.3%	(–) 2.8%
Housewife/husband	(+) 6.0%	(+) 6.0%	3.8%	(–) 1.3%	(–) 1.8%
Student	(–) 19.3%	16.9%	30.8%	(+) 44.2%	(+) 43.1%
Pupil	(–) 0.0%	(+) 2.4%	(+) 3.8%	(+) 3.9%	(–) 1.8%
Apprentice	(+) 7.2%	3.6%	(–) 0.0%	(+) 7.8%	(–) 3.7%
Employee, civil servant	(+) 45.8%	(+) 44.6%	(–) 26.9%	36.4%	36.7%
Self-employed	(+) 9.6%	8.4%	(+) 11.5%	(–) 3.9%	7.3%
Number of trips past three years, M (SD)	3.1 (1.9)	3.7 (2.0)	3.1 (1.2)	3.9 (2.2)	4.1 (2.3)

Note: Over- or underrepresented groups are included in case of more than 10% variance. SD = standard deviation; (+) = overrepresented; (–) = underrepresented.

in the safe novelty seeker tourist type, young and old age groups are overrepresented, while the age groups between 20 and 39 years are underrepresented. Profession and educational level are both significantly related to the tourist typology ($p<0.01$, $p<0.001$). Students and high school degrees are overrepresented in tourist types with higher risk affinities and underrepresented in less risk- or uncertainty-affine tourist types. The group of pensioners and retirees is overrepresented in the two least risk-affine tourist types. Although educational level or profession are in many cases linked to the level of income, household income is not significantly related to the tourist typology. Hence, only hypotheses 4, 5, and 6 are accepted as the sociodemographic variables age, educational level, and profession are related to tourists' attitudes and behaviors toward risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making.

A significant relation ($p<0.05$) was found between the travel-related variable traveling with children under the age of 6 and the tourist typology. In particular, risk and uncertainty avoiders are more likely to travel with young children under the age of 6. However, traveling with children seems only relevant for young children, because no significant relation was detected between the tourist typology and traveling with children under the age of 14. Consequently, hypothesis 8 can be accepted only for tourists traveling with young children. Travel frequency (i.e., number of main holidays in the past three years) as a proxy for travel experience is also a significant travel-related determinant of the tourist typology ($p<0.001$) with a positive correlation (.183) between number of holidays and the tourist typology, which confirms hypothesis 9. The more holidays have been realized, the more likely tourists are categorized into tourist types with higher risk-taking propensities and lower risk and uncertainty avoidances. Accordingly, risk takers have the highest (4.1 trips per three years) and risk and uncertainty avoiders the lowest travel frequency (3.1 trips per three years). Safe novelty seekers also have a very low travel frequency, with 3.1 trips in the last three years.

Destination choice. The research question leading the analysis focusing on the DC and destination characteristics is: In which way do tourist types vary concerning the type of destination that is considered at different stages of the DC process? In each examined DC set, the type of destination according to the destination index (Table 2) is significantly related to the tourist typology ($p < 0.001$), and hypothesis 1 and 2 are therefore accepted. Table 7 displays the mean percentages for each tourist type as well as over- and

Table 7. Scores of Significant Determinants for Each Tourist Type: Focus on Destination Choice Variables.

	Risk and Uncertainty Avoider	Risk Avoider	Safe Novelty Seeker	Adventurous Novelty Seeker	Risk Taker	Average
Initial consideration set						
Easy travel	38.2%	(+) 47.2%	37.8%	(–) 24.4%	32.9%	36.1%
Out-of-the-ordinary	(–) 5.9%	(+) 11.0%	(+) 12.2%	(+) 13.6%	9.3%	10.4%
Safe adventure	36.5%	(–) 29.1%	(–) 28.6%	35.3%	34.6%	32.8%
Tricky discovery	19.4%	(–) 12.6%	21.4%	(+) 26.4%	22.4%	20.4%
No go	(–) 0.0%	(–) 0.0%	(–) 0.0%	(+) 0.4%	(+) 0.8%	0.2%
Relevant set						
Easy travel	75.1%	80.0%	73.0%	76.7%	(–) 63.7%	73.7%
Out-of-the-ordinary	(+) 13.7%	9.5%	(–) 8.1%	(–) 6.2%	9.0%	9.3%
Safe adventure	(–) 6.1%	(–) 6.5%	(+) 9.5%	(+) 9.3%	(+) 10.5%	8.4%
Tricky discovery	(–) 5.1%	(–) 4.0%	9.5%	(–) 7.8%	(+) 16.9%	8.7%
No go	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0%
Past destination choice						
Easy travel	77.7%	81.8%	75.3%	80.5%	72.7%	77.6%
Out-of-the-ordinary	(+) 13.5%	9.1%	(+) 11.8%	(–) 6.6%	8.0%	9.8%
Safe adventure	(–) 5.0%	(–) 5.5%	(–) 2.4%	6.6%	(+) 8.0%	5.5%
Tricky discovery	(–) 3.8%	(–) 3.6%	(+) 9.4%	6.3%	(+) 11.3%	6.9%
No go	(–) 0.0%	(–) 0.0%	(+) 1.2%	(–) 0.0%	(–) 0.0%	0.2%

Note: Over- or underrepresented groups are included in case of more than 10% variance. (+) = overrepresented; (–) = underrepresented.

underrepresented destination categories to illustrate the DC sets according to the destination index.

In the initial consideration set, easy travel destinations are the largest group of destinations (24.4% to 47.2% of all destinations in this set), in particular concerning the risk avoider (47.2%, overrepresented). The second most important destination category is safe adventure, with values ranging from 28.6% for safe novelty seekers to 36.5% for risk and uncertainty avoiders. Destinations in the tricky discovery category range from 12.6% (risk avoider) to 26.4% (adventurous novelty seeker), while out-of-the-ordinary destinations range from 5.9% (risk and uncertainty avoider) to 13.6% (adventurous novelty seeker). Out-of-the-ordinary destinations are overrepresented in the initial consideration set for risk avoiders, safe novelty seekers, and adventurous novelty seekers. No go destinations are only present in the initial consideration set of the two most risk-taking tourist types, adventurous novelty seeker and risk taker.

The more realistic DC sets, relevant set and past DCs, have a similar structure with regards to the type of considered destination (e.g., domination of easy travel destinations). The relevant set of the least risk-taking tourist types (i.e., risk and uncertainty avoider, risk avoider) are notably dominated by destinations from the easy travel category (75.1%, 80.0%) but lack long-haul destinations of the safe adventure and tricky discovery categories (underrepresented), whereas the easy travel category is underrepresented in the risk taker tourist type (63.7%). Safe adventure destinations are more relevant for both novelty-seeking and the risk taker tourists (9.5%, 9.3%, 10.5%, overrepresented), while tricky discovery destinations are mainly relevant for risk takers (16.9%, overrepresented). Out-of-the-ordinary destinations are an important category for risk and uncertainty avoiders (13.7%, overrepresented) and less relevant for the other tourist types. Safe novelty seekers are the only tourists who traveled to a destination from the no go category in the past three years.

While Pearson's chi-squared test is able to show that there is variability in the type of considered destination between the tourist types, it is not able to give information on the amount of this variance. To see whether differences are stronger between the tourist types among the destinations in the initial consideration set, the relevant set or past DCs, deviations in the structure of each set were calculated for each tourist type. In this study, deviation is defined as the variance of one tourist type from the average share of a destination category in a DC set for all tourist types (Formula 1). Deviation is measured as difference from the average in percentage points (pp). Because of the bias in the sample, deviation is not calculated from the total percentage distribution over all cases but the average percentage distribution based on the means of the five tourist types. For example, a positive deviation value for the easy travel destination category in the relevant set means that a tourist type considers more destinations from the easy travel category in this DC set than the average of all tourist types.

$$\text{deviation}\,(i_n) = \left(\sum_{n=1}^{5} i_n/5\right) - i_n \qquad (1)$$

where i = category of destination index; n = tourist type.

Deviation is measured as difference from the average in percentage points. For example, a positive deviation value for the easy travel destination category in the relevant set means that a tourist type considers more destinations from the easy travel category in this DC set than the average of all tourist types. Table 8 displays the results of the calculation of deviations in the DC structure.

Among the tourist types, risk avoiders and adventurous novelty seekers show the strongest deviation in the initial consideration set (23.5 pp) resulting from differences concerning the easy travel category. Risk avoiders consider more (+11.1 pp) and adventurous novelty seekers less (–11.7 pp) destinations from the easy travel category. The tourist types closest to the average are the safe novelty seeker and risk taker with a low sum of deviations (8.9/8.6 pp). In the relevant set, risk takers differ most from the average (20.7 pp), particularly in the easy travel (–10 pp) and tricky discovery (+8.2 pp) category. The relevant set structure of the safe novelty seeker is the least deviant (3.9 pp). In the past DCs, the strongest deviation is found for the risk taker (13.9 pp) with more destinations in the tricky discovery (–4.4 pp) and less in the easy travel (–4.9 pp) category. The structure of past destination choices of risk and uncertainty avoiders (7.6 pp), risk avoiders (8.4 pp), and adventurous novelty seekers (8.0 pp) are rather average. For a comparison of deviations between the initial consideration set, relevant set, and past DC, regardless of the orientation of the variance, the sums of absolute deviations were calculated for each DC segment (Table 8). These absolute sums reveal that the differences between the five tourist types are stronger in the initial consideration set (76.1 pp) than in the relevant set (57.1 pp) and past DCs (48.8 pp).

Discussion

Comparisons between this study's results and past research are generally difficult because of the nature of combining multiple aspects associated with risk in travel decisions, whereas most studies and research focus on only one aspect. Because of this design, implications can be drawn partly from studies on risk perception.

Tourist Characteristics

Focusing on tourist characteristics, determinants that explain differences in the way risk and uncertainty are treated in travel decision-making include age, educational level, and profession as sociodemographic variables, as well as travel-related variables such as traveling with young children and past travel experience. Research on the influence of gender and age on risk perception is contradictory and inconsistent, which may result from the variety in research designs and data collection methodologies. No significant relation for both factors is found in studies by Sönmez and Graefe (1998a, 1998b) while Reisinger and Mavondo (2006) detect a significant relation for some subcategories of risk perception. Lepp and Gibson (2008) find that gender is only significant for subcategories of risk that may disrupt a holiday (i.e., strangeness of food) but not for life-threatening risk factors. Pizam et al. (2004) investigated not only risk perception but also behavior and evaluation of risk and found that gender, but not age, is an influencing factor. The discrepancy of this study's results could be explained by the focus on one age group since age differences are most likely clearer over the whole span of ages. Furthermore, a study by Hajibaba et al. (2015) demonstrates how in particular tourists who are extremely resistant to risk with high risk-taking propensities are generally younger than other tourists with a more risk-averse behavior. The significant relation between the variables profession as well as educational level and the tourist typology corroborate past studies that show that education is negatively correlated to risk perception (Park and Reisinger 2010; Sönmez and Graefe 1998a), and higher levels of education lead to a lower perception of the influencing power of risk on travel intentions (Park and Reisinger 2010). Park and Reisinger's (2010, 19) explanation is that "tourists with low educational attainment perceive a greater influence of social risk than high- and middle-educated tourists perhaps because they have relatively less social skills and are less confident about their vacation choice."

The outstanding position of the age group 30 to 39 years in the risk and uncertainty avoider tourist type, contradicting a negative correlation between age and risk perception, may result from particular circumstances that influence travel decision-making. This tourist type is more likely to travel with (young) children among all tourist types, which needs to be incorporated in travel decision-making resulting in likely decisions toward less risk and uncertainty. Furthermore, the results of this study reveal that traveling with young children (under the age of six) along with tourists' attitudes and behaviors toward risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making are significantly related, while traveling with children under the age of 14 is not significantly related. This reaffirms a study by Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992), who state that tourists who focus on specific organizational risk are more often traveling with young children than other tourists. Furthermore, the family situation has been identified as a strong constraining factor of DCs deterring tourists from implementing hypothetical holidays (Karl, Reintinger, and Schmude 2015). Another significant characteristic of the tourist typology with regard to age is the large share of the youngest age group among safe novelty seekers. One explanation may be that these respondents are still at the beginning of their travel career. Consequently, they have not yet achieved sufficient travel experience that would allow them to feel confident traveling to more difficult or risky destinations. The concept of tourist knowledge helps explain why travel experience influences risk perception. The results of studies conducted by Sharifpour and colleagues (Sharifpour,

Table 8. Deviation in the DC Structure between Tourist Types and DC Sets.

	Risk and Uncertainty Avoider	Risk Avoider	Safe Novelty Seeker	Adventurous Novelty Seeker	Risk Taker	∑|deviation|
Initial consideration set						
Easy travel	2.1	11.1	1.7	−11.7	−3.2	29.8
Out-of-the-ordinary	−4.5	0.6	1.8	3.2	−1.1	11.2
Safe adventure	3.7	−3.7	−4.2	2.5	1.8	15.9
Tricky discovery	−1.0	−7.8	1.0	6.0	2.0	17.8
No go	−0.2	−0.2	−0.2	0.2	0.6	1.4
∑ |deviation|	11.6	23.5	8.9	23.5	8.6	76.1
Relevant set						
Easy travel	1.4	6.3	−0.7	3	−10	21.4
Out-of-the-ordinary	4.4	0.2	−1.2	−3.1	−0.3	9.2
Safe adventure	−2.3	−1.9	1.1	0.9	2.1	8.3
Tricky discovery	−3.6	−4.7	0.8	−0.9	8.2	18.2
No go	0	0	0	0	0	0
∑ |deviation|	11.6	13.0	3.9	7.9	20.7	57.1
Past destination choice						
Easy travel	0.1	4.2	−2.3	2.9	−4.9	14.4
Out-of-the-ordinary	3.7	−0.7	2	−3.2	−1.8	11.4
Safe adventure	−0.5	0	−3.1	1.1	2.5	7.2
Tricky discovery	−3.1	−3.3	2.5	−0.6	4.4	13.9
No go	−0.2	−0.2	1.0	−0.2	−0.2	1.9
∑ |deviation|	7.6	8.4	10.9	8.0	13.9	48.8

Note: Values represent deviation from the average in percentage points.

Walters, and Ritchie 2014; Sharifpour et al. 2014) indicate that an increased subjective knowledge, such as self-confidence in one's knowledge, reduces the level of perceived risk, while objective or actual knowledge has no significant influence on risk perception. The significant but weak correlation between the tourist typology and the travel frequency may be caused by the relatively small size of the data set (n = 402). However, conclusions that are drawn from the positive trend are confirmed by former studies on risk perception where tourists with great (international) travel experience have a lower general risk perception (Fuchs and Reichel 2011; Sönmez and Graefe 1998a, 1998b), or at least lower risk perceptions regarding certain dimensions (Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty 2009). Additionally, Floyd et al. (2004, 32) found travel experience to be "the most significant predictor of travel intentions". A study by Hajibaba et al. (2015, 49) on crisis-resistant tourists who are known to accept higher levels of risk and "tend to absorb risks instead of engaging in risk avoidance strategies" reaches similar conclusions: A particular characteristic of crisis-resistant tourists relates to the wide experiences of international travel.

Destination Choice

Our analysis of tourists' DCs indicates that the way tourists perceive risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making and DCs are interrelated. Tourists with risk aversion tendencies consider and visit well-known, highly developed destinations with strong tourist flows from the source market, resulting in a high level of familiarity and low level of uncertainty. Tourists with higher risk affinities consider destinations with lower travel intensities, weaker tourism flows from the source market, and hence lower levels of familiarity for future holidays. These tourists also either plan to travel or have traveled to such types of destinations or "easy travel" destinations. Using a combination of several items referring to risk and uncertainty in a tourist typology, this study confirms and enhances studies on risk, uncertainty, familiarity, or sensation seeking in travel decision-making. However, comparisons to past studies are limited as few studies integrate destination as well as tourist attributes.

One example can be seen in the study conducted by Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) on risk perceptions and pleasure travel discussing destination attributes as an explanatory factor. Their division of tourists according to risk perception results in three types of tourists: risk-neutral tourists with a low level of perceived risk and risky travel behavior; functional-risk tourists with a strong perception of specific organizational risk; and place-risk tourists with a high level of perceived risk and familiarity-seeking travel behavior. In a further study, Lo, Law, and Cheung (2011) develop a segmentation of tourists according to their risk reduction strategies and integrate the travel destination as one variable: one group of tourists relies on others for risk reduction (e.g.,

seeking advice from friends/relatives), while a second group of tourists reduces risks by themselves (e.g., purchasing travel insurance); a third group of tourists does not feel the need to reduce risks. However, actual DC processes or a broad range of destination characteristics are not explicitly investigated.

