

CAUGHT IN A CRISIS: INTERNATIONAL TRAVELERS' LIKELIHOOD OF SOCIAL
MEDIA USE

By

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To my parents, Tip and Nancy Schroeder, and my sister, Amanda Schroeder, who have offered their constant support

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	one-way analysis of variance
CVB	local tourism office
DMO	destination management organization
ICT	information communication technologies
IDV	individualism
IVR	indulgence
LTO	long-term orientation
MANCOVA	multivariate analysis of covariance
MAS	masculinity
PDI	power distance index
SCCT	situation crisis communication theory
STO	state tourism office
UAI	uncertainty avoidance index
WWW	world wide web

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While research has examined the role of social media during a crisis, fewer studies have examined the behaviors of at-risk populations, such as tourists, during a crisis. To assess the drivers of international tourists' likelihood of social media use during a crisis, an international survey of 2,416 tourists was conducted. The tourists originated from the top emerging growth markets of the international segment of the U.S. tourism industry (China, Brazil, South Korea, India, Australia), as identified by the Office of Travel and Tourism Industries (2010b). The purpose of this study was to explore the impacts of past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months, cultural differences, and demographics (age, gender, marital status) on the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year, the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the U.S., and the likelihood of turning to social media to seek information if a crisis were to occur while traveling.

This study found that drivers of social media use in the event of a crisis for international travelers were past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past year, cultural differences, age, and marital status. On the other hand, gender was not found to influence the likelihood that an international tourist would turn to social

media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling. Interestingly, the likelihood to travel to the United States in the next year was influenced by cultural differences, past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past year, age, and marital status. Furthermore, past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past year, cultural differences, age, and marital status significantly impacted the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States.

It was suspected that the likelihood to travel to the United States in the upcoming year influenced the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring and the likelihood of turning to social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling. As a result, the likelihood to travel was treated as a moderator. Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) revealed that there were significant interaction effects between the likelihood to travel to the U.S. in the next year and cultural differences, age, and past international travel experience for the twelve crisis/risk items associated with the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. and the likelihood to turn to social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling. Implications and suggestions for future research are discussed.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

International Tourism

Tourism is the largest and most rapidly emerging industry in the world with more individuals traveling both domestically and globally than at any other moment in history (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2007). Thus, tourism is an essential sector to the economic growth at regional, national, and international levels. In 1950, international tourism arrival numbers totaled 25 million travelers, the numbers increased to 806 million travelers in 2005, with international tourism contributing \$680 billion to the world's economy (United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 2010). In 2009, export earnings from international tourism equaled \$852 billion (UNWTO, 2010). Additionally, in numerous developed and developing countries, tourism is among the top three economic sectors (Goeldner, Ritchie, & McIntosh, 2000). According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (2010), the economic impacts of the tourism industry "equals or even surpasses that of oil exports, food products or automobiles," as a result, tourism is a key industry in international commerce.

The United States has the second largest share of international tourists, following only France (ITA Office of Travel & Tourism Industries, 2010a). In 2009, international tourism arrivals to the U.S. equaled over 54.9 million international tourists who spent a total of \$121.1 billion (Visa, 2010). According to the Office of Travel and Tourism Industries (2010a), international travel was the leading services sector export in America, representing 24% of total service exports in 2009. Tourism totals 2.8% of the U.S.'s gross domestic product and accounts for 7.8 million jobs (ITA Office of Travel & Tourism Industries, 2010d).

While the U.S. ranked second in market share of international travelers, it ranked first in tourism spending in 2009. Not accounting for traveler fares, the U.S. had 10.6 market share of spending, almost twice that of the next-ranked Spain. Of the approximately \$120 billion spent by foreign tourists in 2009, \$94 billion was spent in the country and \$26 billion was spent on air fares through U.S. airlines. The international market has a great economic impact, especially since international tourists tend to spend more money per person than domestic travelers. While foreign tourists represent just 4% of total tourists in America, they represent 17% of overall tourism-related spending (ITA Office of Travel & Tourism Industries, 2010a).

Though the U.S. welcomed 55 million international tourists in 2009 (ITA Office of Travel & Tourism Industries, 2010d), these numbers reflected a decrease of 5% from record breaking figures in 2008 and total tourism spending declined by 15%. In a report on Visa card transactions of international visitors to the U.S., the decreased spending trend of 2009 reversed during the first six months of 2010 (Visa, 2010). Visa (2010) reported an overall increase of 20% in spending from 2009 to the beginning of 2010, while particular contributors to U.S. international tourism spending experienced far greater results. The following emerging markets increased spending between 2009 and the first half of 2010: China (74%); Brazil (73%); Australia (44%); and South Korea (39%). The improved spending trend demonstrates that South America and the Asia Pacific region may be rebounding faster from a tough global economy (Visa, 2010). Additionally, the Office of Travel and Tourism Industries (2010b) forecasted the following increases in international tourist arrivals to the U.S. between 2010 and 2015: China: 356%; Brazil: 198%; South Korea: 171%; India: 123%; Australia: 78%. As the

U.S. and the world continue to cope with the financial crisis, it is important to understand these opportunities for growth and to gain further insight into the behaviors and perceptions of travelers originating from these emerging markets.

Tourism Crisis Management

In addition to the global financial crisis of 2010, the tourism industry is susceptible to a wide array of crises. Nature-induced crises include natural disasters (i.e. hurricanes, blizzards, and earthquakes), while human-induced crises may include political instability. Crises, ranging in types and severity, are on the rise globally (Drabek, 2009). In fact, some researchers suggest that the rapid growth of the industry has exacerbated this vulnerability (Drabek, 1995; Murphy & Bayley, 1989).

As an area of human activity, tourism is no less prone to disasters than any other. Indeed, it has been suggested that the increased volume of global tourism activity has combined with the attractiveness of high-risk exotic destinations to expose tourists to greater levels of risk. (Faulkner, 2001, p. 136)

Economies depend on tourism for development and survival to such a great degree that a crisis could have devastating, potentially long-term, effects on destinations and national economies (Tourism Crisis Management Institute, 2010a). Ritchie (2004, p. 670) proposes that “this puts increasing pressure on managers and planners concerned with tourism to consider the impact of crises and disasters on the industry and develop strategies to deal with the impacts to protect tourism and society in general.”

Kash and Darling (1998) suggest that organizations should no longer question if a crisis will occur, but should instead consider when a crisis will occur, the type of crisis, as well as the organization’s level of preparedness to cope with a crisis. Faulkner (2001)

added that all of the tourism destinations in the world are confronted with the essential confidence of potentially encountering a disaster of some variety at any given time.

Researchers have suggested that not only is the tourism industry at risk in the event of a crisis, tourists are vulnerable as well (Phillips & Morrow, 2007). There are numerous reasons that tourists are a vulnerable population.

Tourists themselves are often more vulnerable than locals in disaster situations because they are less familiar with local hazards and the resources that can be relied on to avoid risk, and they are less independent. (Faulkner, 2001, p. 142)

When warning messages are issued, tourists also may not be able to respond in an appropriate manner. Not behaving in an appropriate manner often happens because tourists are in “vacation mode,” they are away from the support system of their home community, and they are not familiar with their surroundings while on vacation (Burby & Wagner, 1996; World Tourism Organization, 1998).

A particularly vulnerable subpopulation is international tourists. International tourists may lack the communication skills needed to decipher warning messages. Also, international tourists may not be aware of potential risks at the destination, as the risks may not be pertinent at home. For instance, travelers from the Middle East may not be aware of the potential for a hurricane to occur in Florida because hurricanes are not a risk to the Middle East region. Tourists also may not be aware of the appropriate channels for seeking information during a crisis, as well. There are still questions related to tourists' travel behaviors, particularly those related to behaviors in times of crisis. Gaining a better understanding of these behaviors is essential to developing improved tourism crisis management plans.

In this post 9/11 world, crisis planning and preparedness are critical to minimizing the impact of crises on both the tourist and the tourism organization. Also, awareness of the need to be prepared in case a crisis occurs has been raised due to the visible increase in catastrophes in recent years. In fact, a study by The Harris Poll found that a majority of Americans perceive that the occurrence of natural disasters, particularly those with devastating effects, has increased (eTurboNews, 2011). Furthermore, news coverage of crises has been found to influence individual's risk perceptions and these perceptions can potentially supersede actual conditions (Sönmez, 1998).

Crisis Response Theories

Public relations literature has often examined responses to organizational crises. Situation Crisis Communication Theory (SCCT), based on Attribution Theory, suggests that people will assign attribution after crises (Coombs, 1995). Knowledge of past crises can effect perceptions of key publics during a new crisis (Coombs, 2004). More specifically, "Attribution Theory posits that people make judgments about the causes of events based upon the dimensions of locus, stability, and controllability" (Coombs, 1995, p. 448). Locus control can be internal or external (McAuley, Duncan, & Russell, 1992; Russell, 1982; Wilson, Cruz, Marshall, & Rao, 1993), while stability references whether the cause is preexisting and always present or if the cause changes over a period of time. Controllability is determined by whether the organization had an effect on the cause of the crisis or if it was not within the organization's control (Russell, 1982; Wilson, Cruz, Marshall, & Rao, 1993). Ultimately, attribution effects messages and SCCT explains how to select crisis response strategies to mitigate attributions. An integral component of SCCT is the use of instructing information. Under instructing information, organizations affected by a crisis are to tell key publics what actions the

organization is taking to prevent a similar crisis in the future and what the key publics can do to defend themselves from the crisis (Bergman, 1994; Sturges, 1994).

According to SCCT, the first step in assessing crises is to identify the crisis type. “A crisis type is a frame used to guide interpretations of the situation” (Coombs, 2004, p. 269). Crisis clusters are identified based on attributions of crisis responsibility (Coombs, 2007). Several crisis types coordinate with each crisis cluster. The crisis clusters identified by Situation Crisis Communication Theory are victim, accidental, or intentional crisis cluster (Coombs, 2007). Definitions for the crisis types, categorized under each crisis cluster, are provided in Table 1-1.

Table 1-1. Crisis types definitions and cues (Coombs, 2004, p. 270)

<p>Victim crisis cluster</p> <p><i>Natural disaster:</i> Acts of nature that damage an organization such as an earthquake. Some environmental/weather event impacts the organization.</p> <p><i>Rumors:</i> False and damaging information about an organization is being circulated. Evidence that the information is false.</p> <p><i>Workplace violence:</i> Current or former employee attacks current employees onsite. An employee or former employee injures or attempts to injure current employees.</p> <p><i>Product tampering/malevolence:</i> External agent causes damage to an organization. Some actor outside of the organization has altered the product to make it dangerous.</p>
<p>Accidental crisis cluster</p> <p><i>Challenges:</i> Stakeholders claim an organization is operating in an inappropriate manner. There is a public challenge based on moral or ethical, not legal, grounds.</p> <p><i>Technical error accidents:</i> A technology or equipment failure causes an industrial accident. The cause of the accident is equipment/technology related.</p> <p><i>Technological error recalls:</i> A technology or equipment failure causes a product to be recalled. A product is deemed harmful to stakeholders. The cause of the recall is equipment or technology related.</p>
<p>Intentional crisis cluster</p> <p><i>Human error accidents:</i> Human error causes an industrial accident. The cause of the accident is a person or people not performing job properly.</p> <p><i>Human error recalls:</i> Human error causes a product to be recalled. A product is deemed harmful to stakeholders. The cause of the recall is a person or people not performing job properly.</p> <p><i>Organizational misdeed:</i> Laws or regulations are violated by management or stakeholders are placed at risk by management. Members of management knowingly violate laws/regulations or offer a product or service they know could injure stakeholders.</p>

The next step of Situation Crisis Communication Theory is to identify crisis intensifiers, which can raise the level of the crisis type. Crisis intensifiers include crisis

history, relationship history, and the severity of the crisis. Based on the intensifiers, the original threat assessment is altered (Coombs, 2004). For example, a crisis that was initially within the victim cluster could intensify into the accidental cluster because of a past history of crises.

Strategies for crisis response are determined by the organization's intentions for changing perceptions, either related to the crisis itself or the organization that has experienced the crisis (Coombs, 2006b). Four postures are used to categorize similar strategies. The denial posture includes the following strategies: attacking the accuser, denial, and scapegoating. Excusing and justification are strategies for the diminishment posture. Compensation and apology are strategies for the rebuilding posture. The bolstering posture includes the following strategies: reminding, ingratiation, and victimage (Coombs, 2006b).

Another useful theory for practitioners drafting key messages in response to crises is Image Repair Discourse Theory. It essentially explains how organizations can respond to crises. According to Benoit (1997, p. 178), "the key to understanding image repair strategies is to consider the nature of attacks or complaints that prompt such responses or instigate a corporate crisis." Every crisis has two components: the responsibility of an offensive act and the severity of the act (Benoit, 1997). It is important to note that in the event of a crisis, perceptions supersede reality. Additionally, "the most important question is whether the salient audience believes the act to be offensive" (Benoit, 1997, p. 178). While Image Repair Discourse Theory centers on messages to be communicated in times of crisis, there are five strategies with various tactics: denial, evasion of responsibility, reducing the offensiveness of the event,

corrective action, and mortification (Benoit, 1997). Different strategies can be combined while communicating messages to key publics. Details about each strategy are provided in Table 1-2.

Table 1-2. Image restoration strategies (Benoit, 1997, p. 179)

Strategy	Key characteristics
<i>Denial</i>	
Simple denial	Did not perform act
Shift the blame	Act performed by another
<i>Evasion of responsibility</i>	
Provocation	Respond to act of another
Defeasibility	Lack of information or ability
Accident	Act was a mishap
Good intentions	Meant well in act
<i>Reducing offensiveness of event</i>	
Bolstering	Stress good traits
Minimization	Act not serious
Differentiation	Act less offensive
Transcendence	More important considerations
Attack Accuser	Reduce credibility of accuser
Compensation	Reimburse victim
<i>Corrective action</i>	Plan to solve or prevent problem
<i>Mortification</i>	Apologize for act

Benoit (1997) stressed the need for preplanning to potentially mitigate the effects of crises. Crisis plans are essential for organizations and should be updated regularly. Further, it is important to conduct a risk assessment, as organizations can anticipate possible risks, and include plans for pertinent risks (Benoit, 1997). For example, a hotel in the Florida Keys can anticipate hurricanes to be a potential risk. Once a crisis occurs, the nature of it must be understood and key publics must be identified. When this information is obtained, the message needs to be adapted to the offense. Different messages can be tailored to diverse key publics, but there needs to be a priority to ensure that the key publics are satisfied in order of importance (Benoit, 1997).