This study was able to verify and enhance Roehl and Fesenmaier's (1992) tourist typology by investigating different stages of the DC process with actual destination attributes. Risk avoiders are equal to place-risk tourists as all stages of DC are dominated by safe destinations that are highly familiar to German tourists. Risk takers represent the opposite end of the scale since they consider comparatively few easy travel destinations and more difficult destinations with higher levels of risk and less familiarity. Risk takers can be seen as equal to Roehl and Fesenmaier's (1992) risk-neutral tourist who is not discouraged to travel to certain destinations because of risk as well as Lo, Law, and Cheung's (2011) tourist type who is not concerned by any risks and travels mostly internationally. It seems plausible that for them risk is not an obstacle but an asset for traveling, as suggested by Adam (2015). From the tourist perspective, risk and uncertainty avoiders have been identified as functional-risk tourists because of family situations complicating their travel plans. From the destination perspective, both risk and uncertainty avoiders and safe novelty seekers may be equivalent to Roehl and Fesenmaier's (1992) functional-risk tourists. Both tourist types initially consider many long-haul destinations that are safe and novel to some degree, but travel to familiar safe short-haul destinations and less common safe destinations at a medium distance. Organizational risks that may occur while traveling are reduced either by the choice of destination (i.e., risk and uncertainty avoiders prefer safe destinations) or the kind of travel organization (i.e., safe novelty seekers prefer traveling with tour operators).

The closer examination of deviations in the DC structures shows that the total amount of deviation from the average DC structure decreases and that differences between the tourist types in regard to the types of considered destinations become less apparent from hypothetical future (initial consideration set) to realistically planned (relevant set) to actually executed (past DC) DCs. This implies that tourists with varying attitudes and perceptions of risk and uncertainty dream of different types of destinations, but decide rather similarly when it comes to actually choosing a destination. One explanation can be taken from the concept of facilitators and inhibitors (positive or negative destination attributes) in travel decision-making. Um and Crompton (1992) demonstrate how inhibitors take on greater significance by the end of the DC process while facilitators are more relevant at the beginning. Combining Um and Crompton's (1992) results with the observations from this study, the assumption is that destination attributes, which tourists are attracted to, are rather different, while travel constraints, which deter tourists from traveling to destinations, are more alike, leading to a greater similarity in patterns of actual DCs. Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey's (1991) hierarchical model of leisure constraints can be consulted to understand this result. Risk and uncertainty affinity can be seen as intrapersonal constraints which are the strongest travel constraints (Chen, Chen, and Okumus 2013), particularly at the beginning of the choice process (Crawford, Jackson, and Godbey 1991). Tourists with high risk and uncertainty avoidance already reject less familiar destinations and do not even consider them for hypothetical future holidays. Later on, the choice process is dominated by interpersonal constraints and then structural constraints such as financial or time limitations, which are the most common travel constraints during the transition from hypothetical to actual DCs (Karl, Reintinger, and Schmude 2015). Here, risk plays a less important role since most destinations without financial or time limitations are located in proximity and in case of Germany are not associated with safety or security risks.

The application of a tourist and destination perspective allows furthermore understanding the decreasing deviation between tourist types from hypothetical to realistic DCs. At the beginning of the DC process, represented by the hypothetical initial consideration set, such travel constraints are ignored in many cases and therefore tourists include destinations in this set that are not realizable in the end. Later when it comes to actually choosing a destination, travel constraints have to be considered and destinations associated with such constraints are eliminated. Moreover, Nyaupane and Andereck (2008) show that travel constraints are also linked to tourists' characteristics and tourists perceive constraints differently depending on factors such as age or gender, and maybe risk affinity as well. While risk-affine and novelty-seeking tourists dream of rather "difficult" destinations, risk-averse tourists already reject these kinds of destinations before the formation of the initial consideration set. This implies that risk and uncertainty can influence the DC process at different times depending on the tourists' affinity toward risk and uncertainty.

Conclusion

Theoretical Implications

While research on risk and uncertainty as a determinant of DC focuses on specific factors in a more isolated way, this study combines several aspects (uncertainty avoidance, sensation seeking, novelty seeking, and risk-taking propensity) to develop a comprehensive tourist typology of travel decision-making. Furthermore, it includes destination attributes in form of a destination index that is based on objective indicators for a destination's level of familiarity and (un)certainty (Karl, Reintinger, and Schmude 2015). The integrated research approach, including self-assessment of travel decision-making, and actual DC behavior, leads to a better understanding of tourists' personalities, travel behaviors, and DC

under the influence of risk and uncertainty. This study further demonstrates that tourists' attributes and behaviors toward risk and uncertainty in travel decision-making is reflected in the DC process. In many cases, self-assessments of novelty-seeking tendencies are only applicable to hypothetical scenarios because the actual DCs do not reflect the self-assessments, underlining the necessity to distinguish between self-assessment and actual behavior. Another benefit of this study is that it not only focuses on hypothetical (e.g., Sarman, Scagnolari, and Maggi 2016; Sharifpour et al. 2014) or actual (e.g., Decrop 2010) choices but rather on ideal, planned, and actual DCs. By using this approach, this study is able to analyze discrepancies between choices that are more or less realistically implemented. The results show that tourists with varying attitudes and behaviors toward risk and uncertainty differ strongly with their hypothetical DCs and are rather similar when it comes to actual implemented DCs. This finding emphasizes that the influence of risk and uncertainty on DCs cannot only be deduced from observable travel behavior or hypothetical travel wishes, and tourism research should focus on both aspects as risk perception often becomes apparent through the consideration of discrepancies between them.

Managerial Implications

A better understanding of the interaction between tourist and destination attributes during the DC process is of relevance for the marketing and management of destinations with negative safety and security associations. This study's results can help in creating more differentiated marketing and advertisement for types of tourists varying not only by sociodemographic variables but also by risk and uncertainty affinities. The latent demand caused by the lack of implementation of travel wishes could be a promising factor for various destinations, particularly if destinations are rejected during the DC process due to inordinate risk perceptions that do not reflect the actual situation. The destination Crete has approached this problem by launching a promotional video that directly addresses the discrepancy between the actual and perceived situation after the economic crisis in Greece. Another strategy is seen with the promotion of group tours with specially trained tour guides that partly transfers the responsibility for tourists' safety to the tour operator, thereby reducing the level of perceived risk and uncertainty for the tourist. An interesting example are adventurous novelty seekers, where the analysis of actually considered destinations reveals a strong discrepancy between the more realistic (relevant set, and past DC) and hypothetical (initial consideration set) DC. The relatively low mean age of this tourist type indicates that adventurous novelty seekers are still at the beginning of their travel career. Consequently, they may not have enough travel experience and self-confidence in their travels to implement their hypothetical travel plans. Inexperienced tourists can cautiously approach more and more "difficult" destinations and gradually approach their dream destinations. Specific travel programs geared toward young travelers with some degree of guidance to help with difficulties while traveling (e.g., bilingual tour guide to overcome language barriers) could be a solution to eliminate this discrepancy at an earlier time. Another promoting factor could be the use of peers in marketing strategies specifically addressing common travel issues, and risk or uncertainty aspects. If young travelers are presented with the image that their peers travel to a "difficult" destination, they might decide to imitate such behavior and also choose this destination for their next holiday.

Limitations and Further Research

Some factors that have been integrated in the tourist typology are influenced by the nationality or cultural background of the respondents (e.g., uncertainty avoidance, Kozak, Crotts, and Law 2007; risk perception, Seabra et al. 2013; sensation seeking and risk-taking propensity, Pizam et al. 2004). Therefore, a limitation of this study is the transferability and generalization of these results. This study serves as an explorative case focusing on German tourists impeding the direct application of research results on other markets with different cultural characteristics. The results should be understood considering the generally high uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov 2010) and high travel experience (Lohmann, Schmücker, and Sonntag 2014) of Germans. Intercultural aspects, in particular concerning risk, should be addressed in future research to the degree to which tourists are accustomed to certain types or levels of risk from their home country will most likely play a role in the perception, attitudes, or behavior toward risk while traveling.

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Terrorism and tourism in Israel: Analysis of the temporal scale

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Abstract
While the relation between terrorism and tourism has been an important topic for tourism research, the questions whether terrorism affects tourism immediately and how long after a terrorism event tourism recovers are, as yet, not clearly answered. The aim of this article is to better understand the magnitude and temporal scale of the impact of terrorism on tourism. To this end, a research model differentiating between short-term and long-term effects of terrorism on tourism is developed and analyzed for the destination Israel using data on tourists from Germany. The results show both short-term and long-term impacts with a time lag between the terrorist event and the beginning of tourism decline of 1 or up to 6 months. An economic influence on the development of tourist arrivals was not detected, but seasonality plays an important role in the relationship between terrorism and tourism.

Keywords
Germany, Israel, regression analysis, terrorism, time series, tourism demand

Introduction

The relationship between terrorism and tourism is an important research topic for tourism researchers (Richter and Waugh, 1986). Time series analyses of tourism demand with terrorism as explanatory variable show that short- and long-term effects of terrorism on tourism exist (e.g. Enders et al., 1992; Pizam and Smith, 2000), but the time scale of this influence is not yet

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clear. The questions whether terrorism affects tourism immediately and how long after a terrorism event tourism recovers are not answered unambiguously. Moreover, many studies investigate changes in tourism triggered by one-time terrorism events. However, frequent terrorism has a particularly strong effect on tourism (Pizam and Fleischer, 2002). Serial terrorism events are seldom studied since it is difficult to distinguish between the influence of one event and the next.

This article addresses this research gap by focusing on a time period with several terrorist events, a situation that allows to analyze the magnitude and temporal scale of the relation between terrorism and tourism in a more differentiated way. The aim of this article is to better understand the magnitude and temporal scale of the impact of terrorism on tourism. The study considers both short- and long-term effects of terrorism to explain the unclarified inconsistencies in past research. To diminish changes due to differences in nationality or cultural background, the study focuses on one destination (Israel) and one source market (Germany). Israel represents an appropriate case on the supply side since it has often experienced security problems that changed potential tourists' perceptions of Israel as a safe holiday destination, leading to avoidance of Israel as a destination and a sharp decline in the number of tourist arrivals (Mansfeld, 1999). Israel normally recovers from these crises after a period of relative tranquility, resulting in fluctuating tourism demand (Mansfeld, 1999). This can be explained by Israel's unique combination of religious and historical attributes, making a unique selling proposition (USP) that cannot be found elsewhere. This distinguishes this market from other sun-and-sea destinations that are more vulnerable since the main attractive features can easily be found in other destinations (Neumayer, 2004). Germany was chosen to represent the demand side in this study as it is a country with a relatively low level of security risks (Control Risks Group Holdings Ltd, 2013) combined with rather risk-averse travel behavior (Sonnenberg and Wöhler, 2004) and a high uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede et al., 2010). Germany is an important market for Israeli inbound tourism (Central Bureau of Statistics Israel (CBS), 2016), mainly for sightseeing and business (Ministry of Tourism Israel, 2016). Since tourism, as an open system, is influenced by many external aspects, this study integrates economic and destination-specific control variables in the research models. Alternative time series and regression models are tested before one final model is chosen.

Literature review

Studies of the impact of terrorism on tourism clearly agree that both the number of tourist arrivals and the amount of tourism revenue decline in case of terrorist activity at the destination (Buigut and Amendah, 2016; Drakos and Kutan, 2003; Enders and Sandler, 1991; Enders et al., 1992; Mansfeld, 1999; Neumayer, 2004; Pizam and Fleischer, 2002; Saha and Yap, 2014; Sloboda, 2003; Thompson, 2011). However, the time scale, whether in terms of the duration of the effect or the time lag after the terrorist event, has been addressed in only a few studies (Enders and Sandler, 1991; Enders et al., 1992; Neumayer, 2004; Pizam and Smith, 2000; Sloboda, 2003). The results of these studies are not unambiguous: Results depend on the chosen destination, the investigated time frame, and the type, frequency, and severity of the terrorist attacks. Enders and Sandler (1991) as well as Enders et al. (1992) predict a time lag between terrorist event and decline in tourism of 3–21 months depending on the investigated destinations. Pizam and Smith's (2000) analysis demonstrates that the median length of tourism decline is 1–3 months and that the effect of terrorism fades after 6 months in most cases. Half of the destinations in their study are able to recover within the first 3 months. Their results corroborate with those of Enders and Sandler (1991) who demonstrate that tourist arrivals increase after 6 months. However, in Enders and Sandler's (1991)

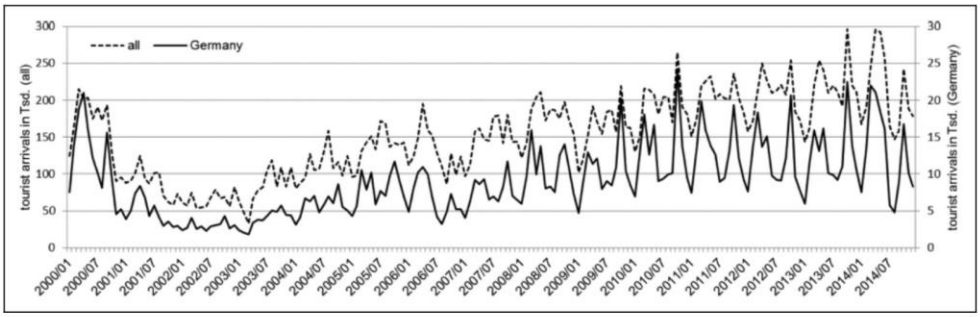

Figure 1. Tourism arrivals (total, Germany) in Israel (2000–2014) (based on CBS, 2000–2014). CBS: Central Bureau of Statistics Israel.

study, tourist arrivals began to decline again after 9 months and reached a minimum of 1 year after the incident. In contrast, Sloboda (2003) finds that, even after a year, a weaker effect on tourism than in the first year after an incident is still visible, while Neumayer (2004) finds that both the contemporaneous and long-term effects are strong.

Methodology

Data

The data used for the analysis are the number of tourist arrivals in Israel from Germany (predictor variable) and the number of deaths caused by terrorism (explanatory variable). Control variables of the research model include temporal and economic variables as well as destination- or source market–specific variables. All variables are metric except for the variable Easter (categorical variable, yes/no). The frequency is monthly and the data spans from January 2000 to December 2014 ($n = 180$ months). This time period was chosen as it covers peaceful as well as turbulent times (e.g. Second Intifada) in Israel. From the literature review, it is expected that terrorism quickly affects tourism and that tourism recovers mostly in less than a year. The aim of this study is to investigate short-term effects and so the data included in the research model is organized on the shortest time interval possible. However, while data on terrorism is available on a daily basis, tourist arrivals could only be obtained on a monthly basis.

Predictor and explanatory variables. Following Neumayer (2004) and Saha and Yap (2014), number of tourist arrivals (instead of income or revenue from tourism) is used as a proxy for tourism demand. The numbers of tourist arrivals via air (approximately 80% of all tourists; CBS, 2000–2014) from Germany are taken from the CBS (2000–2014). Figure 1 illustrates the temporal development of tourism in Israel during the investigated time period for tourists from Germany and other countries.

Information on terrorism is derived from the Global Terrorism Database (GTD) compiled by the National Consortium for the Study of Terrorism and Responses to Terrorism. As with previous studies using the GTD (Buigut and Amendah, 2016), the variables "number of fatalities" and "number of causalities" are highly correlated in this study ($r = 0.89$). To limit collinearity, only the variable number of fatalities is included in the analysis. The number of fatalities was chosen since large-scale terrorist attacks have stronger impacts on tourism than minor incidents without fatalities (Thompson, 2011). The variable number of fatalities has been transformed using the

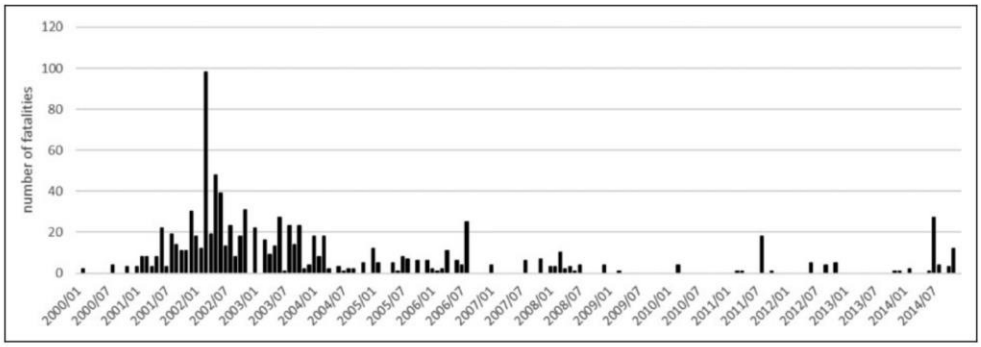

Figure 2. Terrorism in Israel (2000–2014).

logarithm function before integration into the model, as relative changes are more relevant than absolute changes (Thompson, 2011). Figure 2 displays the number of fatalities through terrorism in Israel for the investigated time period.

Figure 3 displays plots of the predictor and explanatory variables, tourism demand, and terrorism activity.

Control variables. Two temporal control variables, each one derived from tourist arrival data, are integrated into the research models. The annual effect (trend variable) is included in the model to monitor the long-term changes in tourist flows from Germany to Israel. The monthly effect (seasonal variable) is included to take seasonal fluctuations in tourist arrivals into account. Israel's tourism demand follows a seasonal structure with peak seasons in spring (March, April, and May) and fall (October). Due to the specific characteristics of the destination Israel with important religious sites as touristic attraction points, the time of Easter was integrated as another temporal control variable. The relevance of Easter is also visible in the seasonal structure with peak season being in March/April.

Since "a lower exchange rate [. . .] is a positive significant determinant to attract and increase international travelers" (Tsui and Balli, 2016: 18), the bilateral real exchange rate is used as an economic control variable with a more accurate proxy than the exchange rate. It is defined as the ratio between the consumer price index of the destination and country of origin multiplied by the exchange rate (Buigut and Amendah, 2016; Turner and Witt, 2001). Monthly exchange rates were calculated from daily data. Consumer price indices were extracted from the Central Bureau of Statistics of Israel and Germany.

The proportion of outbound tourists from all German tourists is taken as a variable to control for general international traveling activity. The assumption is that, in challenging times, fewer German tourists are able to or willing to travel internationally and, consequently, fewer German tourists will arrive at the destination Israel. The proportion of outbound tourists is available on a yearly basis from Forschungsgemeinschaft Urlaub und Reisen e.V. who conduct a representative survey of German tourists' travel behaviors each year.

Research models

A regression analysis was performed to investigate relationships between tourism demand and other variables rather than a noncausal time series analysis which helps to explain tourism demand

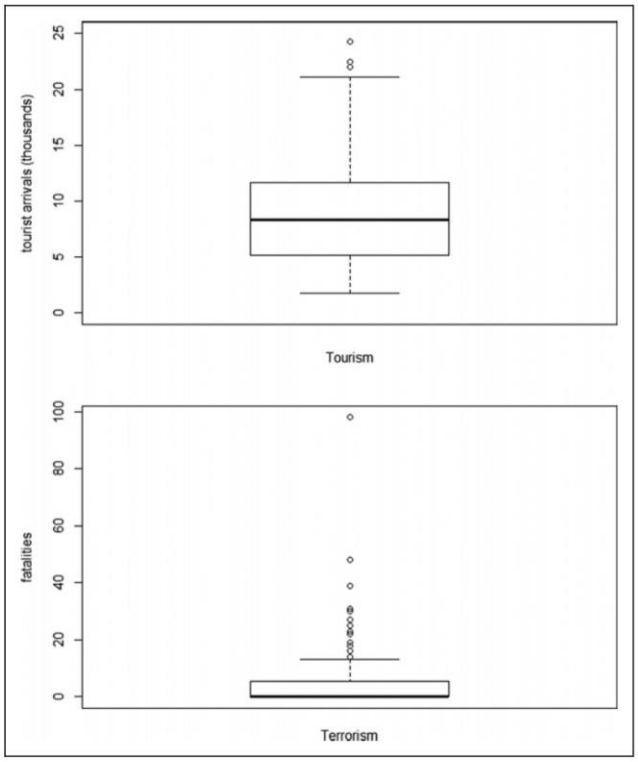

Figure 3. Plot of the variables tourism demand and terrorism activity.

based on past tourist arrivals. To examine the temporal relations and time lags in the relationship between terrorism and tourism, we used additive models with an AR(1) temporal correlation structure for the response variable and tested if it was reasonable to include the effect of the number of fatalities via distributed lags. The use of additive instead of linear models allows us to test for nonlinear effects of variables. All models were tested for German tourist arrivals in Israel for the time period 2000–2014. The R statistical package (Version 3.3.2) with the function "gamm" from the mgcv (Version 1.8-15, Wood, 2004, 2011) package was used for the analyses. Distributed lags were included using the dlnm package (Version 2.2.6, Gasparrini, 2011).

The estimation of effects via distributed lags allows us to examine direct and delayed effects in time series data (Gasparrini, 2011). In this study, distributed lags are used to investigate the immediate relationship between terrorism and tourism based on past tourist arrivals and the time lag in the exposure–response relationship. However, the coefficients in the model which included distributed lags (linear and nonlinear) were clearly not significant. Therefore, estimation via distributed lags was seen as not adequate for this analysis.

Two additive models were further tested with different time lags between terrorist event and tourist arrivals. Past research has shown that the effect of terrorism on tourism is very strong shortly after the attack and generally fades off after 6 months (Pizam and Smith, 2000). The models therefore integrated a time period of maximum 6 months. First, a model with time lags of 1–6 months was tested.

Table 1. Results of research model.

Parameter	Estimate	*p*-value
Intercept	−8.04	0.7456
Terr_death_log2_lag0	−0.41	0.0083**
Terr_death_log2_lag1	−0.46	0.0029**
Terr_death_log2_lag2to6months	−0.55	0.0261*
Bilateral_Real_Exchange_Rate	−0.64	0.1915
Outbound_Travel	0.28	0.4007
Long-term_Trend	0.44	<0.0001***
Easter	−0.12	0.8785

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$.

The inclusion of six unique fatality effects (lags 1–6) was not feasible in this study as this would have required a model with too many parameters relative to the observed sample size. Therefore, a second model was tested where the months two to six were combined to reduce the number of variables. Although this model is not able to differentiate between a great number of months, it allows to investigate short- and long-term effects of terrorism more precisely. This model with a time lag of 1 month and a mean time lag of 2–6 months was chosen as the final model (Formula 1).

Formula 1. Function of regression analysis (German tourist arrivals)

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_t + +\beta_2 x_{t-1} + \beta_3 \left(\frac{1}{5} (x_{t-2} + x_{t-3} + x_{t-4} + x_{t-5} + x_{t-6}) \right) + \gamma_1 z_1 + f(z_2) + \gamma_3 z_3 + \gamma_4 z_4 + \gamma_5 z_5 \quad (1)$$

y_t = number of tourist arrivals at time t, $\beta_0 =$ linear effects of the variables, x_{t-i} = number of fatalities through terrorism i months before month t, z_1 = trend variable, $f(z_2)$ = smooth effect of variable z_2 (seasonal variable), z_3 = Easter, z_4 = bilateral real exchange rate, and z_5 = proportion of outbound tourism.

To specifically investigate the influence of seasonality on the relationship between terrorism and tourism, an interaction effect was included and tested separately for this research model. To reduce the amount of tested variables, the variables "bilateral real exchange rate" and "proportion of outbound tourism" were not included as they were not significant in the original research model.

Results

The results for the model of German tourist arrivals to Israel (Table 1) show that a significant relation exists between terrorism and tourism for all three explanatory variables. The explanatory variables that are included in this model are tested for collinearity. Correlations are at an acceptable level (<0.65) and the variables are therefore integrated in the model. The variable fatalities through terrorism has a negative effect on the number of tourist arrivals from Germany. A doubling of terrorist activity (here, fatalities caused by terrorism) on average leads to a decrease of 410 tourist arrivals from Germany in the same month. After 1 month, the double amount of fatalities through terrorism leads to a decrease in tourist arrivals by 460 tourists. After a mean time lag of 2–6 months, the double amount of fatalities through terrorism causes the number of tourist

Table 2. Results of research model with interaction effect.

Parameter	Estimate	*p*-value
Intercept	5.94	0.7456
High_Season	6.94	<0.0001***
Terr_death_log2_lag0	−0.34	0.0241*
Terr_death_log2_lag0 × High_Season	0.56	0.05
Terr_death_log2_lag1	−0.23	0.1350
Terr_death_log2_lag1 × High_Season	−0.24	0.38
Terr_death_log2_lag2to6months	−0.38	0.1310
Terr_death_log2_lag2to6months × High_Season	−1.71	<0.0001***
Long-term_Trend	0.42	<0.0001***
Easter	−0.23	0.7154

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$.

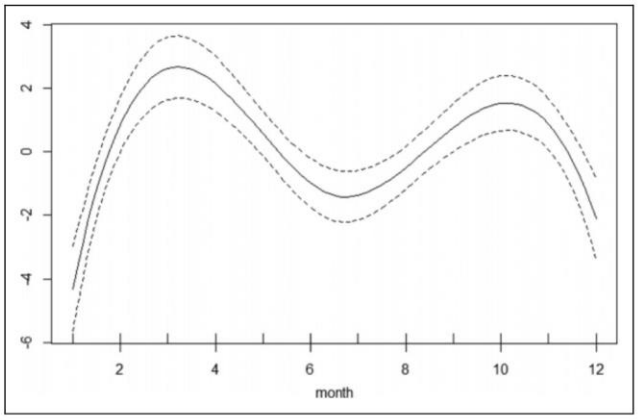

Figure 4. Estimated smooth function of the research mode.

arrivals to drop by 550. For the control variables, the variable long-term trend is the only significant variable. The long-term has a positive effect on tourism development and actual tourist arrivals.

The interaction effect (i.e. influence of seasonality) is highly significant for the long-term effect (time lag of 2–6 months), and a tendency is noticeable for the direct effect (no time lag) (Table 2).

The estimated smooth functions of the month variable are represented in Figures 4 and 5. The solid line represents the estimate which is enclosed in dashed lines representing the estimate $\pm 2 \times$ standard error. The *y* axis shows the estimated effect of the month on the response variable. There is a clear effect of the season on the number of tourists (Figure 4), which is compensated for in the research model with interaction effect (Figure 5). The highest number of tourists can be observed from February to April and from September to November. Fewer German tourists arrive in Israel in June, July, December, and January.

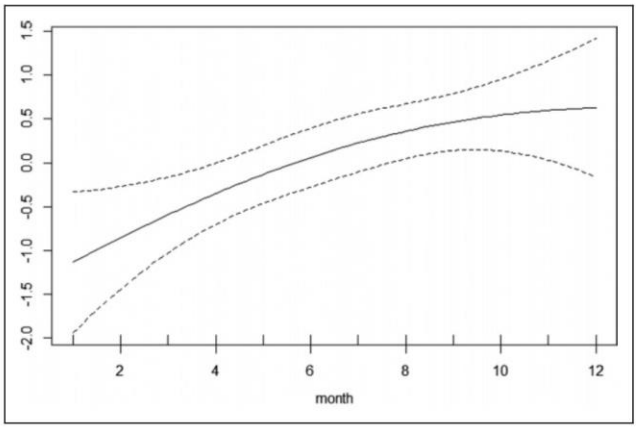

Figure 5. Estimated smooth function of the research model with interaction effect.

Discussion

While the results of this study affirm the impact of terrorism on tourism demand, they also clarify the time lag between terrorist event and decline in tourism for the destination Israel by differentiating between a direct short time effect as well as a delayed effect, and demonstrate that the effect of terrorism on tourism demand is particularly strong during high season. The developed research model reveals that the impact of terrorism on tourism demand is considerable in all three investigated time periods. This finding consolidates earlier research (Neumayer, 2004) that established a strong direct impact (Pizam and Smith, 2000) or an impact time of 1–6 months. Intuitively, the results can be interpreted using information on the time span between booking time and traveling time. While this time span is between 3 and 4 months for the majority of German tourists booking a holiday to any destination (Statista, 2009), it is only 1 month for 53% and 2–3 months for 33% of German tourists booking a trip to Israel (Ministry of Tourism Israel, 2016). The shorter time span for Israel in contrast to other destinations may be due to the changing safety and security situation, which causes tourists to wait until they can estimate the situation for the planned holiday.

That the economic control variable bilateral real exchange rate is not a significant factor in the research model confirms earlier studies (Buigut and Amendah, 2016; Tsui and Balli, 2016; Turner and Witt, 2001). The control variable "proportion of outbound tourists" is also not a significant factor in the research model, implying that tourists decide whether or not to visit the destination Israel independently from the decision to travel internationally. One explanation for the non-significance of the control variables is that the safety and security situation in Israel, a strong influencing factor of destination choice (Fuchs and Pizam, 2011), overweighs other factors such as travel costs which are relevant for destination choices concerning other destinations.

Conclusion

This article investigates and estimates the impact of terrorism on tourism by differentiating between short- and long-term impacts occurring with a certain time lag. It developed a research

model based on data on tourist arrivals in Israel from Germany during a time frame that includes a series of terrorist events instead of one-off events which are often less influential. Although the research model integrates control variables that are specifically related to the destination and the source market, it is possible to adapt the research model for other destinations or source markets by including additional control variables, such as a media impact variable. However, due to the available data set in this study, the research model could only be composed of a limited number of variables. Further research with more extended data sets and other destinations is therefore necessary. This study is able to estimate the impact of a certain increase in terrorist activity (measured by the number of fatalities) on tourist arrivals for each month, but it is not able to predict future tourism demand. This is a general problematic of time series models based on regression analysis since relations between variables are derived from past events, and forecasting future demand is therefore critical, particularly regarding terrorism as an external influencing factor that is difficult to predict. Moreover, these estimated losses are underestimates, as a subordinate impact of terrorism on tourism most likely exists, which is mainly induced by adverse changes in the perceptions of risk about Israel triggered by frequently occurring terrorist events and their media portrayals.

Declaration of conflicting interests

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Investigating Tourists' Destination Choices – An Application of Network Analysis

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Abstract

A better understanding of the complex destination choice process is highly relevant, both for academia and practice. Tourism research tends to focus either on actually executed or hypothetical destination choices. However, a discrepancy exists between these two types of destination choices which has hardly been investigated. Moreover, past research often studies tourists and their attitudes, needs or perceptions of destinations but not how destinations' attributes affect destination choices. To approach these two research gaps, this study concentrates not only on actual but also on hypothetical destination choices to better understand differences in the evaluation of alternative destinations. This study furthermore examines the role of the destination itself to discover the influence of destination characteristics on destination choices. Therefore, network analysis and set theory are combined in a new research approach which allows to analyse destination choices with varying closeness to reality whilst preserving destination information. The analysis is based on a quantitative survey of German tourists' travel decision-making behaviour. The results reveal changes in destination choices from multidimensional hypothetical choices to unidimensional actual and past choices. Furthermore, only few destinations have a consistent position whilst most destinations are either more relevant for hypothetical or actual destination choices.

Keywords: destination choice, travel decision-making, network analysis, set theory, Germany

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Introduction

Travel decisions are multilayered decisions with interdependent elements (e.g. destination, type of accommodation) that "evolve in a decision process over time" (Dellaert, Ettema, and Lindh 1998, 313). A type of travel decision that receives special attention in tourism research is the choice of a destination, probably due to the high importance for tourists compared to other elements of the travel decision (Fesenmaier and Jeng 2000; Oppewal, Huybers, and Crouch 2015). Choosing a destination is a complex process where only the result is visible in the form of tourist flows from a source market to a destination. Until a destination is finally chosen by a tourist it has to successfully complete

several stages of the destination choice (DC) process. The reasons it is preferred to other alternative destinations during these steps are manifold, interrelated and depend on external as well as internal factors (Um and Crompton 1990).

Tourism research tends to focus either on actually executed or hypothetical DCs which covers up an existing discrepancy between these two types of DC. A research gap exists in the understanding of DC as the discrepancy between actual and hypothetical DCs has rarely been investigated. For example, reasons why tourists decide to travel to some destinations while others remain hypothetical "dream" destinations are not clearly identified. Actual behaviour and imagination of travelling cannot be seen as equal (Decrop 2010; Karl, Reintinger, and Schmude 2015). This implies that actual and hypothetical DC do not proceed under the same premises and that there are differences in the way tourists evaluate alternative destinations for actually planned or executed and hypothetical future holidays. However, knowledge about the discrepancy and how to overcome this discrepancy can be highly relevant for the tourism industry.

DC is furthermore a negotiation process between tourists' needs and what destinations offer (Ankomah, Crompton, and Baker 1996). While many past studies focus on tourists and their attitudes, needs or perceptions of destinations, information on the destinations such as the geographic location is rarely captured. There are exceptions in the form of case studies which give important insights into a specific destination (e.g. Botha, Crompton, and Kim 1999) but not into the DC process in a more comprehensive way. The lack of consideration of the destination itself pushes one of the most important aspects of DC into the background: The destination and its distinct characteristics are important determinants of DC (Karl et al. 2015).

To approach these two research gaps (i.e. discrepancy between actual and hypothetical DCs; consideration of destination characteristics), this study investigates DC sections that vary in their closeness to reality. The focus is not only on the outcome of DC (actual DCs) but also on dreams and imaginations of travelling occurring before the decision to travel has been initiated (hypothetical DCs). The purpose of the paper is to better understand differences in the evaluation of alternative destinations concerning actual and hypothetical DCs. This study furthermore aims to analyse the relevance and role of the destination itself at different DC sections in order to emphasise the importance of destination characteristics in the DC process.

A reason why destinations have not been paid more attention in research on DC, in particular in quantitative studies, may be the methodological challenge to capture the multiplicity of destinations that are considered during the DC process. This study therefore applies network analysis as it allows to identify structures in the evaluation of alternative destinations whilst preserving destination information. Based on a quantitative survey on DC behaviour, alternative destinations of different DC sections and their relations as competitors are analysed using network analysis. This allows to capture the role of destinations on the basis of their position in the network. The results demonstrate that only few destinations have a consistent position in all DC sections whilst most destinations are either more relevant in the hypothetical or actual DC sections. Exemplary destinations are chosen to illustrate how destination characteristics determine the role of a destination in the DC sections. The exemplary destinations furthermore allow to further look into interlinkages and relations between actual and hypothetical DCs. The research approach and results of this study offer a wide range of application opportunities for practitioners which are discussed in the conclusion of this article.