Technology and the Tourism Industry

Technology and tourism have been linked for many years. Technological developments in the past have included Computer Reserve Systems (1970s), Global

Distribution Systems (late 1980s), and perhaps most notably the Internet (late 1990s). These technological advances have altered different aspects of the tourism industry, including industry procedures, approaches, and organizations (Porter, 2001). “If the past 20 years have seen an emphasis on technology per se, then since the year 2000 we have been witnessing the truly transformational effect of the communication technologies” (Buhalis & Law, 2008, p. 609).

Since 2000, numerous innovations have assisted in increased global interaction. Tourism, as a global industry, has adapted practices in order to interact on a global level. The Internet has provided the tourism industry the opportunity to expand, manage, and deliver their products worldwide (Buhalis, 1998). Additionally, with the speed of networks improving and advancements in search engines, tourists have embraced the Internet as a tool for planning trips (Buhalis & Law, 2008). The use of Smartphones, text messages, the Internet, and social media to share and seek information continues to gain popularity globally and increases the interactivity between the tourism industry and tourists around the globe.

An emerging trend in technological advancements is social media (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). Blackshaw (2006) defines social media as

Internet-based applications that carry consumer-generated content which encompasses ‘media impressions created by consumers, typically informed by relevant experience, and archived or shared online for easy access by other impressionable consumers.

Examples of social media platforms include blogs, virtual communities, wikis, social networks, collaborative tagging, and media files shared on sites (i.e. YouTube[®], Flickr[®]) (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). The ease of access to technology enables nearly all events today to take place in the realm of social media. For example, within an hour after a

massive earthquake triggered a tsunami off of the coast of Japan on March 11, 2011, 1,200 tweets per minute were posted from Tokyo alone (Taylor, 2011).

Social media users, in general, are more likely to be younger, educated, have a higher income, be employed full-time or be full-time students, not divorced or separated, not widowed, and Asian (Gretzel, 2010). Approximately 85% of young adults (ages 18-29) use social media sites and, of these young adult Internet users, 60% use social media sites on a daily basis (Madden, 2010). While young adults represent the largest group of social media users, middle aged and older users are emerging groups. Approximately, half of Internet users between the ages of 50 and 64 used at least one social media site in 2010, an increase from 25% in 2009 (Madden, 2010). One-in-four Internet users ages 65 and older used at least one social media site, compared to 13% in 2009 (Madden, 2010). Approximately 45% of adults ages 50 and older using social media sites logged onto the sites the day prior to the survey (Madden, 2010). The American Red Cross (2010) found that college graduates were more likely to use social media than those with “some” college education or less (78% vs. 67%) and households with children were more likely to use social media than those without children (81% vs. 67%). Research, however, does not suggest a significant difference in social media use based on travel frequency (Gretzel, 2010). While Gretzel (2010) did not find a significant difference in social media use based on gender, the Pew Internet & American Life Project, however, found that females tended to be significantly more likely to participate on social media channels (Gross, 2011).

Facebook[®], a very popular social media site, has over 750 million active users and half of the active users log on to the site on any given day (Facebook[®], 2011).

Active users spend over 700 billion minutes per month on the site (Facebook[®], 2011). Facebook[®] (2011) also reports that over 250 million, over 1 in 3, users access the site through mobile devices. Mobile users are also twice as active as non-mobile users (Facebook[®], 2011). This demonstrates the magnitude of one popular social media site.

The use of social media during travel has not been studied extensively. A majority of the research on social media in the field of tourism concerns the role of the tourism provider; the role of social media during information search and decision-making; and user-generated content concerning the travel experience. Little research has focused on tourists' potential uses of social media during the travel experience.

“The internet also increasingly mediates tourism experiences as tourists use these social media sites to portray, reconstruct and relive their trips” (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010, p. 179). It has been found that while traveling nearly 3 in 4 social media users participate on social media daily (Tripl[®], n.d.). A survey of U.S. travelers found that 59% of respondents have personal Facebook[®] profiles and 35.6% of traveling Facebook[®] users have updated their status while traveling. Travel experiences can be shared in numerous ways. First, travel experiences can be shared through uploading pictures and videos on social media channels such as Facebook[®], Twitter[®], Flickr[®], and YouTube[®]. Approximately 23% of social media users post pictures on their Facebook[®] profile while traveling and 51% do so after returning from a trip (Gretzel, 2010). Travelers may also write blog posts about their experiences or share reviews on social media sites such as TripAdvisor[®], both while on a trip and after returning from a trip.

It is imperative that research seeks to understand tourists' perceptions of social media. Gretzel (2010) found that approximately 52% of online travelers somewhat

agree or strongly agree that social media sites are more relevant and more up-to-date, while 41.6% somewhat or strongly agree that social media sites are better in catering to their needs and almost half (47.2%) somewhat or strongly agree that social media sites provide more details.

According to Xiang and Gretzel (2010), "it is critical to understand changes in technologies and consumer behavior that impact the distribution and accessibility of travel-related information." As participation in social media continues to gain in popularity and tourism organizations also embrace social media as an important information source, communication method, and marketing tool, there is a greater need for research in this area. Such research will have practical implications for the tourism industry, while also serving as one of the first empirical research studies in this area.

Linking International Tourism, Crisis Management, and Social Media

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (2010) projects tourism will continue to increase and "by 2020 international arrivals are expected to surpass 1.5 billion people." As this segment of the tourism industry expands, tourism crisis management planning is increasingly imperative. Research in this area needs to extend into tourists' behaviors during travel, as it is essential for tourism organizations to understand how tourists may behave in the event of a crisis and also how best to communicate with these tourists. As social media use becomes ever more popular, tourists' uses of social media during travel and potential uses in the event of a crisis while traveling need to be understood. In addition, crisis management plans need to include a social media component that reflects these behaviors. Social media plans should consider tourists' information search behaviors in an effort to use the best communication methods for sharing critical information with tourists.

Marketing and communication tools are essential components of tourism crisis management. During recent crises, the tourism industry has begun to use social media in an effort to communicate with tourists. While empirical research in this area is lacking, destination management organizations (DMOs) are learning how social media can be incorporated into tourism crisis management plans through first-hand experience.