Literature review and research questions

Various theories, approaches and methods have been applied to investigate DC from output oriented microeconomic models (e.g. Seddighi and Theocharous 2002) to behaviouristic models focusing on tourists' behaviours rather than the actual final choices (e.g. Choi, Lehto, Morrison, and Jang 2012). Two approaches dominate in tourism research to analyse DCs: 1) focus on actually executed choices for example by the observation of DCs (e.g. Botha et al.

1999) or output-oriented models to predict DCs (e.g. Papatheodorou 2001; Seddighi and Theocharous 2002); 2) focus on hypothetical choices with methodologies such as choice experiments (e.g. Ferns and Walls 2012; Sarman, Scagnolari, and Maggi 2016; Sharifpour, Walters, and Ritchie 2014). However, a discrepancy often exists between actual and hypothetical DC caused by constraints that prevent tourists from implementing their hypothetical dreams (Decrop 2010; Karl et al. 2015).

This study is therefore embedded in set theory as encompassing concept since set theory embraces the idea of different kinds of choices with varying closeness to reality. Another advantage of set theory is that it allows to investigate all destinations that are considered during the DC process instead of only focusing on the final decision. This helps to identify reasons for the rejection of destinations before the final choice and provides important input, both for the theoretical understanding of DC and the practical knowledge for tourism management and marketing.

Set theory is an approach which has first been introduced in consumer behaviour research to investigate choice opportunities and has been adapted to tourism research to explain DC processes in quantitative as well as qualitative studies (e.g. Crompton 1992; Decrop 2010; Jang, Lee, Lee, and Hong 2007; Prentice 2006; Um and Crompton 1990). According to set theory, DC can be described as a multistage, sequential, and funnel-like process with multiple alternatives (Crompton 1992; Sirakaya and Woodside 2005; Um and Crompton 1990). The complexity of the DC is simplified by distributing all destinations among hierarchically structured sets (Crompton 1992). The final decision is then made between a few destinations from a smaller subset (Crompton 1992). More detailed information on set theory can be found in a former study by Decrop (2010). Past set theory studies underline the complexity of a DC process which changes from the first initial idea to the final choice of one destination (e.g. Decrop 2010; Um and Crompton 1992). A longitudinal study from Decrop (2010) implies that travel decision-making and DC processes are becoming more realistic towards the end. This means that the type of destination changes, resulting in a discrepancy between initial travel dreams and actual travel behaviour (Karl et al. 2015). The discrepancy could be attributed to changes in the decision criteria that determine the different stages of the DC process. While facilitators dominate at the beginning of the process, inhibitors or travel constraints play a more important role towards the end (Um and Crompton 1992). Although past research agrees that the DC process changes and that different types of destinations are more or less relevant depending on the stage of the DC process, the differences in the comparison and evaluation of alternative destinations between actual and hypothetical DCs are not yet clear.

Another challenge in the investigation of DC, which has rarely been faced in past studies, in particular in quantitative surveys, is the integration of the actual destinations. However, it is the combination of tourist and destination attributes that forms the DC (e.g. Bekk, Spörle, and Kruse 2016; Karl et al. 2015): A destination will only be chosen as a final destination in case that the destination's characteristics and the tourist's preferences match. Bekk, Spörle and Kruse (2016) introduce tourist-destination personality similarity, a concept taken from person-environment fit theory, which is based on tourists' individual perceptions and destination attributes. Their results suggest that the level of similarity between these perceptions influences how satisfied tourists are with the destination and how likely they would recommend the destination to others. Another example are facilitators or inhibitors that lead to the selection or rejection of a destination. These factors are linked to the destination as well as to the tourist (e.g. risk-avoiding personality – preference of safe destination) and can only be fully understood through the integration of destination details in the research methodology (Karl 2016). There are few studies that consider destination attributes to a limited extent: Work on the investigation of inhibitors or travel constraints that influence the narrowing-down process of alternative destinations tend to concentrate on the choice of a particular destination but not on alternative destinations (e.g. Botha et al. 1999). Input-output DC models that include attributes of the entirety of final destinations (e.g. Marcussen 2011), neglect

alternative destinations that did not pass the whole DC process. Set theory provides a possibility to analyse destinations and their relevance at different stages of the DC process. However, most past studies on DC using set theory concentrate on the choice sets itself. In particular, the size and type of choice sets are investigated rather than the actual destinations and their characteristics (e.g. Crompton and Ankomah 1993; Woodside and Lysonski 1989; Um and Crompton 1990). Consequently, specific features of destinations, which are in some cases crucial determinants of DC, are not taken into account and tourists' DC set structures are only partly explained.

This paper aims to address two research gaps that have been identified in the literature review: 1) recognition of a discrepancy between actual and hypothetical DC; 2) consideration of the destination in DC research. Therefore, DC is not investigated in its entirety as a process, instead the focus is on certain sections of the DC that are distinguished by their closeness to reality and represent actual and hypothetical DCs. The study moreover includes specific information on the alternative destinations to better explain differences of actual and hypothetical DCs.

This study proceeds on the assumption that differences exist between hypothetical and realistic DCs which are reflected in the evaluation structure and relevance of alternative destinations in each DC section. Destinations that are perceived as more realistic should be more relevant in the realistic actual choices while destinations associated with stronger travel constraints should be less relevant at the same time. Based on this assumption, two research questions lead this study:

✓ Research question 1: What are the differences in the comparison of alternative destinations at different DC sections with varying closeness to reality?
✓ Research question 2: Which relevance or role do destinations have in different DC sections with varying closeness to reality?

Methods

Network Analysis

DC sets are comprised of a multitude of destinations. Consequently, a high amount of different destinations is mentioned in quantitative surveys. This impedes statistical analyses (e.g. combinations of destinations; links between destinations) and demands for alternative approaches. In order to avoid the concealment of destination information through clustering or typing methods, this study applies network analysis as a tool to investigate DC. This allows the analysis of hypothetical future, actually planned and executed past choices whilst preserving information on the destinations. This approach helps to better understand how alternative destinations are evaluated during the DC. Network analysis does not only permit the inclusion of destination information but also information on linkages between competing destinations to identify clusters of competing or compatible destinations in different sections of the DC.

> "Network analysis, derived from graph theory, attempts to describe the structure of relations (displayed by links) between given entities (displayed by nodes), and applies quantitative techniques to produce relevant indicators and results for studying the characteristics of a whole network and the position of individuals [actors] in the network structure" (Shih 2006, 1031).

Network science was introduced in social science to investigate relationships between stakeholders of various kinds. In tourism research, network analysis is applied for example to investigate stakeholder relationships in destinations (e.g. Baggio, Scott, and Cooper 2010; Pforr 2006; Scott, Cooper, and Baggio 2008), interrelations between destinations (e.g. Baggio 2007; Shih 2006) or tourist attractions within a destination (e.g. Stienmetz and Fesenmaier 2015). Further information on network science with a specific focus on the application in tourism research can be found in Baggio et al. (2010). In contrast to former research, our study is not based on relationships of stakeholders in a particular destination or competing destinations and attraction points but on specific sections of DC and relations between alternative destinations in these sections.

Data Collection

This study is part of a survey on the structure and determinants of tourists' DC processes.

Data were collected in Munich, Germany 2013 using a standardised questionnaire in personal interviews (*n* = 835). Trained interviewers approached the respondents in 18 public spaces where people tend to spend time instead of just passing. To avoid bias due to personal preferences, every second or third passers-by was approached depending on the passenger frequency. To ensure that only potential travellers were integrated in the survey, participants were asked a screening question at the beginning of the survey (i.e. "Are you planning to conduct a main holiday (at least four overnight stays) within the next twelve months?"). Only potential tourists at the age of 14 years or older were accepted since, in most cases, younger tourists influence but are not actively involved in DC (Decrop 2006).

The questionnaire was completed in personal interviews in an average time of 15 minutes. Only the sections that focus on DC and sociodemographic variables are included in this article. In the questionnaire set theory is applied to analyse DC behaviour at more hypothetical and realistic stages of the DC. Theoretical models of DC using set theory (e.g. Crompton 1992), describe rather complex, differentiated and detailed DC set structures. However, in quantitative surveys it is difficult to cover such complex structures. Therefore, the focus of this study is on three sections of DC representing hypothetical future, realistic planned and executed behaviour: the future consideration set, the relevant set and past DC.

Destinations in the future consideration set are alternative destinations for a future holiday which the respondent has not visited yet but wishes to visit in the future. The future consideration set illustrates the range of destinations that a respondent would be interested in and is drawn to visit in the future. It represents the hypothetical section of DC. The restriction to destinations which have not been visited before excludes own experience or images based on own experiences, both strong influencing factors of DC and image formation (Litvin, Goldsmith, and Pan 2008). It is similar to Crompton's (1992, 422) initial 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". In our study the future consideration set has been operationalised as follows: "Please name up to six other destinations which you have not visited yet but would like to visit in the future."

The relevant set and past DC depict a more realistic picture of the DC towards the end of the DC process without destinations which cannot be visited (easily) due to constraints. The relevant set has a crucial position in the DC process. This set comprises all alternative destinations which tourists are considering for the next planned holiday and the final destination is taken from this set (Crompton 1992). In this study, the relevant set represents the realistic section of DC that is happening at present. The relevant set is based on Ankomah's et al. (1996) as well as Crompton's (1992) late consideration set with a limited time between DC and commencement of a journey (in our study: twelve months). "Which destinations are you considering for your next main holiday (i.e. at least four overnight stays)?" Past DCs represent actual choices in contrast to planned choices (relevant set) or hypothetical choices (future consideration set): "Where have you spent your main holidays in the last three years?". It signifies a realistic section of DC in the past with actually executed holiday trips where respondents were able to overcome travel constraints.

Respondents were not restricted to a specific geographical scale concerning the destinations in the questionnaire. An explanation for this approach can be taken from Fyall's (2013) statement on destinations:

> "Destinations come in all shapes and sizes and can be found in a variety of geographical settings such as in urban, rural and coastal environments. Destinations can be countries or a collection of countries, a distinct state, country or province, or in fact represent a local city, town or resort, national park, area of outstanding national beauty or coastline" (Fyall 2013, 118).

After elimination of invalid questionnaires, a final sample size of 835 questionnaires is used for the network analysis. Table 1 displays the socio-demographic profile of the respondents. The age

Table 1. *Profile of respondents (n = 835).*

	n	Percent
Gender		
female	418	51.2
male	399	48.8
Age		
14 – 19 years	64	7.7
20 – 29 years	242	29.0
30 – 39 years	123	14.7
40 – 49 years	100	12.0
50 – 59 years	132	15.8
60 – 69 years	92	11.0
> 69 years	72	8.6
Highest level of education achieved		
Apprenticeship	28	3.4
Junior high school	57	6.9
Secondary school	123	14.9
High school	267	32.4
University or college	320	38.8
Other	30	3.6
Occupation		
Retired	109	15.5
House wife/husband	18	2.6
Student	223	31.8
Workman	24	3.4
Employee	243	34.6
Civil servant	60	8.5
Unemployed	7	1.0
Other	18	2.6
Household income per month		
< 750 €	131	15.7
750 – 1,499 €	79	9.5
1,500 – 1,999 €	71	8.5
2,000 – 2,499 €	53	6.3
2,500 – 2,999 €	73	8.7
3,000 – 3,499 €	61	7.3
3,500 – 3,999 €	42	5.0
4,000 – 4,499 €	41	4.9
4,500 – 4,999 €	45	5.4
5,000 – 7,499 €	57	6.8
> 7,499 €	49	5.9
n/s	133	15.9
Household size		
1	227	27.6
2	306	37.2
3	131	15.9
4	108	13.1
> 4	51	6.2

group 20 to 29 years is particularly dominant since the survey took place in a city with a high amount of students. However, specific characteristics of the location of data collection (e.g. high proportion of young professionals) are considered throughout the data analysis and interpretation of the results. Moreover, this study is an explorative study that aims at developing and testing a new methodology to investigate DC. The goal was not to depict a representative picture of German tourists' DC. Nevertheless, a comparison with a representative survey of

German tourists travel behaviour (FUR 2016) shows a high consensus regarding the realistic DC sections.

Data Analysis

The wide range of destinations named in the survey created a dataset with information that was too differentiated for the quantitative network analysis. An aggregation of all destinations on the national level was necessary to detect patterns and structures of alternative evaluations. Information on the original geographical scale was used to better interpret the results of the network analyses.

Different software tools are used to analyse network data: R version 3.0.2 (R Core Team 2013) for the transformation of original survey into network data; UCInet version 6.507 (Borgatti, Everett, and Freeman 2002) for the analysis of the structures and properties in the networks; NetDraw version 2.138 (Borgatti 2002) to visualise network data; and SPSS version 21.0 (IBM 2012) for statistical analyses of the original survey data.

The transformation of the original survey data on destinations into network data results in an undirected and symmetric network. All destinations named in one DC section form a specific network. Nodes which are seen as the "elements of a system" (Fortunato, Latora, and Marchiori 2004, 1) represent destinations mentioned in a particular section. Links in the networks show that two destinations are named by the same respondent in the same section. The weight of a link corresponds to the number of times where two destinations are named together by respondents in the same DC section. The network analysis includes weighted as well as dichotomised data (i.e. distinction only between ties being absent or present; Hanneman and Riddle 2005) to investigate both the strength and variety of links between destinations in order to reveal dominance as well as diversity of destinations in the DC sections.

Social network analysis provides a multitude of tools, metrics and algorithms. Since this study does not examine social relationships but DCs and competing alternative destinations, only certain metrics are applicable here. Several metrics were considered that allow examining the way that nodes are connected, the distances between nodes and the kinds of structures that characterise the networks. However, some of these metrics were not applicable with the available data set or did not provide further insight into DCs than the chosen metrics. In the end, network density, degree centrality, network centralisation and cutpoints were chosen to investigate DC network structures in this study. The chosen metrics are unambiguous measurements and indicators for different aspects that are relevant for the analysis of DCs. Table 2 provides an overview of the chosen network metrics, measurement levels and indicative meanings in this study.

Network Density Δ

Network density "describes the general level of linkage" among the nodes in a network (Scott 2013, 69). In this study, network density indicates the degree of connectedness between destinations. It is measured using both

Table 2. *Dimensions of network analysis.*

Network metrics	Measurement of	Indicator of/for
Network Density Δ	structure of evaluation	degree of connectedness between destinations
dichotomised		cross-linking between destinations
weighted		strength of connections between destinations
Degree Centrality C_D	role of destination	degree of compatibility and uniqueness of a destination
Network Centralisation C_A	structure of evaluation	degree of hierarchical order of destinations
Cutpoint	structure of evaluation	degree of stability and connectivity between destinations
	role of destination	degree of bonding force of a destination

dichotomised and weighted data. In a binary network, dichotomised network density (i.e. ratio of links present to all possible links; see formula 1, Wasserman and Faust 2009) implies whether a network consists of a high number of marginally connected (i.e. low dichotomised network density) or strongly interwoven (i.e. high dichotomised network density) destinations. In a valued network, weighted network density (i.e. sum of links divided by all possible links; see formula 2, Wasserman and Faust 2009) incorporates the strength of a link or how often destinations are mentioned together in a DC section. The inclusion of the weighted network density factors in destinations that are strongly connected and build a cluster of highly relevant central destinations with specific roles in a DC section. In particular, the comparison of dichotomised and weighted network densities allows to draw conclusions about the diversity of destinations at a certain DC section. For example, a high weighted network density, compared to the dichotomised network density, is evidence for strong ties between few destinations.

Binary network with dichotomised data

$$\Delta_D = \frac{L}{g(g-1)/2} = \frac{2L}{g(g-1)} \quad (1)$$

Valued network with weighted data

$$\Delta_W = \frac{2\sum v_k}{g(g-1)} \quad (2)$$

v_k *value of line* l_k
L *number of links*
l_k *line between node i and j*
g *number of nodes in the network*

Degree Centrality C_D

Algorithms to measure centrality in a network generally aim to identify the most important, central or prominent actors within a network and are "a measure for an actor's level of involvement or activity in the network" (Prell 2012, 97). Various centrality measures are generally applied in network analysis such as closeness centrality, betweenness centrality or degree centrality. While closeness and betweenness centrality also incorporate non-direct adjacent neighbours to calculate the centrality of a node, degree centrality focuses only on directly adjacent neighbours (Wasserman and Faust 2009). However, non-direct links are difficult to interpret in a context that is not based on human or corporate networks. Therefore, degree centrality (i.e. amount of direct links to adjacent neighbouring actors; Wasserman and Faust 2009) is applied in this study to identify the role of individual destinations within the network. Since degree centrality indirectly depends on the size of a network, it is calculated in our study in a normalised way which is independent of the size of the network (see formula 4, Freeman 1978-1979; Wasserman and Faust 2009). Degree centralities are calculated with dichotomised data as, in this study, the focus is on the variety of destinations that are connected by a particular destination to understand how compatible a destination is with other destinations. Degree centrality is, moreover, able to demonstrate whether a destination is the main destination for tourists (i.e. low degree centrality) or mostly part of a group of competing destinations (i.e. high degree centrality).

$$C_D(n_i) = d(n_i) = \sum_j x_{ij} = \sum_j x_{ji} \quad (3)$$

$$C'_D(n_i) = \frac{d(n_i)}{g-1} \quad (4)$$

$d(n_i)$ *number of directly adjacent nodes*
x_{ij} *value of the link between i and j*
g number of nodes in the network
$0 \leq C'_D \leq 1$

Network Centralisation C_A

Network centralisation describes the structure of a network based on differences in the level of degree centralities (see formula 5, Wasserman and Faust 2009). It is able to show to which extent "cohesion is organised around particular focal points" (Scott 2013, 90). While the analysis of degree centralities helps to reveal the role and relevance of certain destinations during the DC, network centralisation allows to understand the balance or imbalance in a network. In this study, network centralisation is used to identify the hierarchical order of destinations within one DC section. A high level of network centralisation

implies that few destinations with high degree centralities dominate the DC section while a low level suggests a balanced structure without strongly dominating destinations.

$$C_A = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{g}[C_A(n^*) - C_A(n_i)]}{\max \sum_{i=1}^{g}[C_A(n^*) - C_A(n_i)]} \quad (5)$$

$C_A(n^*)$ *maximal degree centrality of a node*
g *number of nodes in the network*
$0 \leq C_A \leq 1$

Cutpoints

A measurement for the analysis of the internal structure and connectivity of networks are cutpoints that bind the network. The removal of a cutpoint leads to a drop out of further nodes which are only attached to the network by this particular node. The network would consequently be divided into several sub-networks (Scott 2013). Hannemann and Riddle (2005) state that "cutpoints may be particularly important actors – who may act as brokers among otherwise disconnected groups". In our study, cutpoints are used to reveal destinations which bind other destinations or groups of destinations together and connect them to the network. The assumption is that tourists who prefer or travel to different kinds of destinations can agree on this cutpoint destination. This means that a cutpoint destination is an alternative for tourists whose preferences do not overlap otherwise.

Results

The analysis of the three DC sections (i.e. future consideration set, relevant set, past DC) focuses firstly on the general structure of each DC network and secondly on destinations with particular roles in the network. The first part concentrates on the. entirety of destinations and links between destinations in one DC section to investigate the structure of alternative destination evaluations, relevance of destinations and differences between the investigated sections of DC. The second part focuses on particular destinations and their embedding in a network of competing destinations to examine and illustrate the DC network structures of certain types of destinations. Table 3 displays the results of the DC network analysis.

The DC networks, shown in figure 1 to 3, illustrate the results and discussion sections of this article. All network figures are created in NetDraw using spring embedding technique, a "simple heuristic for laying out arbitrary networks" (Scott et al. 2008, 174). Nodes are positioned in a way that minimises distances between linked nodes. Hence, the most frequently linked destinations are situated at the smallest distance. The size of the nodes represents a destination's level of degree

Table 3. *Results of the DC network analysis.*

	Future consideration set		Relevant set		Past DC	
N	2,097		1,362		2,273	
No. of nodes	139		97		109	
No. of links	2,584		743		1,892	
Δ_w / Δ_D	0.27 / 0.12		0.16 / 0.08		0.32 / 0.11	
C'_D	USA	0.62	Italy	0.46	Italy	0.57
	Australia	0.50	USA	0.45	Spain	0.46
	Thailand	0.46	Spain	0.37	USA	0.44
	Canada	0.46	France	0.28	Germany	0.41
	New Zealand	0.44	Austria	0.25	Austria	0.41
C_A	0.50		0.39		0.47	
Cutpoints	Argentina, Asia, Caribbean, Mongolia, Lithuania, Russia, Sweden		Austria, Baltic States, Bulgaria Egypt, Greece, Italy, Madagascar, New Zealand, South Africa, South America, Southeast Asia, Spain, Portugal, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, USA		Egypt, Germany, Turkey, USA	

centrality while the strength of links between nodes refers to the number of times that destinations are named simultaneously.

Network densities and network centralisation provide information on the structure of DC sections according to the linkage of alternative destinations and are chosen to answer the first research question. In all DC sections, weighted and dichotomised network densities are between 0.16 and 0.32 or 0.08 and 0.12, respectively. These low values can partly be ascribed to the size of the networks since rather large networks are generally associated with lower network densities (Scott 2013). Both in regard to weighted and dichotomised network

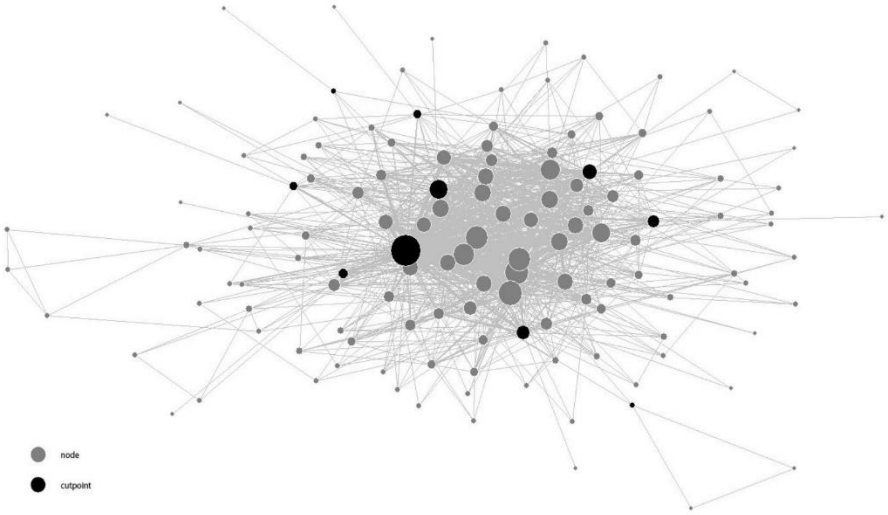

Figure 1. *Network of the future consideration set with degree centralities and cutpoints.*

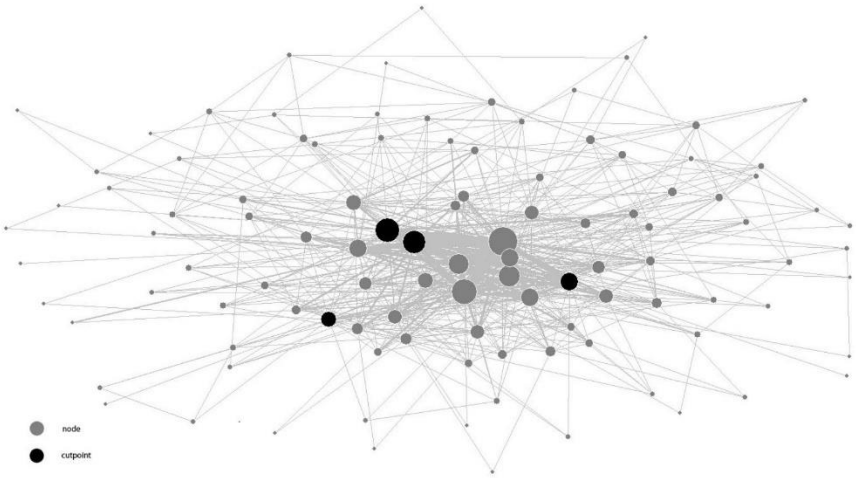

Figure 2. *Network of the relevant set with degree centralities and cutpoints.*

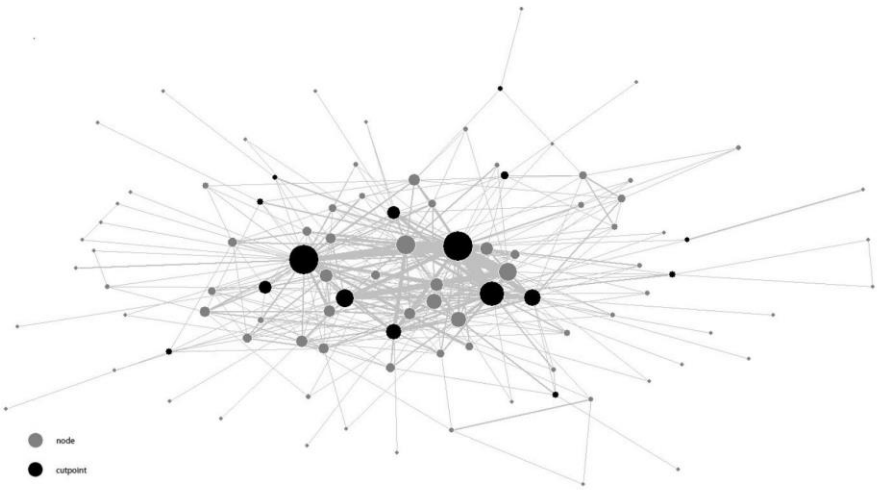

Figure 3. *Network of the past destination choice with degree centralities and cutpoints.*

densities, the relevant network has the lowest values while the future consideration and past DC networks have slightly higher values (see table 3). The level of network centralisation lies between 0.39 and 0.50 in the three networks. The future consideration and past DC networks show the highest network centralisation and consequently the highest variability of degree centralities. Here, few destinations with high degree centralities dominate the centre of the network structure and a large amount of destinations with low degree centralities constitute the peripheral areas of the network. In the relevant set, a weaker cluster of dominating destinations and less peripheral destinations result in a comparatively low level of network centralisation.

The metrics degree centrality and cutpoint are used to investigate destinations and their relevance or roles within DC sections (see research question 2). It has to be noted that the number of responses influences degree centralities: Frequently mentioned destinations have more chances to be linked to other destinations, resulting in a higher degree centrality than destinations which are mentioned only by a few respondents. In all networks, destinations with the lowest degree centralities are destinations with rather low tourism intensities (i.e. tourist arrivals per 1,000 inhabitants; UNWTO 2013). Destinations with the highest degree centralities in the future consideration network are long-haul non-European destinations, which do not necessarily occupy important positions in the other sections and do not reflect actual travel patterns of German tourists (UNWTO 2013). This is in contrast to the relevant or past DC network where destinations with high degree centralities are predominantly European destinations at a short or medium distance to Germany with high tourism intensities and strong tourist flows from Germany (UNWTO 2013). Two kinds of cutpoints have been detected in the DC networks: cutpoints with high degree centralities that connect destinations with high and low degree centralities which vary regarding touristic indicators, geographic locations or development statuses (UNDP 2014); cutpoints with low degree centralities that connect destinations with low degree centralities which are rather uncommon for the German outbound market (UNWTO 2013).

Discussion

The results demonstrate that the DC sections differ concerning the structures (i.e. network density, network centralisation) and relevance of alternative destinations (i.e. degree centrality, cutpoint) in the DC sections (see research question 1 and 2).

The future consideration network is characterised by a relatively high weighted network density despite a large amount of peripheral destinations and a high level of network centralisation. This indicates that a cluster of highly interwoven destinations exists despite a broad variety of destinations. Hence, a limited number of destinations is mentioned simultaneously by many respondents. The future consideration network is, moreover, a network with few cutpoints which is a proxy for a stable network. These results imply that hypothetical future travel plans of German tourists are rather multidimensional but nevertheless concentrated on some specific destinations. The multidimensionality can be ascribed to the absence of travel constraints at this hypothetical stage of DC. This is in line with Um and Crompton (1992) who state that inhibitors of travelling such as travel constraints strongly influence DC towards the end of the process when it comes to actual DC. The beginning of the process, which can be compared to the hypothetical DC in this study, however, is dominated by positive attributes and facilitators of travelling. Consequently, tourists include destinations in the future consideration set without taking factors into account that would deter them from travelling to destinations which substantially extends the range of different destinations.

In contrast to the hypothetical future consideration set, the relevant network is shaped by low network densities (dichotomised and weighted), a high proportion of destinations with low degree centralities and a large number of cutpoints. This means that the network itself is rather fragile with loosely connected destinations and would dissolve into several subnetworks in the absence of the cutpoint destinations. This implies a unidimensionality or uniformity in German tourists' actual travel plans for a particular holiday: Only a limited amount of destinations is considered for one particular trip. Moreover, the comparatively low but still significant level of network centralisation indicates that this network has a strong centre with few interconnected dominating destinations. This result is confirmed by a former study of Karl et al. (2015) where the level of homogeneity is calculated for several DC sets. Their study shows that the relevant set is very homogeneous since it mainly consists of rather similar destinations.

The high level of network centralisation in the past DC network is a proxy for a network with a strong centre of highly interwoven dominating destinations. This suggests that German tourists choose similarly when it comes to the final DC. Studies on first-time and repeat visitors, such as Chi's (2012) investigation of destination loyalty, confirm the stable destination preference. However, the higher network densities (dichotomised and weighted) and lower number of cutpoints, compared to the relevant set, are a sign of a strong integration of peripheral destinations into the network. The strong linkage of peripheral destinations to the cluster of central destinations indicates that the same respondents travelled to uncommon as well as conventional destinations. In the last decades, tourists have evolved into hybrid or multi-faceted tourists who do not travel to the same kind of destination or even the same destination in each holiday (Dellaert et al. 1998; Lohmann and Aderhold 2009). A study by Boztug, Babakhani, Laesser, and Dolnicar (2015, 190) shows that nowadays hybrid tourists "are the norm, rather than the exception" in regard to motivation and travel expenses. It is therefore likely that tourists also act in a hybrid manner in terms of DC.

A comparison of the results for each DC section demonstrates that the structure and relevance of alternative destinations varies which reflects the changes in the DC process. The structure of the future consideration network is characterised by a broad variety of potential destinations for tourists' future holidays. This variety is narrowed down in the relevant set and past DCs when tourists have to make actual decisions concerning their holidays. This refers to findings of previous studies on DC which found that DC follows a funnel-like process where travel constraints successively reduce alternative destinations (e.g. Crompton and Ankomah 1993; Woodside and Lysonski 1989). Consequently, alternative destinations become more homogeneous at the end of the DC process. Karl et al. (2015) for example show that while most tourists consider a greater variety of destinations at an early stage of the DC process, their relevant sets for a specific trip consist of a very limited amount of destinations of a similar

type. A closer investigation of the destinations that form clusters in the centre of each DC section confirms that not only the evaluation structure of alternative destinations changes but also the relevance of particular destinations (see research question 2) and the strongest competitors: Central destinations in the hypothetical DC section are mainly long-haul non-European destinations while central destinations in the realistic DC sections are mainly popular destinations for German tourists. Reasons for the changes are for example temporal situational or permanent structural travel constraints (Decrop 2010) which lead to a domination of destinations in the relevant set and past DC that can be realised more easily. These destinations are mainly located within Europe and probably associated with less transport costs which might reduce financial constraints. In the hypothetical future consideration set, however, respondents do not actively consider alternatives. Therefore, constraints do not yet apply and do not influence this section of the DC. This is in line with past research on DC such as Decrop (2010, 110-111) who states that the DC process becomes more realistic: "Vacationers may move from a preference/ideal value level (dreamed but not necessarily available destinations) to an expectation level (realistically available destinations) and finally to a tolerance level (surrogate destinations that represent an acceptable minimum) as far as plans evolve".

Changes between the DC sections moreover manifest in the geographical scale of the named destinations (i.e. regional, national, subcontinental or continental). Subcontinents and continents are in particular mentioned in the future consideration set where the imagination of an actual destination is (still) sometimes rather vague. Tourists probably do not have in-depth knowledge about a destination (yet). A reason may be that they do not actively consider alternative destinations, for example through information search, until the end of the DC process (Crompton 1992). In the relevant set, where respondents are closer to the actual choice for a holiday, imaginations of the destination are clearer and the destinations named in the survey are narrowed down to smaller geographical areas (i.e. countries or regions). The same applies for past DCs with destinations on the national or regional level.

The network analysis shows that the DC sections differ in the variety of destinations and that different destinations play a key role in actual and hypothetical DC sections. A comparison of destinations' degree centralities in the three DC networks furthermore reveals that most destinations do not have a consistent relevance or position in all DC sections. In fact, most destinations vary in their relevance and positions in the DC sections and loose or gain in importance from hypothetical to actual DCs. Three types of destinations in regard to their position in the DC sections are identified: core destination (i.e. high relevance in all DC sections); surrogate destination (i.e. higher relevance in actual than hypothetical DC sections); and intentional destination (i.e. lower relevance in actual than hypothetical DC sections). The following exemplary destinations represent the three types of destinations. These exemplary destinations allow to illustrate and explain what kind of characteristics a destination should incorporate in order to classify as core, surrogate or intentional destination.

Core destinations are destinations with high degree centralities in all DC networks. The high degree centralities signify a large amount of competing destinations and a high combinability with various other destinations. Therefore, core destinations could be seen as destinations on which travel companions with different destinations in their minds can easily agree. Consequently, core destinations can help to facilitate DCs since tourists normally decide together with their travel partners in mutual decisions (Jang et al. 2007; van Raaij and Francken 1984). USA can be defined as a core destination since it has high degree centralities in all DC networks, being the first, second and third most central destination in the future consideration, relevant and past DC network (C'_D = 0.62/0.45/0.44). The role of this destination in the three DC sections indicates that USA as a core destination can be combined with various kinds of destinations. The diversified touristic potential of the USA allows tourists to realise various types of holidays from city tourism in New York to sun-and-sea tourism in Florida. With its different climate zones, it is

moreover a year-round destination. A holiday in the USA (and other core destinations) is an alternative which is acceptable for a broad variety of tourists with various travel preferences and DC structures.