On April 20, 2010, an oil rig exploded in the Gulf of Mexico and the consequential massive oil spill became a central focus of the media. VISIT FLORIDA[®], the state's tourism marketing organization, was forced to counter the misperception, which was perpetuated by the media, that oil was affecting much of the state's coastline. On May 10, 2010, VISIT FLORIDA[®] (2010) launched Florida Live in an effort to empower tourists to feel safe when choosing Florida as a travel destination. The Florida Live digital platform provided easy access to real time, credible information about how the Deepwater Horizon Oil Spill affected Florida's coastlines. Social media features of the Florida Live website include: shared images; blogs; Google Maps[™] linked to Twitter[®] feeds, Facebook[®] posts, and Flickr[®] posts; YouTube[®] videos; and live webcam footage (VISIT FLORIDA[®], 2010). Florida residents were also encouraged to upload pictures to help tourists see with their own eyes that the beaches were clean and open. The integration of social media and web cameras was revolutionary, as potential visitors were able to connect with locals and to see beach conditions at various destinations through time-stamped images. The Florida Live component of the VISIT FLORIDA[®] site was a central component of VISIT FLORIDA[®]'s crisis response and has remained post-crisis. When asked what the biggest success for countering the effects of the oil spill was, Chris Thompson, President and CEO of VISIT FLORIDA[®], responded

I'd say the thing I'm most proud of is the Florida Live section of our Web site (a site that updates regularly with photos of Florida beaches to show which ones are impacted by tar balls, and alerts about health warnings and closures). What that allows us to do is to really play on the hyper-localized aspect of the state and the local communities dealing with the oil spill. (Tiegen, 2010)

The industry has since acknowledged VISIT FLORIDA[®]'s crisis response and the launch of Florida Live as a best practice in crisis communications (DuBois, 2010), thus demonstrating a successful use of social media in tourism crisis management and the importance of conducting research in this area.

In an effort to recover as quickly as possible from Australia's worst flooding in decades and a category five cyclone, Tourism Queensland[®] launched a 10 million AUD marketing strategy; a joint investment with state and federal governments (Travel Daily UK, 2011). The goal of the campaign was to combat perceptions that the entire state was under water by consistently conveying the message that most of the state was open for business, tourists were welcome and wanted, and effected areas were on the road to recovery (Travel Daily UK, 2011). Tourism Queensland[®]'s International Director in the UK, Jane Nicholson, said that Tourism Queensland[®] used marketing and social media activities to invite visitors back to Queensland (Travel Daily UK, 2011). A "Cyclone & Flood Update" link was placed in a prime location on the Tourism Queensland[®] home page. Information about the conditions of tourist destinations was frequently updated on this page, with an emphasis on specifying the destinations that were open for business and those that were still in the process of recovering (Tourism Queensland[®], 2011). Facebook[®] and Twitter[®] were updated regularly with links to the "Cyclone & Flood Update" page on their website, travel promotions, and responses to inquiries. Tourism Queensland[®] also uploaded videos to YouTube[®] to visually

demonstrate that the tourism industry in Queensland was open for business and ready to welcome tourists. In addition, Tourism Queensland[®] visually illustrated that they were open for business through an interactive tour of North Queensland on the Internet. The tour showed recent images of the conditions at a number of tourist destinations (Tourism Queensland[®], 2011). Tourism Queensland[®] demonstrated another example of the tourism industry using social media to communicate in times of crisis.

With each crisis, it appears that social media is becoming a more integral part of crisis management. Although the tourism industry has begun adapting their crisis management strategies to include social media, as evidence by the examples provided, research focusing on the use of social media in times of crisis is rather new. Much of the current research focuses on the resident population, not transient populations, such as tourists. As technologies advance, research needs to be conducted to comprehend and disseminate the implications of these advances. There is a lack of evidence-based research to describe and explain tourists' uses of social media in the event of a crisis while traveling. It is imperative that academia, as well as the tourism industry, understand tourists' use and adoption of social media during a crisis situation in an attempt to mitigate the potential effects of crises.

Theoretical Framework

Prospect Theory

Prospect Theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979) suggests that there are two stages to risky-decision making. In the first stage, prospects are narrowed down to a number of substitutes. Next, prospects are evaluated in order to select the best option. At this evaluation stage, prospects that are deemed undesirable are eliminated (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979).

In the context of touristic decisions, prospective destinations are the prospects. Before eliminating risky destination alternatives, Prospect Theory entails an appraisal of destination alternatives according to security (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). Individuals' perceptions of risk have some bearing on the attractiveness of prospects being evaluated (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). Destination alternatives associated with gains signify a risk adverse personality, while alternatives associated with losses signify risk-seeking behavior (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). Risk seekers are apt to demonstrate less concern about safety when selecting destinations, while risk adverse people are liable to select destinations perceived as safe (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a).

The first of two phases in the choice process, according to Prospect Theory, is framing (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). According to Tversky and Kahneman (1986, p. 257), "framing is controlled by the manner in which the choice problem is presented as well as by norms, habits, and expectancies of the decision maker." The 'framing effect,' which primarily transpires when time constraints are present, consequently causes equal results to be seen as either positives or negatives (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981, 1986). Framing essentially "introduced the concept of 'context' in which decision-makers evaluate alternatives" (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a, p. 122). Sönmez and Graefe (1998a) suggested that potential tourists are apt to pick the prospect perceived as less dangerous because the framing effect produces a more extreme reaction to potential losses than to potential gains by individuals. The framing effect can be formed when external factors, such as negative word-of-mouth and exposure to media coverage, cause one of two similarly secure or risky destinations to be perceived as more secure or more risky than the alternative (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a).

Prospect Theory is integral to the theoretical framework of this study because it proposes that as decisions advance through a series of stages, they are affected by a number of factors (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). For example, internal factors (i.e. past international travel experience and cultural differences) can influence the likelihood to travel internationally. Support for this proposition can be found in Prospect Theory, a risky decision-making theory, and established frameworks of consumer and tourist decision-making.

Uses and Gratifications Theory

Uses and Gratifications Theory stems from research in the mass communication field (Eighmey & McCord, 1998; Herzog, 1944; Rosengren, 1974; Rubin, 1994). According to Luo (2002, pp. 34-35), Uses and Gratifications Theory essentially “focuses on the explanations for audience members’ motivations and associated behaviors.” Ultimately, the “uses-and-gratifications perspective asks how users’ basic needs influence users’ media choices” (Cho, de Zúñiga, Rojas, & Shah, 2003, p. 48). Basically, psychological gratification for different media is explained by motivational and behavioral dimensions (Ruggiero, 2000). Motivations influence an individual’s choice of media based on a desire to satisfy needs (Katz, Blumler, & Gurevitch, 1974). In other words, individuals use different sources of media for different purposes, based on how well they believe their needs will be met by each media source (Katz, Gurevitch, & Haas, 1973; Katz et al., 1974). Types of needs can include cognitive, affective, personal integrative, social integrative, and escapist needs (Katz et al., 1973). According to Katz, Blumler, and Gurevitch (1974), motivations related to media use can be explained by Uses and Gratifications Theory.

Numerous studies have examined Uses and Gratification Theory related to the Internet (Chen & Corkindale, 2008; Chen & Wells, 1999; Cho et al., 2003; Eighmey & McCord, 1998; Guo, Cheung, & Tan, 2008; Huang, 2008, Stafford, 2008; Ko, Cho, & Roberts, 2005; Korgaonkar & Wolin, 1999; Ruggiero, 2000). Cho, de Zúñiga, Rojas, and Shah (2003) propose that given the vast array of information available on the Internet, frequent choices can allow individuals to more easily satisfy their needs. Common needs that users seek to satisfy by accessing websites include entertainment, escape, and social interaction needs, in addition to passing time (Charney & Greenberg, 2001; Eighmey, 1997; Ferguson & Perse, 2000; Kang & Atkin, 1999; Kaye, 1998; Korgaonkar & Wolin, 1999; Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000). Although, individual online sources (i.e. email, chat rooms, blogs, social networking sites) satisfy unique needs and effect motivations differently (James, Wotring, & Forrest, 1995; Kaye & Johnson, 2004).