Surrogate destinations are destinations with comparatively low degree centralities in the future consideration network but high degree centralities in the realistic sections of the DC (i.e. relevant set, past DC). According to Decrop (2010), surrogate destinations replace ideal destinations when it comes to the final DC (Decrop 2010). Many tourists plan to travel to these destinations on their next holiday or have already realised a holiday there but do not dream about visiting them in the future. The assumption is that tourists who travel to different destinations are able to agree on surrogate destinations as an alternative to their other travel preferences. The destination Italy represents an example for a surrogate destination as it has an outstanding position (i.e. very high degree centralities, cutpoint) in the relevant and past DC networks (C'_D = 0.46/0.57) but a weaker position in the future consideration network (C'_D = 0.39). The high degree centralities in the actual DC sections imply that Italy is a destination that is an adequate alternative for many tourists when it comes to the actual DC. Due to the diverse touristic potential of Italy, tourists with varying travel motives are able to fulfil their needs at the same destination from sun-and-sea to culture or nature oriented holidays. Moreover, with about ten million arrivals from Germany every year and a market share of about 20 percent (UNWTO 2013), Germany is an important source market for Italy. The high number of German tourists implies that many German tourists are familiar with Italy due to prior visit and/or information from friends or relatives who have visited the destination. Both, own experience and word-of-mouth information are rated as strong persuasive factors in DC (Litvin et al. 2008). The short distance to Germany, the free movement of persons within the Schengen area and the usage of the same currency further facilitate travelling between the two countries. All these aspects point towards the fact that Italy can easily replace other destinations which were initially considered as alternatives but may be not be realisable for various reasons.

The last type of destinations are intentional destinations with low degree centralities in the DC sections which represent actual travel behaviour (i.e. relevant set, past DC) where they are located at the periphery of the networks and relatively high degree centralities in the future consideration network. The discrepancy between realistic and hypothetical travel behaviour is the distinctive feature of these destinations. Intentional destinations are rather uncommon destinations for the German outbound market with weak tourist flows from Germany. Russia's role as a connector in the future consideration network (i.e. cutpoint with relatively high degree centrality, C'_D = 0.33) together with the peripheral position in the actual DC networks (i.e. relevant set, C'_D = 0.05; past DC, C'_D = 0.18) classify Russia as an intentional destination. An intentional destination, like Russia is most central at the hypothetical stage and becomes peripheral when it comes to actual choices because of a substitution by a surrogate destination, probably due to travel barriers. Travel barriers concerning Russia are presumably visa requirements which complicate travel arrangements for trips from Germany to Russia. Studies on visa regulations agree that there is a significant influence of changes in visa regulations on tourist arrivals or economic effects of tourism (e.g. Beenstock, Felsenstein, and Rubin 2015; Neumayer 2010). Another travel constraint may be the language barrier which might hamper travelling in and to Russia: Tapachai and Waryszak (2000), who analyse destination image in DC, demonstrate that the absence of language barriers between the host and source country is perceived as a beneficial factor in DC.

Conclusion

Choosing a holiday destination is a complex process where only the result is visible in the form of tourist flows from one country to another. Until a destination is finally chosen it has to successfully complete several stages of the DC process where it is compared to its alternatives. The evaluation structures and the alternative destinations themselves are not the same in all stages of the DC process, in particular comparing realistic and hypothetical sections. Our study contributes to the understanding of DC, both for tourism research and management. It sheds light on the competing destinations and

their relation in different DC sections and identifies types of destinations with specific, varying relevance in these sections.

Theoretical Contribution

This empirical study combines network analysis, a methodological instrument for the investigation of "*relationships* among [...] entities, and [...] the patterns and implications of these relationships" (Wasserman and Faust 2009, 3), and set theory, a theoretical model with hierarchically ordered subsets of alternative destinations, to investigate DCs. Metrics from social network analysis are transferred to examine the position, combinability or interchangeability of destinations at certain DC sections. This approach adds new insight into the understanding of DC and enhances the DC research methodology. An advantage of the application of network analysis is that all destination information is retained during the analysis. The analysis and interpretation of the results can consequently be conducted with specific information on the destinations, adding a geographic perspective to DC literature. Moreover, set theory is able to address another gap in past research - the discrepancy between actual and hypothetical DCs. Hence, some limitations of quantitative and qualitative research approaches can be reduced through this study's approach: Quantitative outcome-oriented research, such as Marcussen (2011), includes a range of destinations to predict the final destination. However, the DC process and different sections of DC are not captured. Qualitative process-oriented research, such as Decrop (2010), focuses on different steps of the DC process but is not able to embrace the variety of destinations that are part of the DC process.

Extending former research by Decrop (2010), our study shows that the structure of DC networks differs considerably between the selected DC sections from multidimensional hypothetical future choices to unidimensional actual and past choices. A significant finding to emerge from this study is that every DC section is characterised by destinations which are located at the centre or periphery of the network and consequently more or less relevant alternatives. Few dominating destinations play an important role in all sections of the DC while the majority of destinations are more or less relevant in either hypothetical or actual DC sections.

In contrast to many past studies on DC using set theory, our study investigates DC from the perspective of the destination rather than of the tourist. This approach helps to understand how alternative destinations operate in different DC sections. The concretisation of set theory through the integration of actual destinations in the theoretical construct of DC sets furthermore deepens the knowledge of DC behaviour. For example, reasons for shifts in the DC sets or why destinations lose relevance in certain DC sections can be examined more thoroughly with information on the actual destination and its characteristics. This is particularly important since the characteristics of destinations have a decisive impact on the decision in favour or against a destination (Ankomah et al. 1996). A combination of set theory and network analysis offers new possibilities to study travel constraints from the tourist and destination perspective for a better understanding of changes in the DC process caused by internal and external factors.

Managerial Contribution

The combination of network analysis and set theory provides a useful tool for a destination's management and marketing for several reasons. This approach is applicable on various geographical scales, global but also regional or local. It enables tourism stakeholders to identify competitors and possible cooperation partners, both, on a global level and at close proximity. Network analysis, in combination with set theory, allows to determine in which DC section a destination is represented mostly and with which alternative destinations it has to compete in order to succeed in the DC process. DMOs are then able to identify competitors at different sections of the DC process and optimise their marketing strategies accordingly. For example, the core destination USA is mainly competing with Australia and Canada in the hypothetical DC section and Italy, France and Spain in the realistic DC sections. While competitors in the hypothetical DC are rather similar to USA (e.g. long distance, highly developed, politically stable and safe, nature-oriented marketing), competitors in the realistic DC are more diverse regarding for example the distance to the source

market, touristic offer or climate conditions. Explanations for these difference are the hybrid choice behaviour of tourists and the high combinability of the destination USA with various kinds of destinations. This is a challenge of DMOs which could be faced by more individualised marketing strategies.

Another factor that is important in this context is the interchangeability of destinations. Is a destination a destination with a high amount of competitors or a unique destination with few or no direct competitors and therefore hardly interchangeable with alternatives? Our study emphasises that some sun-and-sea destinations in the Mediterranean can easily be exchanged (i.e. strong links between the destinations) probably because the main attractive features (e.g. beach, sea, climate) are available in all alternative destinations. For example, Italy, a sun-and-sea destination, has destinations with a similar offer (i.e. Spain, France, Greece, Turkey and Croatia) as strongest competitors in the relevant set. Other destinations with a more unique touristic potential are harder to substitute which is reflected in the network structure (i.e. destinations with a high number of mentions but low degree centralities such as China). This knowledge enables DMOs to target unique characteristics that distinguish a destination from its competitors to reduce interchangeability.

This study furthermore demonstrates that some destinations with rather important positions in the future consideration network are not realised when it comes to actually choosing a destination for the next holiday. Information about competitors and travel constraints that lead to the rejection of a destination is necessary as it supports a destination's shift from more hypothetical sections to actual DCs. More specifically, DMOs can look at similarities between competing destinations in regard to supply, image or marketing strategies but also restraining or decisive factors that distinguish successful destinations from its competitors in more or less realistic DC sections. An analysis of situational and structural constraints can help to develop marketing strategies which specifically address those constraints to positively influence tourists' perceptions of a destination.

Limitations and Further Research

Network analysis provides many instruments to investigate different aspects and areas of networks. Since this study does not examine social networks but networks of destinations in tourists' minds, only certain metrics are applicable. The focus on only a few instruments in this study can be explained by the aims of this study: a better understanding of DCs and specific roles of destinations in different DC sections with varying closeness to reality; a straightforward interpretation of the instruments to facilitate the application in other geographic regions for research and practice purposes. However, some network analysis tools could offer further and deeper comprehension of DCs, in particular in regard to the structure of DC networks. A possibility to analyse network structures is core-periphery analysis. Core-periphery analysis helps to detect structures of densely connected, cohesive cores and loosely connected peripheries of a network (Borgatti and Everett 1999). In regard to DC, core-periphery analysis would be able to reveal strong competitors in the initial consideration set or relevant set and compatible destinations in the past DCs. For the subsequent and further investigation of DC structures, modularity analysis might be useful since it is able to detect possible divisions of a network and to measure the strength of division (Newman 2006). Both approaches are particularly interesting if destinations are categorised according to specific aspects such as dominating market segments, safety and security aspects or distance to the source market. This strategy could help to identify how similar strongly or weakly linked destinations are in regard to decisive influencing factors of DC. A deeper analysis of densely connected destinations in the DC sets enables to detect patterns, for example, in regard to the interchangeability. This would allow the extraction of clusters with competing, interchangeable destinations from the network for in-depth analysis. Further research questions could focus on the identification of destination types and similarities between destinations in strongly linked clusters using modularity analysis.

A limitation of this exploratory study is that the results highly depend on the area in which the investigation takes place. While the general structure of the DC sections and, in particular, the research methodology is transferable to other research areas, the results, in particular the destination-related results, are strongly related to the geographic location of the study. The results should be interpreted in the light of the national (e.g. importance of international destinations due to the strong German outbound travel market; Lohmann and Aderhold 2009) and regional context (e.g. importance of the destination Italy due to the close proximity between Southern Germany and Italy in the realistic DC sections). It could be useful to conduct cross-cultural studies in other countries to investigate similarities and differences in DC network structures.

Several research questions concerning DC networks, especially in regard to the role of the tourist, remain unanswered at present. Ankomah et al. (1996) state that factors related to the tourist as well as factors related to the destination shape the DC process. A former study by Karl et al. (2015) highlights this interrelation showing that the interaction of personal and destination characteristics results in diverse DC patterns. Other aspects concerning the tourist like travel experience, travel preferences or travel motives should be investigated in relation to destination characteristics to gain a deeper understanding of DC. An investigation of DC using the methodology of our study can therefore enhance DC tourist typologies like Plog's (1974) or Decrop and Zidda's (2006) that focus primarily on tourist characteristics as explanatory variables. The calculation of clustering coefficients (i.e. extent of clustering; Hanneman and Riddle 2005) for the DC networks could be a first step to reveal whether tourists primarily choose between several destinations while other tourists select a destination from a different group of destinations. A further possibility would be the identification of clusters of closely connected destinations, for example by means of modularity analysis. The final step would be an investigation of differences between tourists (e.g. travel behaviour, sociodemography) who choose from each cluster of densely connected destinations. This procedure would allow to incorporate tourist and destination characteristics in the investigation of DC choices. The integration of DC tourist types and DC networks would better capture the interdependency between tourist and destination in order to understand the complexity of DC.

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Understanding the Role of Risk (Perception) in Destination Choice - A Literature Review and Synthesis

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Abstract

Safety and security are key aspects for the success of tourism in every destination. Rather than objective risks, it is rather the tourist's individual and subjective perception of these risks that mostly influence destination choice and in the long run tourism flows from one country to another. The concept of risk perception has been highly studied in tourism, however the literature remains fragmented resulting in lack of a cohesive and comprehensive framework. It is not yet clear how risk perception as one important determinant of destination choice acts as an influencing factor in the destination choice process. The purpose of this paper is to review and synthesise literature from tourism research and other disciplines on risk and particularly risk perception to develop a framework that offers a better understanding of the role of risk (perception) in the destination choice process. Although travel decision-making and destination choice is a

negotiation process between tourist needs and destination offer, most past research has mainly concentrated on the tourist rather than the specific attributes of a destination. The aim is therefore to develop a literature-based framework, including tourist and destination attributes, which is built upon a meta-review of fundamental and recent studies from various disciplines.

Keywords:

risk, risk perception, destination choice, tourist behaviour, travel decision-making

Introduction

Safety and security are considered as 'conditio sine qua non' for the positive development of a country's or region's tourism sector (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005) and are decisive determinants in destination choice processes (Fuchs & Pizam, 2011). Especially after the terrorist attacks on September, 11th 2001 in New York, and its consequences on global tourism, both tourism industry and tourism research began to focus on the role of risk in tourism (Mansfeld, 2006). However, even before the terrorist attacks the question how risk influences tourists' decisions whether or not to visit a destination has already been investigated, for example, by Um and Crompton (1992), Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) or Sönmez and Graefe (1998a,b). The results of these studies have provided a basis for post-September 11th research on risk perception and destination choice including aspects related to risks such as uncertainty, worry or fear.

The analysis of different aspects of risk in tourism has been relatively fragmented. Five travel risk categories are often used to investigate the influence of risk on tourism: natural disasters (Birkland et al., 2006; Park & Reisinger, 2010); health risks (Jonas et al., 2011); crime (Ryan, 1993); political instability (Fletcher & Morakabati, 2008); and terrorism (Mansfeld, 1999; Pizam & Fleischer, 2002). These five risk categories are particularly interesting because they represent risk factors which could lead to a physical injury of tourists and will have a strong influence on tourist decision-making and tourism flows.

Studies on risk and tourism can be conducted using two different scales: the macro level using aggregated data and the micro level focusing on the individual tourist. Macro scale studies concentrate on the influence of safety and security events on tourism flows on an aggregated level (Enders et al., 1992; Mansfeld, 1999; Pizam & Fleischer, 2002; Morakabati, 2013; Saha & Yap, 2014). While this stream of research concentrates on the outcome of the destination choice process, another research area emphasises the importance of the tourists' interpretations of risk on the individual level of the tourist. These micro scale studies investigate either tourists' interpretations of particular risk factors that occur in holiday destinations (Fuchs & Reichel, 2004, 2006; Adam, 2015). Other studies focus on differences in perceptions of risk caused by attributes of tourists and how these varying perceptions of risk influence the destination choice process (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a,b). A

paper on risk and uncertainty by Williams and Baláz (2014) represents one of the few theoretical contributions to a better understanding of the concept of risk and its relation to tourism. The authors propose an agenda for future research on the role of risk in tourism. They state that while many studies have already concentrated on the level of the individual tourist, "this is still one of the most fruitful areas for further research" (Williams & Baláž, 2014, p. 13).

While research on the aggregated as well as individual level has made meaningful and important contributions to our knowledge of the role of risk in destination choices, it would be helpful to synthesise this evidence into a literature-based framework. The purpose of this paper is to review and synthesise literature from tourism research and other disciplines on risk and particularly risk perception to develop a better understanding of the role of risk (perception) in the destination choice process. The focus of this article is on studies dealing with risk (perception) and destination choice applying a positivist approach where empirical data is collected and interpreted. After theoretical reflections on the role of risk (perception) in destination choice, empirical studies on this research topic including influencing factors of risk perception and destination choice in the context of risk are analysed and presented in a synthesising manner. This meta-review of fundamental and recent studies further serves as a basis for the literature-based framework which combines tourist and destination attributes in the context of risk (perception) and destination choice. The paper concludes with a discussion on contradictions and limitations in past research and implications for future research.

The theory of risk (perception) in tourism research

The concept of risk can be considered from different perspectives leading to different understandings of risk. From a constructionist perspective, Douglas and Wildavsky's (1982) cultural theory of risk claims that risk is constructed by society in a certain historical and cultural context. Consequently, risk or rather what is recognised as risk depends on when and where a phenomenon occurs. According to Williams and Baláž (2014, p. 10), social constructionist research on risk and tourism "focuses on the individual tourist or how discourses are produced about tourism risk" while positivist approaches define risk as the

probability of a negative or positive outcome of an event or decision. Risks which are measurable and calculable (Knight, 1921) can then be assessed in a formal normative manner. Tourism research on risk generally follows a theory which concentrates on a negative outcome and risk is then defined as a combination of the probability of occurrence and the severity of the damage (Kaplan & Garrick, 1981). In a more social approach which concentrates on consequences for a person, Kates, Hohenemser and Kasperson (1985, p. 21) define risk as an "uncertain consequence of an event or activity with regard to something that humans value". In this definition, risks have to involve a potential loss (e.g. money, health, or life), be of significance to an individual or a society and include a certain degree of uncertainty (Yates, 1992). The component of uncertainty in this definition stands in contrast to Knight (1921) who states that risk is measurable while uncertainty is not.

Since risks "are created and selected by human actors" (Renn, 2006, pp. 23-24), a certain array of perceived risks of the same situation is possible. In consumer research, risk perception is defined as "a consumer's perception of the overall negativity of a course of action based upon an assessment of the possible negative outcomes and the likelihood that those outcomes will occur" (Mowen & Minor, 2001, p. 176). According to Fischhoff et al. (1984, p. 129) two dimensions have to be considered in the concept of risk perception: "the degree to which the risk is unknown" representing a cognitive component and "the degree to which the risk evokes a feeling of dread" as an affective component. Loewenstein et al. (2001, p. 280) follow this distinction in their discussion on the 'risk-as-feelings'-hypothesis and state the following: "People react to the prospect of risk at two levels: they evaluate the risk cognitively, and they react to it emotionally. Although the two reactions are interrelated, with cognitive appraisals giving rise to emotions influencing appraisals, the two types of reactions have different determinants." In fact, judgements of risk "seldom occur in an emotionally neutral context" which influences the judgements (Johnson & Tversky, 1982, p. 3). An important contribution to the understanding of risk perception is Tversky and Kahnemann's (1974) availability heuristics based on a study on judgment under uncertainty and Kahnemann and Tversky's prospect theory (1979) evolved from a study on decisions under risk. In an advanced version of prospect theory, Tversky and Kahneman (1992) introduce a fourfold pattern of risk attitudes and claim that people tend to overestimate low probabilities for uncertain situations with low probabilities of loss or gain.

Risk perception is a multidimensional concept (Yang & Nair, 2014) related to aspects such as uncertainty avoidance, worry, anxiety or fear. Risk perception is furthermore seen as a psychological concept that is not static and anchored in an individual person but dynamically interwoven with the environment, for example with culture, society, politics or media (Kasperson et al., 1988). Research focusing on the understanding of risk in relation to its environment such as the discourse of fear and risk, risk communication and the influence of politics or media on society's interpretation of risks can be found in articles by Altheide and Michalowski (1999), Altheide (2006, 2010), Bianchi (2006), Korstanje (2009) or Korstanje and Tarlow (2012). These studies use qualitative approaches or theoretically discuss influencing factors of risk perception and changes in the discourse of fear. While they provide interesting and critical insight into this topic, they will not be further elaborated in this article since the focus is on empirical studies testing various influencing factors to develop a literature-based framework for the analysis of the role of risk (perception) in destination choice.

The role of risk (perception) in destination choice: Theoretical reflections

Risk (perception) plays an important role in the travel decision-making process on several layers (e.g. travel mode, travel organisation, travel time, travel style, travel costs, travel destination). For example, the type of preferred travel organisation (e.g. package tour vs. individual travelling, travelling in groups vs. travelling alone; Adam, 2015) depends on tourists' risk perceptions. Risk externalisation strategies (i.e. shifting of risk to a third party through the payment of travel insurance; Hajibaba et al., 2015) or substitutability of risk factors (i.e. physical risk is transferred to financial risk through an increase of travel costs by the payment of well-educated tour guides, experienced tour operators or expensive hotels with higher security standards) could explain why the preference for a certain type of travel organisation and the level of risk perception are related. The higher the degree of travel organisation, the less risk has to be considered by tourists themselves. However, this literature review and synthesis focuses on the decision concerning the travel destination since this decision is seen as most important in the hierarchical order of sub-decisions

(Fesenmaier & Jeng, 2000; Oppewal et al., 2015) and its impact on the tourism industry is rather substantial (i.e. possibility of a tourism crisis due to a decline in tourist arrivals).

Tourists' destination choices are shaped by risk as well as uncertainty, both concepts that are in a way related to potential loss as a consequence of an event (Quintal et al., 2010b). The influence of these factors differs between destinations and changes during the destination choice process (Williams & Baláž, 2014), for example through the acquisition of new information. Although researchers often use the terms risk and uncertainty interchangeably in the context of decision-making, they "can be distinguished by the probability of their outcomes" (Quintal et al., 2010a, p. 322). However, Quintal et al. (2010b) point out that two perspectives exist in tourism research concerning the definition of risk and uncertainty: risk and uncertainty as the same concept where risk is a feeling of uncertainty about the consequences; risk and uncertainty as separate concepts where risk is associated with a certain probability of occurrence and uncertainty as the unknown consequence. This means that if decisions are made under uncertainty, information on the possible outcomes (type and probability of occurrence) is missing. Consequently, unless they relate to routine short trips to surrounding areas, destination choices are always associated with a high level of uncertainty. Uncertainty arises from partial knowledge (Knight, 1921) often caused by the tourists' inability to process the mass of information about all possible travel destinations to which every potential tourist is exposed (Crompton, 1992). The specific characteristics of the product 'travel' – intangibility, inseparability, variability, and perishability (Fuchs & Reichel, 2006) – add to the high level of uncertainty in the travel decision-making process.

Travel decision-making and destination choices are furthermore risky choices: "choices among alternatives that can be described by probability distributions over possible outcomes" (Weber & Bottom, 1989, p. 114). An important element of risky choices in tourism is the perceived negativity of at least one of the outcomes (Weber & Bottom, 1989) that is consistent with Yates' (1992) second element of risk, the significance of the loss. From a consumer's point of view risks are bound to costs and therefore "[p]otential tourists select the destination which best matches their needs by offering the most benefits for the least cost (or risk)" (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a, p. 125). However, the assumption of a rational

travel decision without consideration of situational constraints or personality traits in normative theories such as expected utility theory (von Neumann & Morgenstern, 1953) does not reflect actual travel decisions (Bruhin et al., 2010) . It has to be noted that tourists make destination choices based on their perceptions of risks (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992), on "intuitive risk judgments" (Slovic, 1987, p.280), which might not even reflect the actual risk level at a destination (Fuchs & Reichel, 2006). Consequently, tourists' travel behaviours and destination choices will only be affected, if the level of perceived risk is beyond the tourist's individual acceptable risk threshold (Mansfeld, 2006).

Past studies have shown that perceived risks which sometimes differ from objective risks (Fuchs & Reichel, 2006) are stronger determinants in destination choice than objective risks (Mansfeld, 1992; Mäser & Weiermair, 1998; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b; Fuchs & Reichel, 2004). The risk components, objective risk as the measurable calculation of possible outcomes or future consequences and perceived risk as the subjective interpretation of possible outcomes or future consequences, are sometimes referred to by different adjectives (e.g. actual or subjective, individual). In this review, a single term will be used for each with the understanding that it also means the other terms.

The role of risk (perception) in destination choice: Empirical evidence

The selection of articles for this review and synthesis of existing literature on risk (perception) and destination choice was conducted in a systematic manner. Literature with keywords such as risk, risk perception, safety or security and tourism, destination choice or travel decision-making was chosen for further examination of suitability. Published articles from double-blind reviewed journals were preferred to ensure the quality and reliability of the content. The articles from the first selection were scrutinised, firstly to exclude articles that are not directly dealing with the topic and secondly to gather more literature using a snowballing technique (i.e. literature through the reference list). The snowballing technique has also facilitated identifying the core and main studies that are involved in this research area.

Risk perceptions as a determinant of destination choice

Numerous studies assess the role of risk (perception) in travel decision-making and destination choice and mostly agree on the fact that risk perception plays an important role in destination choices but not on the degree of the influence.

Sönmez and Graefe's (1998a) study on risk perception and its influence on international travelling for example reveals that risk perception has a direct impact on destination choice. In a similar study, Sönmez and Graefe (1998b) integrate the factor travel experience and demonstrate that high risk perception encourages the decision not to visit a destination which is perceived to be risky. A study among New York residents on the influence of risk perceptions on intentions to travel that was conducted shortly after the terrorist attacks on September 11th, 2001 gives an interesting insight into the relationship between travel behaviour and risk perception (Floyd et al., 2004). This study finds that some components of risk perception such as perceived social risks but also general safety concerns have an impact on tourists' future travel behaviour. Whereas Floyd et al. (2004) show that high risk perceptions could lead to an avoidance of international travelling, other studies indicate that high risk perception in regard to some factors such as terrorism risk directs destination choice only to a visit of a different destination (Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009).

The influence of risk on destination choice is also supported on the aggregated level, for example by Drakos and Kutan's (2003) econometric study on the immediate and delayed impact of terrorism on Mediterranean tourism. Their study reveals that low levels of terrorism in one country lead to an increase in other Mediterranean countries while high levels of terrorism lead to a decrease in the whole region. This result can be explained with the concept of spillover or neighbouring effect as the negative influence on tourism in a destination caused by a destination in crisis in the same region (Steiner et al., 2006). The choice of an alternative destination (national or international) is a risk reduction or risk avoidance strategy that can be applied by tourists as a reaction to high levels of perceived risks.

Studies on risk perception generally investigate generators of potential travel risk (e.g. terrorism, criminality, political instability, natural catastrophe) or a compilation of many risk factors (Table 1).

Table 1 Risk factors concerning (international) travelling

[Please insert table 1 here.]

A study by Gray and Wilson (2009) on 17 travel hazards and how these deter a tourist from travelling gives insight into the evaluation of these risk factors. Risk factors such as terrorism or physical risk that are able to pose a threat to tourists' physical well-being are strong determinants of destination choice in contrast to risk factors related to tourists' emotional well-being such as social risk. The strong impact of terrorism on tourism (Sönmez et al., 1999) can be explained by the special kind of relationship between terrorism and tourism being logical companions (Richter & Waugh, 1986). Another reason for the high relevance is the discrepancy between actual and perceived terrorism risk as people generally misjudge dramatic and sensational causes of death (Slovic et al., 1981). The high frequency of media reports on terrorism could lead to a further misjudgement of risks since, following Tversky and Kahnemann's (1974, p. 1127) availability heuristic, risks are judged "by the ease with which instances or occurrences can be brought to mind".

A recent study by Sharifpour et al. (2014a) on the interplay between risk perception, prior knowledge and intention to visit a region associated with a high level of risk emphasises the importance of physical risk in the destination choice process. However, destination-specific

risk as "one's subjective interpretation of the possible benefits achieved from visiting a destination" was found to be the strongest factor of destination choice and will probably dominate other risk factors (Sharifpour et al., 2014a, p. 115). The specific context of the chosen case example (i.e. three countries as representatives for the Middle East) could limit the transferability to other regions with lower perceived levels of risk where general risk or physical risk may play a more important role. However, Adam (2015) also confirms the high relevance of destination-specific and physical risk for international backpacking tourists to Ghana.

Studies using the aggregated macro level perspective underline the high relevance of terrorism as an influencing factor of tourism. For example, Mansfeld (1999) using the destination Israel as an example states that cycles of war, terror and peace have shaped the development of Israel's tourism industry. Pizam and Smith's (2000) as well as Pizam and Fleischer's (2002) studies on the impact of terrorism on the destination Israel using panel data furthermore proves that serious but one-time safety or security events result in a sharp drop in tourist arrivals, frequently repeated events, however, have a stronger negative impact on tourism even if the events are less severe. Saha and Yap (2014) investigate the impact of terrorism on tourism using cross-sectional panel data from 139 countries over a ten year period and detect that terrorism does not always diminish tourism in an affected country. A decline in tourist arrivals will only occur in case that terrorism is combined with political instability.

A limitation of past research on risk perception and destination choice is that it has not been able to unravel whether a destination is rejected due to a high level of perceived travel risks or a general high risk perception in everyday life as a personality trait.

Information sources as influencing factors of destination choice in the context of risk

Travel information is relevant at every stage of the travel decision-making process, in particular in regard to risk. Mansfeld (1992) states that suitable travel information minimises perceptions of risk in the pre-purchase phase, helps to create a destination image in the purchase phase and is useful to justify the decision to oneself and others in the post-purchase phase. A study by Jonas and Mansfeld (2015) on information search and risk

perception during the travel consumption sequence (i.e. prior to destination choice, after destination choice, during the trip, after return; Mansfeld, 2006) confirms a positive correlation between the level of risk perception and the use of travel information.

Searching for suitable travel information is seen as an important risk reduction strategy (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a; Fuchs & Reichel, 2004). However, tourists cannot reduce the actual risk level at a destination but they can reduce their perceived level of risk through information search as it helps to reduce the discrepancy between objective and (often overrated) perceived risk. A significant relation between perceived risk, information search and destination choice has been identified by Mäser and Weiermair's (1998). Since tourists choose a destination for their next holiday in most cases while at home, they are not able to assess risk factors directly. The assessment is instead based on communicated travel information of various forms such as 'objective' data from official sources, tourists' micro social environments or media representations. 'Objective' information such as travel advisories from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs play a key role in the context safety and security (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a), in particular prior to the destination choice (Jonas & Mansfeld, 2015). However, past research reveals that tourists prefer social-communicative and personal information sources to impersonal, official sources (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). Direct exchange of information with friends, acquaintances or family members, and word-of-mouth information is highly rated (Jonas & Mansfeld, 2015) and can be seen as one of the strongest factors influencing destination choices in the context of risk.

Experiences as influencing factors of destination choice in the context of risk

Past studies integrating experience as a determinant of destination choice mostly consider two components: prior visitation of a certain (type of) destination and general (international) travel experience. Past research further indicates that prior visitation and general travel experience determine risk perception in various ways. Whereas tourists with travel experience in a certain destination solely perceive some dimensions of risk lower, international well-travelled tourists have an overall lower risk perception (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a,b; Fuchs & Reichel, 2011) or at least a reduced perception of some dimensions of risk (Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009). Sönmez and Graefe (1998a,b) show that prior

visitation of a destination renowned for being risky and general experience with international travelling leads to a decline in risk perception, which reflects on destination choices. Studies on first-time and repeat visitors of a destination, such as Fuchs and Reichel's (2011) survey with visitors to Israel, corroborate these results. For example, first-time visitors rate risk factors such as terrorism or crime higher than repeat visitors. Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty (2009) gain contrasting results and show that first-time and repeat visitors of the destination Thailand differ significantly in their perception of only one risk category (i.e. health risk) but not in their perception of other risk factors (e.g. terrorism risk).

An explanation for the influence of travel experience on risk perception and consequently destination choice can be tourist knowledge. Tourist knowledge, gained through general travel experience as well as experience with a specific destination, move a tourist from a layman to a (perceived) expert position regarding travel risks. Studies by Sharifpour et al. (2014a,b) investigate the interplay between tourist knowledge, risk perception and destination choice more closely. They found that subjective knowledge, a feeling of self-confidence in one's knowledge about a destination, and risk perception are negatively correlated. In contrast to this, objective knowledge, the actual knowledge about a destination, is not significantly related to risk perception in a tourism context. The more tourists travel internationally, the more likely they will have experienced risky situations, achieved adequate coping skills and thereby react differently to risk.

Past research is not able to answer the question if prior visitation of a destination leads to a lower level of perceived risk of a bigger geographical region or a specific destination. Williams and Baláž (2014, p. 4) encourage an interesting question in the context of travel experience and risk perception: "has travel experience made individuals risk tolerant, or was the initial predisposition to travel selectively influenced by risk tolerance?". A study by Hajibaba et al. (2015, p. 49) on crisis-resistant tourists, tourists with low risk avoidance tendencies who "tend to absorb risks instead of engaging in risk avoidance strategies" and wide experience with international travelling, proceeds on the assumption that these tourists have a stable risk propensity that influences their travel behaviour. However, past research has not been able to fully explain whether travelling reduces risk perception

through the improvement of coping strategies or whether risk perception is more stable and independent from external influencing factors.

Tourist attributes as influencing factors of risk perception

Tourist attributes as influencing factors of risk perception: Personality traits

Destination choice studies often include personality traits as determinants, which influence the outcome of destination choices. Past research demonstrates that the personality trait sensation seeking, a "generalized tendency to seek varied, novel, complex, and intense sensations and experiences and the willingness to take risks for the sake of such experiences" (Zuckerman, 2010, p. 1545), is particular important in the context of risk perception and destination choice. Zuckerman's Sensation Seeking Scale is adapted for several studies from tourism research (Pizam et al., 2004; Lepp & Gibson, 2008; Fuchs, 2013). While Zuckerman's (1971) concept of sensation seeking helps to understand risky behaviour generally, only experience seeking, one of the four factors of sensation seeking (i.e. Thrill and Adventure Seeking, Experience Seeking, Disinhibition, Boredom Susceptibility) explicitly refers to travelling. People with a high sensation seeking tendency are not attracted by risk but are more willing to take risks in order to gain sensation as a reward. So far, it is however not clear how and to what extent sensation seeking and risk perception are related in terms of tourism. A negative correlation between sensation seeking and social risk perception was found by Fuchs (2013), while high and low sensation seekers in Lepp and Gibson's (2008) study do not differ significantly in their perception of risk but in their travel intentions concerning destinations with a specific level of perceived risk. The concept of sensation-seeking implies that risk may be a bonus of travelling or a travel motivator for some tourists (Adam, 2015), a view of risk in tourism that has not been studied extensively. Research such as studies from Fuchs (2013) on Israeli backpackers or Hajibaba et al. (2015) on crisis-resistant tourists can be seen as a starting point in this research area.