Recently, research has focused on new media, such as blogs and other social networking sites. In an investigation of Facebook[®] users, Joinson (2008) found dynamic uses and gratifications. Uses and gratifications found among Facebook[®] users were social connection, content, shared identities, social network surfing, social investigation, and status updating (Joinson, 2008). Raacke and Bonds-Raacke (2008) studied college students' uses of Facebook[®] and MySpace[®] and found that the most common uses and gratifications for participating on these social media sites were to keep in touch with friends (both old and current). On the other hand, motivational factors for using blogs include convenient information seeking, expression/affiliation, anti-traditional media sentiment, guidance/opinion seeking, personal fulfillment, blog ambiance, political debate, specific inquiry, and variety of opinion (Kaye, 2010).

Ruggiero (2000) suggested that when investigating individual's motives for use and what they take away from media, Uses and Gratifications Theory can be useful. For this particular study, Uses and Gratifications Theory is critical to understanding why tourists use social media sites and what they get from social media, particularly when a crisis occurs. In other words, in order to understand tourists' uses of social media, we must understand their motivations behind participation and which needs they seek to satisfy. By understanding uses and gratifications, destinations and other tourism organizations can adapt their crisis communication plans to ensure that the information that tourists' are seeking is made available via the appropriate channels in a timely manner during a crisis.

Conceptual Framework

This study was constructed based on decision-making frameworks, consumer and tourist oriented, and risky-decision making concepts. The Model of International Tourism Decision-Making Process was adapted from Sönmez and Graefe (1998a). The internal factors traveler personality type and international travel attitude were replaced with cultural differences. This adaptation was made because the study examined tourists from the top five growth markets to the U.S., as identified by the U.S. Department of Commerce (ITA Office of Travel & Tourism Industries, 2010b). The income, education, and children in household demographic factors were substituted with the marital status demographic factor. Since the study primarily focused on international tourists who have visited the U.S., the decision to travel domestically was omitted. "Absolute knowledge of terrorism and/or political instability at or near chosen vacation region or destination (gained from external sources)" was changed to "absolute knowledge of tourism crisis at or near chosen vacation region or destination (gained

from external sources).” Given that the study focused on tourism crises in general, not exclusively terrorism and/or political instability, this modification was made. The following sections of Sönmez and Graefe’s (1998a) theoretical framework were excluded from the conceptual framework of this study, as they were not congruent with the purpose and objectives of this research: possible decision outcomes; continuation with travel plans; cancellation of travel plans; and substitution of choice with safer destinations. The use of technology to seek information while traveling was added to the conceptual framework of this study, which was further categorized as traditional media (i.e. television) and non-traditional media. The use of non-traditional media then branched into the possible use of social media, followed by the frequency of use and types of social media used. These modifications were made in order to operationalize the use of social media if a crisis were to occur while traveling.

The risk factors in consumer decisions can be explained by Information Integration Theory (Anderson, 1981, 1982), which can also be utilized to explain risky decision-making. “Anderson proposed that consumers form psychophysical and value judgments according to complex decision-making steps that include need awareness, information search, evaluation of alternatives, and choice” (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a, p. 123). Subjective perceptions of physical reality characterize psychophysical judgments. Value judgments are characterized by the manner in which consumers rank products by their features to shape an inclusive image.

Impressions, evaluations, and judgments already formed of products or services (or destinations) under consideration may change if additional alternatives are added to the evaluation (an acquaintance might recommend a destination not previously considered); or new information with the potential of changing the consideration set is learned (such as recent terrorist activity at or near the destination being considered); or as a result of new information, prior to the final

choice, consumers' perceptions of an alternative change (by media coverage of a political uprising or terrorist activity at the chosen destination). (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a, p. 123)

Information Integration Theory can continue past the final decision to travel to a destination. After a vacation has been booked, prospective tourists may acquire new information, which may be negative, about the chosen destination. It is likely that the prospective tourists will incorporate the newly acquired knowledge into the decision-making process if negative information is obtained. Potential behavioral outcomes include the cancelation of travel plans (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a).

This study proposes that as decisions advance through a series of stages, they are affected by a number of factors. Support for this proposition can be found in risky decision-making theories and established frameworks of consumer and tourist decision-making (Anderson, 1981, 1982; Kahneman & Tversky, 1979; Rogers, 1975; Svyantek, Deshon, & Siler, 1991). Motivation to travel, the first stage in the proposed conceptual framework, is subject to demographic and psychographic influences and is the result of a variety of personal, social, or commercial indicators. As a result of personal experiences, individuals may already be aware of risks associated with international travel. Furthermore, awareness of risks associated with international travel may also result from exposure to external factors, which could possibly influence the remainder of the decision-making process. External factors may include media coverage, government issued travel advisories, and social interaction. Individuals decide whether or not to travel to an international destination in the subsequent stage of the decision-making process. At this stage, the propensity for international travel may hinge on a

variety of demographic (i.e. age, gender, marital status) or internal (i.e. international travel experience, cultural differences) factors (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a).

The awareness set of destinations, according to Sönmez and Graefe (1998a, p. 123), “includes those individuals have learned about incidentally or through passive or informal information search” and are frequently influenced by an individuals’ opinions of different regions or destinations. The evoked set of destination alternatives includes destinations for which the individual will actively or formally seek out information. Destinations in which the individual is undecided or inadequately informed are classified within the inert set. The third set of destinations, inept, are rejected as a result of negative opinions or perceived risks (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a).

In the subsequent stage, an information search is performed on the destinations from the evoked and perhaps the inert sets. During the information search, individuals may possibly refer to travel literature (i.e. travel guides, websites, brochures, magazines), travel advisories, and travel experts. Sönmez and Graefe (1998a, p. 125) suggest “the extent of information search is likely to depend on previous experience, risk perceptions, or the importance of the vacation.” In addition, the previously mentioned internal factors and demographic factors may influence the amount of information considered necessary. Also, the evaluation process may be affected by varying degrees of concern for safety. Often times, “destinations perceived as safe...will be considered seriously, while those perceived as risky will be rejected” (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a, p. 125). According to Sönmez & Graefe (1998a), an individual chooses the destination alternative that is considered safe and most desirable. “Potential 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).

As previously mentioned, it is likely that prospective tourists will incorporate the newly acquired knowledge from the information search stage into the decision-making process if negative information is obtained (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). The information could be acquired from external factors (i.e. travel advisories, media coverage, and social interaction). It also has the prospective to influence the outcome of the decision, more specifically the behavioral component of the decision-making process, and can validate or reject the preceding decision-making stages (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). At this point, an individual can proceed with travel plans, cancel the plans due to internal or external factors, or change the destination choice. If the individual chooses to substitute the destination choice, they will restart the decision-making process for alternative destinations. "The process of destination choice can begin again when individuals return to earlier stages, such as the evaluation of alternatives or reviewing the set of destinations considered to be safe from threat" (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a, p. 125).

Stages of the decision-making process may be affected by internal factors. For instance, past international travel experience may offer confidence for upcoming travel, in spite of individuals' knowledge of risks. On the other hand, individuals may become apprehensive about future travel as a result of past negative experiences. Furthermore, the quantity of information search may perhaps be influenced by the level of perceived risk, as Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) recognized the amount of information search as a risk reduction approach assumed by the individual. Potential tourists may demonstrate information requirements which match their risk perceptions (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a).

Also, demographic factors may have significant impacts on decision-making. Arch (1993) found that gender makes a difference even when conditions remain alike for males and females. For example, males were more interested in risk-taking behaviors than females (Arch, 1993).

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to explore international tourists' potential use of social media during a tourism crisis. Specifically, the study explores the impacts of past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months; cultural differences; and demographics (age, gender, marital status) on the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year, the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S., and the likelihood of using social media to seek information if a crisis were to occur while traveling.

Justification

The justification for this research lies in a number of reasons. To start, this evidence-based research will contribute to the academic body of literature. In academia, it contributes as one of the first studies to explore tourists' potential use of social media in the event of a crisis while on a trip. This research is also relevant to the tourism industry, as it is imperative to know what tourists would do if a crisis were to occur while at a destination. Evidence-based research concerning the use of social media during a crisis is an essential foundation for drafting a crisis management plan that includes the best methods to communicate with tourists and implementing a comprehensive plan for communication. Such research, will not only help the industry to better communicate with tourists, but also has the potential to contribute to marketing strategies and to counter losses caused by crises.

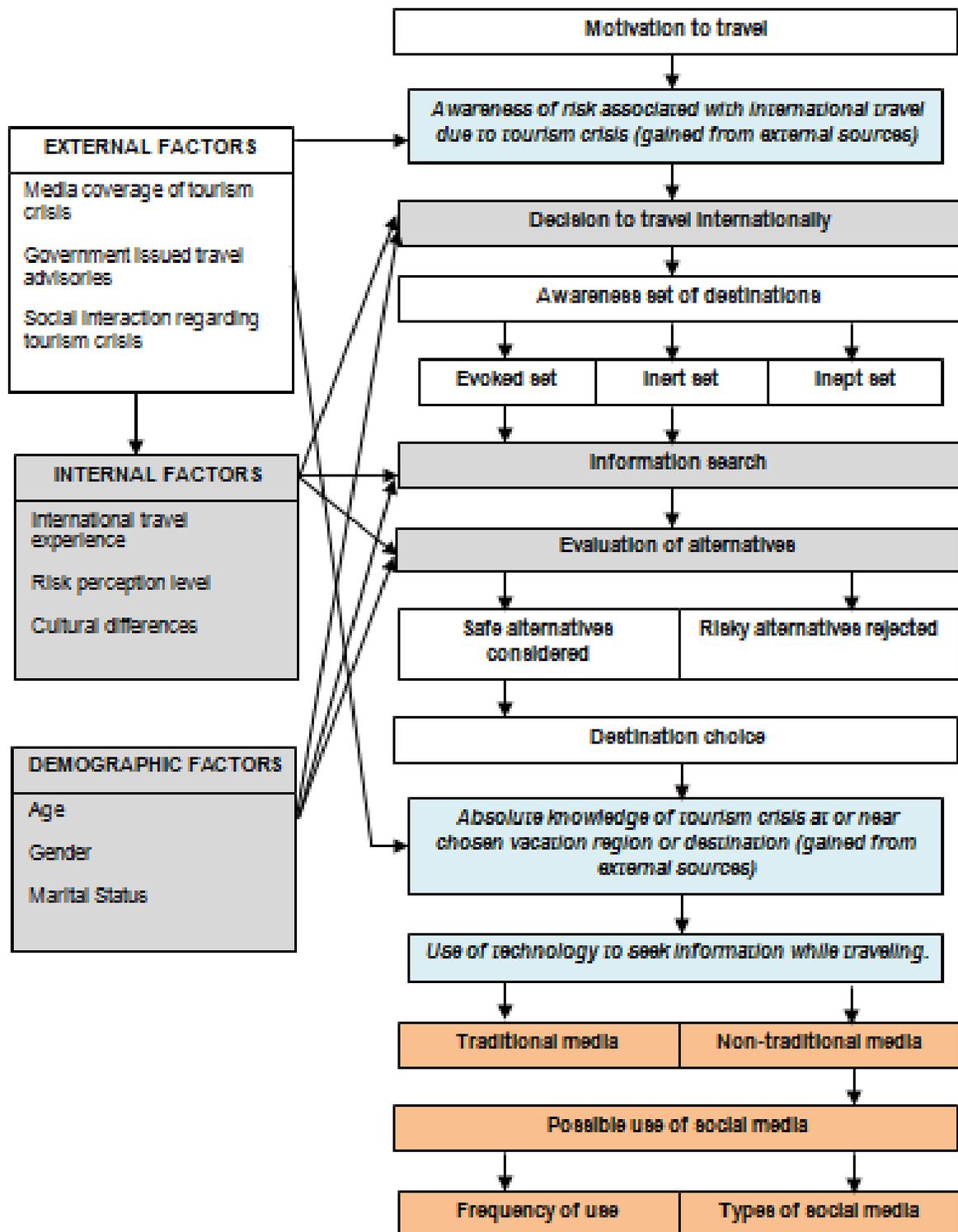


Figure 1-1. Model of International Tourism Decision-Making Process, Adapted from Sönmez and Graefe (1998a)

Research Questions

Ten research questions guided this research:

Dependent Variable: Likelihood to Travel to the U.S. within the Next Year

1. What is the relationship between past international travel experience to the United States within the past 12 months and the likelihood to travel to the United States within the next year?
2. What is the relationship between cultural differences and the likelihood to travel to the United States within the next year?
3. What is the relationship between demographics and the likelihood to travel to the United States within the next year?
 - A. What is the relationship between age and the likelihood to travel to the United States within the next year?
 - B. What is the relationship between gender and the likelihood to travel to the United States within the next year?
 - C. What is the relationship between marital status and the likelihood to travel to the United States within the next year?

Dependent Variable: Perception of the Likelihood of a Crisis Occurring during an Upcoming Trip to the U.S.

4. What is the relationship between past international travel experience to the United States within the past 12 months and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States?
5. What is the relationship between cultural differences and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States?
6. What is the relationship between demographics and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States?
 - A. What is the relationship between age and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States?
 - B. What is the relationship between gender and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States?
 - C. What is the relationship between marital status and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States?

Dependent Variable: Likelihood of Social Media Use during a Crisis

7. What is the relationship between past international travel experience to the United States within the past 12 months and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling?
8. What is the relationship between cultural differences and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling?
9. What is the relationship between demographics and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling?

- A. What is the relationship between age and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling?
- B. What is the relationship between gender and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling?
- C. What is the relationship between marital status and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling?