Tourist attributes as influencing factors of risk perception: Nationality

A considerable amount of tourism research literature has been published on differences in risk perception caused by the nationality or the cultural background of a tourist (Fuchs and Reichel, 2004; Pizam et al., 2004; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006; Kozak et al., 2007; Seabra et al., 2013). In an exploratory study, Fuchs and Reichel (2004) investigate how cultural background and nationality influences the perception of various risk factors concerning the destination Israel and the choice of risk reduction strategies. Their results demonstrate that highly significant differences between nationalities exist in the perception of human-induced risks (e.g. terrorism, crime, political unrest), financial risks and overall risk in Israel. Not only differences between the levels of perceived risks are found but also risk categories are evaluated differently. While Fuchs and Reichel (2004) include the distinctiveness of the destination Israel with its religious relevance as a relevant factor in this destination choice, other influencing factors such as motivation for the trip are not further observed. However, the concentration on one single destination with specific travel motives for the visit of this destination (e.g. pilgrimage) complicate more general statements concerning risk (perception) and destination choice. Another example incorporating nationality provides the cross-cultural study by Pizam et al. (2004) in eleven countries that investigates the influence of risk-taking and sensation-seeking on travel behaviour. People from different countries and thus diverse cultural backgrounds vary significantly in their perception and evaluation of risks. A study of Kozak et al. (2007) investigates the impact of risk related to safety or security on destination choices and explores differences between nationalities with low and high levels of uncertainty avoidance according to Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Their results indicate that nationalities do not only differ in regard to types of risk but also in the assessment of how likely and how severe a safety or security event will occur.

Not only nationality or cultural background itself but also familiarity of a destination (Karl, Reintinger, & Schmude, 2015), for example due to a high similarity between host and guest culture, play an important role in destination choice. Reisinger and Mavondo (2005, 2006) focus their studies on tourists' risk perceptions on differences between national (same cultural background) and international (different cultural background) tourists or tourists from nationalities with different uncertainty avoidances. They detect that national tourists perceive travel risks in their home country to be lower than international tourists and that nationalities vary significantly in their risk perceptions. Seabra et al. (2013) investigate

influencing factors of risk and safety perceptions achieve similar results. Their types of international tourists differ significantly according to the national background, income, travel motives and crime experience. Moreover, not only differences between national and international but also inter- and intraregional tourists are important which is underlined by macro perspective studies such as Fleischer and Buccola (2002) or Morakabati (2013). A study on tourist demand in Israeli hotels from international and national tourists indicates that foreign demand reacts stronger to risk than domestic demand (Fleischer & Buccola, 2002). Morakabati's (2013) analysis of secondary data on tourism flows in the Middle East further shows that interregional tourism is more affected by safety and security events than intraregional tourism. Tourists from the same region may perceive a lower level of risk because of cultural proximity (e.g. language, religion, traditions) and extended knowledge on destinations from the same region.

Tourist attributes as influencing factors of risk perception: Sociodemography

Previous research into the question whether sociodemographic variables such as gender and age are influencing factors of risk perception is inconsistent and contradictory. According to Sönmez and Graefe (1998a,b), no relation exists between the demographic variables age, gender and risk perception. Similar conclusions are drawn from a study by Mäser and Weiermair (1998) that applies perception of various risk factors as dependent and independent variable. Their results suggest that while risk perception influences decision-making (and consequently destination choice), it is not influenced by tourist (e.g. gender, age) as well as travel-related characteristics (e.g. length of travel). However, no detailed information on which risk factors influence decision-making or how risk perception is operationalised is given which complicates the comparison to other studies. The relative small sample size in this study could also explain lack of significance. Reisinger and Movando (2006) reach contrasting conclusions and detect a correlation between age, gender and risk perception. However, this correlation is limited to certain subcategories of risk perception. Pizam et al. (2004) demonstrate that gender but not age influences perception, evaluation and behaviour in regard to risk. Their results should be considered carefully due to the fact that only students from the field of tourism and hospitality were interviewed. Differences in

age are therefore difficult to detect as all respondents are part of the same age group. According to Lepp and Gibson's (2008) study, gender is not significant in regard to terrorism risk but in regard to strangeness of food in a destination. This implies that gender does not influence risk factors that threaten someone's life but does have an impact on risk factors which could disrupt a holiday. In a survey on determinants of perception of natural as well as general risk and the relation to travel behaviour, Park and Reisinger (2010) detect that female tourists perceive both types of risk to have a greater impact than male tourists.

Age can furthermore be seen as one indicator for the tourists' current phase of life. The components familial and marital status as well as qualification and income are other relevant indicators for phase of life. A strong determinant of risk perception regarding the phase of life is the question whether or not children, especially young children under six years, are participating in the trip (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992). The assumption is that tourists travelling with young children have a specific perception of risk and make destination choices based on different criteria than tourists who travel alone. For example, Roehl and Fesenmaier's (1992) risk typology based on three dimensions of risk perception proves that functional risk tourists (i.e. tourists with a medium risk perception who concentrate on organisational risks) are more likely to be travelling with young children than the other risk types. Functional risk tourists could have a lower level of perceived risks before the phase of travelling with young children and return to the former level of risk perception later in life. Longitudinal studies accompanying tourists from pre- to post holiday with young children would help to clarify this assumption.

Although income and education are two variables which are in many cases highly interwoven, results in regard to risk perception are contradictory. While income is not always a significant explanatory variable, most studies agree on the influence of educational level on risk perception.

Educational attainment is negatively correlated with risk perception (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a; Park & Reisinger, 2010). Higher educated tourists perceive the influence of risk on travel intention in general lower, particularly some risk factors such as social risks (Park & Reisinger, 2010). This result is confirmed by a study from Thapa et al. (2013) on the influence of natural hazards on tourism and how tourists react to such natural hazards. They identify

three tourist types with varying levels of perceived risks that show significant differences according to education and income. In this study, tourists with a lower level of education and higher income tend to perceive a higher level of risk. It is difficult to explain the contradictory results of income as an influencing factor. A reason may be that income is not highly correlated to educational level in some countries and depends on many external factors, regarding for example the political environment. For studies on destination choice, it might therefore be more suitable to use travel expenses (proportional to income) as an indicator for wealth but also for personal significance of travelling in respondents' lives.

Many different interconnected internal and external factors play a role in destination choice which impedes the investigation of an isolated factor such as risk perception. Past research on determinants of risk perception is ambivalent but nevertheless indicates that several factors concerning the tourist such as age should be considered, at least to eliminate them as indirect influencing factors of destination choice.

Discussion and conclusion

Although travel decision-making and destination choices are determined by internal (i.e. individual, socio-psychological characteristics of tourists; Decrop, 2006) and external factors (e.g. destination attributes such as climate), most past research has mainly concentrated only on the tourist and not the destination. While the tourist side is important as tourists process external factors differently depending on the specific structure of their internal factors (Dreyer et al., 2001), the destination side should also be included to produce a more realistic total picture of destination choice in the context of risk. In fact, destination-specific risk was found to be one of the strongest influencing factors of destination choice (Sharifpour et al., 2014a).

Neither tourist nor destination attributes influence destination choice in an isolated way, however, the interaction between both sides is not (yet) at the core of studies. An exemption is Plog's (1974, 2001) psychographic tourist typology which considers tourists' needs for familiarity and the level of familiarity offered by destinations. Karl et al. (2015) operationalise this concept and develop a destination index to empirically investigate tourists' destination choice processes in regard to familiarity. They found that certain tourists consider familiar and safe destinations for their holidays while others prefer less familiar and sometimes unsafe destinations which offer a feeling of novelty or adventure. This implies that the latter tourists may perceive a destination as risky but that is not an obstacle for travelling there and probably even a travel motivator.

The separate analysis of some influencing factors and the lack of consideration of the destination choice process in a broader context complicate the achievement of generalisable research results. An analysis on the role of risk and particularly of risk perception in destination choice should therefore be implemented from two perspectives: tourist attributes (i.e. characteristics, traits and other elements directly or indirectly derived from the tourist's personality) and destination attributes (i.e. specific features of a destination including the actual risk situation).

The literature review and synthesis covers a range of studies from tourism research dealing with various determinants which are investigated in the context of risk (perception) and destination choice. It can be seen as a continuation of Williams and Baláž's (2014) theoretical

reflections on risk and uncertainty in tourism since it focuses on perceptions of risk while the former article offers a more general revision of the topics risk and uncertainty. Moreover, this article mainly concentrates on the methodology and results of empirical studies on risk (perception) and destination choice to better understand the different influencing factors that are relevant for the investigation of the role of risk (perception) in destination choice processes.

The synthesis of fundamental and recent literature on the role of risk and in particular of risk perception in tourists' destination choice processes and outcomes serves as a basis for a literature-based framework (Figure 1) which can support future research on the role of risk (perception) in destination choice.

Figure 1 Literature-based research framework

[Please insert figure 1 here]

This synthesis of literature gives evidence that safety and security images as well as risk perceptions operate on the nexus between destination and tourist attributes and crucially alter destination choice processes. It moreover indicates that tourists' destination choices are not directly influenced by destination attributes, particularly in lack of personal experience, and that various forms of communicated information operate as a filter or modifier between tourists' perceptions and the actual situation in a given destination. This interaction often entails aspects of framing theory in the communication and reception of information through the media. The analysis of media frames (i.e. selection and promotion of particular aspects to generate a certain interpretation of a situation; Entman, 1993) could contribute to a better understanding of the role of media in destination choice, in particular in terms of risk (perception).

The literature review and synthesis has furthermore addressed commonalities and inconsistencies in past research on the role of risk (perception) in destination choice. Some contradictions, contraries and gaps can partly be explained by the multitude of methodologies (e.g. operationalisation of risk perception), survey settings and sample compilations. Question wording, questionnaire structure and items included in the

questionnaire are important variables to be considered while interpreting results from quantitative surveys based on questionnaires.

Risk perception is operationalised in various ways in past studies. Some surveys concentrate on how strong respondents perceive risk to be an influencing factor in destination choice, while others assess the level of perceived risk or perception of the probability and severity of an outcome related to risk while travelling or at a destination. Another variation is the geographical reference regarding risk perception. Risk perception is attributed to destination(s) or region(s) as well as to (international) travelling generally.

The variety in the selection of risk factors or risk categories as potential risk generators such as terrorism or criminality is another aspect that explains inconsistencies of research results (e.g. varying significance of socio demographics as influencing factor). Neither operationalisation of risk perception is preferable to others but the way of structuring a questionnaire, wording of questions and reference in risk perception should be taken into consideration more closely. Future research could expand quantitative studies for more qualitative approaches which could help to answer doubts in this context.

Other aspects to be considered during the interpretation of research results are the setting or design of the survey (e.g. location or timing of interviews) or the composition of the sample (e.g. tourist vs. resident). The studies which were analysed in this literature review interviewed respondents at international airports, attractions at the destination or in the home country. While surveys at the airport enable researchers to target tourists to or from specific destinations and allow relatively long questionnaires in the waiting areas, they exclude certain groups of tourists (e.g. national tourists travelling by car). In terms of risk perception this is problematic since research highlights that national and international tourists vary significantly in their perceptions of risk (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005). Non-flight tourists may have a higher risk perception and therefore choose not to fly. Surveys at important tourist attractions might focus stronger on tourists with a cultural interest and not recreation tourists, visitors of friends and family or repeat visitors who have already visited main attractions in the past.

The timing of interviews is another important aspect which influences research on risk perception and destination choice. During the travel decision-making process and especially during the trip itself, tourists actively and passively acquire new information from various sources and this changes the basis for their future destination choices. Tourists will react if they perceive the risk as being too high, for example choosing an alternative destination or, after completion of the destination choice, by cancellation of the trip (Mansfeld, 2006). Both risk reaction strategies can then be investigated in studies on an aggregated level since they reflect in the tourism flows into affected destinations. In past studies, tourists are interviewed before the holiday (before, during or after the destination choice) in the home country, at arrivals before or departures after a holiday at the airport or during a holiday at the destination. Tourists at different stages of the destination choice process may vary in their risk perception since the importance of inhibitors such as risk as decision criteria and hence the presence of risk factors in tourists' minds increases by the end of the destination choice process (Um & Crompton, 1992). Moreover, tourists' experiences and impressions of a destination in general and in regard to risk are more vivid at the destination but this memory will fade over time. Information from other sources (e.g. media representations) starts to mingle with personal experiences after a holiday and will have a growing importance in destination choices. Research like Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty's (2009) study on risk perception in regard to Thailand is particularly interesting as it was conducted while the destination was affected by terrorism and health risks and moves to a non-hypothetical level. Other examples which incorporate this aspect are Fuchs and Reichel's (2011) or Fuchs et al.'s (2013) investigation of Israeli tourists' risk perceptions and rationalisation strategies in Sinai. A different option to investigate non-hypothetical behaviour is applied by Lepp and Gibson (2008) who measure risk perception using past destination choices (i.e. tourists are classified according to their most risky destination) as a reference point.

Another limitation of past studies on the role of risk (perception) in destination choice is causation. By not integrating trip specific characteristics, causal links between risk perception, destination choice and other variables can be misinterpreted. Some factors might not play an important role in the context of risk and risk perception at first but

indirectly through other variables. The theoretical framework (Figure 1) is therefore extended for other reciprocally linked determinants. It seems possible that trip specific characteristics operate as intermediary between risk perceptions as well as safety and security images and destination choice.

An example for trip specific characteristics is the type of planned holiday. Someone who is choosing a destination for a sea-sand-sun all-inclusive holiday has other safety and security demands than someone who is choosing a destination for a backpacking holiday. While the first tourist can assign safety and security concerns to travel agencies and tour operators, the second tourist is responsible for his/her own safety and security which requires for example a better knowledge about the destination (e.g. places to avoid, up-to-date travel information). Hence, even if both tourists have a similar level of risk perception, the outcome of their destination choices will still be different since the chosen type of holiday may not be suitable for the destination.

Besides the type of holiday, other trip specific characteristics which have been proven to be linked to risk perception are: length of trip; travel party composition (i.e. size, presence of young children); travel motive; and type of accommodation (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992). Tourists going on a holiday to visit or stay with friends or family members have a lower level of perceived risk than other tourists (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992). The direct contact to people at the destination enables gathering the latest information on safety and security issues which could counterbalance distorted media images. Another argument is that no real substitution for a destination where friends or family members live exists for the tourist. In order to fulfil the wish to visit friends or family members, tourists may trivialise safety and security. Fuchs et al. (2013) found that this risk reduction strategy is also applied by tourists to high-risk destinations.

Closely linked to travel motives are tourists' preferred types of activities at the destination which should be included in trip specific characteristics in future studies. Cohen's (1972) tourist roles (i.e. organised mass tourist, individual mass tourist, explorer, drifter) state that tourists who are looking for familiarity while travelling, are indirectly avoiding uncertainty or risk arising from unknown or novel experiences and places. The multidimensionality of risk (perception) and the variety of determinants of destination choice should be integrated in

research on the role of risk (perception) in destination choice, instead of one-dimensional research focusing on separate influencing factors. The combination of data on destinations with tourists' risk perception as well as safety and security images as suggested in the literature-based framework may offer an initiation for future studies. Qualitative research methods, accompanying tourists throughout their destination choice process, could furthermore help providing a better insight into causation in the destination choice process.

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Figure 1 Literature-based research framework

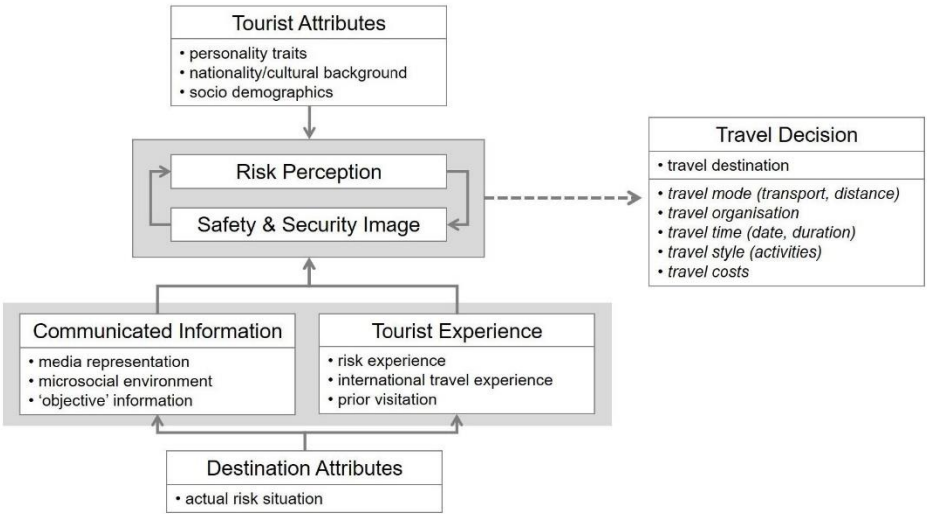

Table 1 Risk factors concerning (international) travelling

Risk Factor	Definition
Functional	Possibility of mechanical, equipment or organisational problems while travelling internationally
Physical / health	Possibility of physical danger, injury or illness while travelling internationally
Financial	Possibility that the vacation will not provide value for the money spent
Social	Possibility that the vacation will affect others' opinion of the tourist
Psychological	Possibility that the vacation will not reflect the tourist's personality or self-image
Time	Possibility that the vacation is a waste of time
Satisfaction	Possibility that the vacation does not to provide personal satisfaction
Political instability	Possibility to be affected or injured by any form of political instability while travelling internationally
Terrorism	Possibility to be affected or injured by an act of terrorism while travelling internationally

Based on Roehl and Fesenmaier, 1992; Sönmez and Graefe, 1998b; Pizam and Smith, 2000; Fuchs and Reichel, 2006.