Overall Conceptual Model Tested

- 10. Which variable has the most influence on the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling, when controlling for the likelihood to travel to the United States within the next year?

Hypotheses

The following seven directional hypotheses were formed based on the proposed Model of International Tourism Decision-Making Process (adapted from Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a), as well as a review of the literature. Particular attention is given to the following dependent variables: the likelihood to travel to the United States within the next year, the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States, and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling. Directions of hypothesized associations have been specified in parentheses.

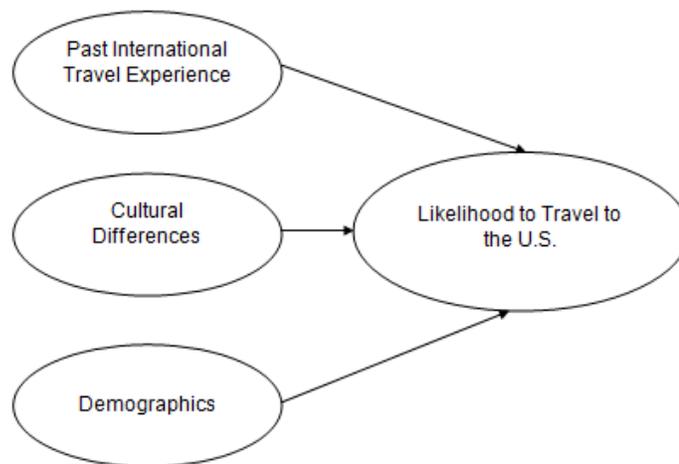


Figure 1-2. Hypotheses related to research questions 1-3

Hypothesis 1: Past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months is directly associated with the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year (*positively*).

Hypothesis 2: Age is directly associated with the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year (*inversely*).

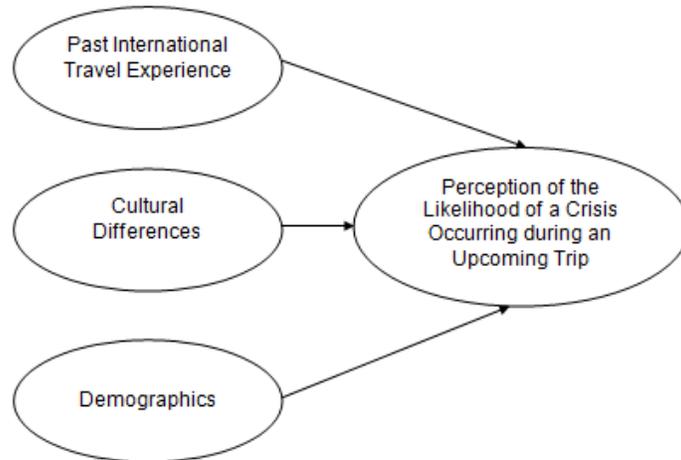


Figure 1-3. Hypotheses related to research questions 4-6

Hypothesis 3: Past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months is directly associated with the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. (*inversely*).

Hypothesis 4: Cultural differences are directly associated with the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. (*inversely*).

Hypothesis 5: Age is directly associated with the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. (*positively*).

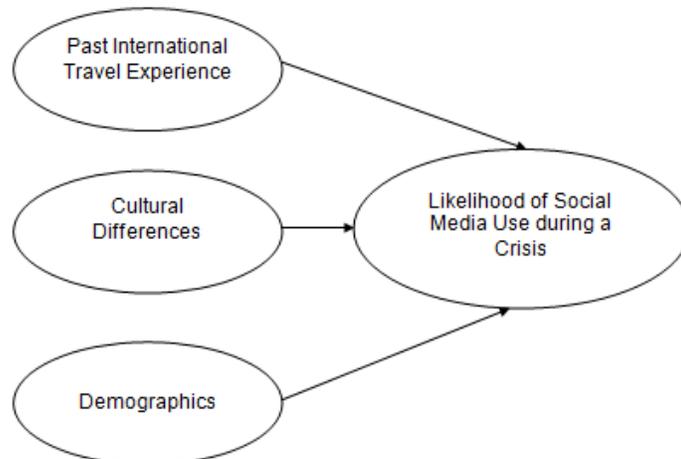


Figure 1-4. Hypotheses related to research questions 7-9

Hypothesis 6: Past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months is directly associated with the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling (*positively*).

Hypothesis 7¹: Age is directly associated with the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling (*inversely*).

Delimitations

This study was delimited to travelers from the top five emerging growth markets of the United States international tourism market, as identified by the U.S. Department of Commerce. The markets were: China, Brazil, South Korea, India, and Australia (ITA Office of Travel & Tourism Industries, 2010b). Data was collected by Mandala Research LLC. This is a delimitation of this study. As a part of a larger study collected by Mandala Research LLC, this study was also delimited to participants who have taken at least one international trip to the U.S. in the past 12 months for pleasure, holiday, or personal purposes; business or convention purposes; or combined pleasure and business purposes within the United States. This study was further delimited to respondents who spent a minimum of \$250 on shopping during their international trip to the U.S. and had a minimum annual household income of 75,000 U.S. dollars.

¹ Note: There is no directional hypothesis for Research Questions 2, 3B, 3C, 6B, 6C, 8, 9B, 9C, and 10

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter is organized into three main sections: (1) independent variables, (2) dependent variables, and (3) study rationale. In this study, the three independent variables were past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months, cultural differences, and demographics (age, gender, marital status). The dependent variables in this study were the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year, the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S., and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling. Definitions of the key terms from this chapter can be found in Appendix A.

Independent Variables

Past International Travel Experience

Pearce (1988) introduced the Travel Career Ladder, which was grounded in Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs. The Travel Career Ladder proposed that past travel experience may affect the choice of destination and roles of tourists over time. It was hypothesized that tourists with greater past travel experience sought the satisfaction of higher order needs (i.e. affiliation and esteem). Additionally, lower order needs (i.e. food and safety) were hypothesized to be of greater importance to tourists with less past travel experience. Furthermore, the Travel Career Ladder suggested that these needs would be reflected in an individual's choice of destination (Pearce, 1988).

Pearce and Stringer (1991) studied the associations between travel motivation and past travel experiences, both negative and positive. The findings of this study revealed that positive experiences and negative experiences effected motivations differently. Travelers with lower levels of past travel experiences were less concerned

with higher order needs (i.e. love, belongingness, and self-actualization) than travelers with higher levels of past travel experiences. In negative experiences, where circumstances are often stressful, lower order needs were of utmost concern to tourists. Pearce and Stringer (1991) concluded that the findings of this study confirmed the existence of a motivational career in travel.

Mill and Morrison (1984) suggested that past personal experiences and resulting generalizations of the experiences were more influential than any obtained information. This may have been, at least to a certain extent, because the need for information diminishes as decision criteria are stronger (Mill & Morrison, 1984).

Based on empirical data from a longitudinal study of a small sample of German tourists, Oppermann (1995) suggested that patterns related to tourism were likely to change over time because different generations gain different experiences. The study focused on patterns related to travel frequency, travel intensity, destination choice, and succession over three decades. Analysis of travel frequency revealed that the propensity to travel had increased over the three decades. Another trend over the three decades was that participants of this study progressively traveled greater distances. Interestingly, younger respondents tended to visit overseas destinations and travel greater distances, outside of Central Europe, than older respondents. Therefore, it was found that the younger generation had different preferences of destination choice than previous generations. Also, “the younger generation has more travel experience at younger stages of their life course than their older counterparts and may, therefore, choose completely different sets of destinations in later stages of their life-span than their predecessors” (Oppermann, 1995, p. 546).

Pearce and Lee (2005) explored the association between past travel experience and patterns of travel motivation. Interviews and surveys suggested that more experienced travelers sought motivations related to nature and host-site involvement. On the other hand, less experienced tourists prioritized the following motivations: stimulation, personal development, relationship (security), self-actualization, nostalgia, romance, and recognition. Findings suggested that both groups (more and less experienced travelers) were motivated by escape, relaxation, relationship enhancement, and self-development factors. While seeking cultural experiences was a major motivating factor for both groups, the interview and survey findings indicated that this motive intensified as past travel experiences increased. Also, younger people were more likely to have lower levels of domestic and international travel experiences, while their older counterparts were likely to have greater experience in both domestic and international travel. Thus, Pearce and Lee (2005) suggested that a higher travel experience is characterized by high levels of international and domestic travel experience and age. Furthermore, individuals in the higher travel experience group had achieved a higher education level than the lower travel experience group (Pearce & Lee, 2005).

Weaver, Weber, and McCleary (2007) examined the extent to which past travel experience and trip characteristics were associated with the evaluation of a destination, for leisure travelers to Hong Kong. The findings revealed that travel package type and the extent of countries visited were the predictor variables that were most closely associated with the differences in the destination evaluation. Specifically, service quality was rated higher for more packaged travel. Also, more experienced travelers, measured

by the number of countries visited, perceived higher levels of service quality in Hong Kong. Independent travelers to Hong Kong were more likely to express intentions to return to the destination. Results of the study suggested that past travel experience and trip parameters can have some effects on how tourists evaluate a destination (Weaver, Weber, & McCleary, 2007).

In summary, the extent of past travel experience can influence the needs that tourists seek to satisfy while traveling (Pearce, 1988). Generally, those without much past travel experience seek to satisfy low order needs, such as safety (Pearce, 1988; Pearce & Stringer, 1991). Furthermore, past travel experiences, both positive and negative, can outweigh the influence of obtained information (Mill & Morrison, 1984) and can effect tourists' evaluation of the destination (Weaver et al., 2007).

Cultural Differences

Hofstede has examined the values of IBM[®], a large multinational organization, in 67 countries and regions (Hofstede, 1980, 1983). Data was collected by psychologists inside the IBM[®] organization, with a total sample size of 11,600 IBM[®] employees. Hofstede then evaluated the distribution of responses to 32 value statements and compared the answers of an individual nation against different nations, while also comparing employees in related professions (Hofstede, 1980, 1983).

Hofstede (1984, p. 82) defines culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or society from those of another.” In essence, a person’s beliefs, values, perceptions, behaviors, and attitudes of self and others, each shaped by diverse life experiences, are reflected in culture. While culture is primarily existent in a person’s mind, it takes shape in society’s institutions and tangible products, which further strengthens and supports an individual’s beliefs. Every member

of a cultural group will not have exactly the same values, but members collectively share common values. It is crucial to understand different cultures, as dissimilarities in cultures can instigate conflicts (Hofstede, 1984). This is increasingly important in the rapidly growing tourism industry, as tourism facilitates interaction between cultures.

Hofstede (1984, p. 83) concluded that “the national differences in this material could not be due to either occupation or employer but had to be due to nationality, to the mental programmes that people brought with them when starting to work for this employer.” Further analysis revealed that four core value dimensions existed, along which the countries could be placed based on a score. This finding was indicated by the variations between countries and “the dimensions represent elements of common structure in the cultural systems of the countries” (Hofstede, 1984, p. 83). The identified four dimensions were: large v. small power distance; individualism v. collectivism; masculinity v. femininity; and strong v. weak uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 1984).

The primary focus of the individualism dimension is the level of interdependence a culture keeps among members of the society (Hofstede, 1984). Individualism is correlated with the economic development of countries, to a great degree. Countries that have more developed economies have scores close to the individualist side of the continuum. On the collectivist side, are “virtually all less economically developed countries” (Hofstede, 1984, p. 86).

How a culture deals with inequalities among individuals when they arise is the primary issue of focus for the power distance dimension (Hofstede, 1984). Hofstede (1984) found that nations that are more economically developed and nations that are less economically developed are often divided by power distance.

Hofstede (1984, p. 84) stated that “masculinity stands for a preference in society for achievement, heroism, assertiveness, and material success.” Femininity “stands for a preference for relationships, modesty, caring for the weak, and the quality of life” (Hofstede, 1984, p. 84). The primary issue of the masculinity dimension is the manner in which a culture distributes social, rather than biological, roles to each gender. Nations with developed and developing economies can be widely distributed on the continuum, showing mixed results for this dimension (Hofstede, 1984).

Compared to uncertainty accepting cultures, individuals in uncertainty avoiding cultures are more emotionally sensitive and stimulated by inner anxiety (Hofstede, 1984). Another critical difference is that uncertainty accepting cultures are more willing to allow or accept deviance, while uncertainty avoiding cultures are not willing to allow or accept deviant individuals and thoughts. The uncertainty avoidance dimension concentrates on whether a culture accepts that the future is unknown. Further, attention is given to whether a culture allows the future to happen naturally or attempts to control it. Similar to the masculinity dimension, both nations that have developed and developing economies can be widely distributed on the uncertainty avoidance continuum (Hofstede, 1984). In an international context, Hofstede (1984) suggested that the uncertainty avoidance dimension is potentially the most important because it relates to acceptance and patience for risk.

Hofstede (1994, p. 2) defined power distance as “the extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions (like the family) accept and expect that power is distributed unequally.” Individuals in a large power distance culture tolerate hierarchy and accept authority without demanding additional justification.

Conversely, power equalization is the goal for individuals in a small power distance society. If power inequality is present, individuals in a small power distance society insist on receiving justification. Additionally, any person with international experience will be conscious of the fact that while all cultures are imbalanced, some are to a greater degree than others. Therefore, we can infer that tourists with a great extent of past international travel experience are likely to be aware that cultures are different than one another. Power distance scores are correlated with imbalances of income in a society and the use of aggression and forcefulness in national politics. Different cultures fall along the continuum of power distance. For instance, developed nations have lower power distance scores. Therefore, Germany, the United States, and other Western countries have small power distance scores. In contrast, developing nations are characterized with higher power distance scores. As a result, developing nations in Asia, Africa, and Latin America have larger power distance scores than developed Western nations (Hofstede, 1994).

Table 2-1. Differences according to power distance (Hofstede, 1994, p.2)

Small power distance societies	Large power distance societies
In the family:	
Children encouraged to have a will of their own	Children educated towards obedience to parents
Parents treated as equals	Parents treated as superiors
At school:	
Student-centered education (initiative)	Teacher-centered education (order)
Learning represents impersonal "truth"	Learning represents personal "wisdom" from teacher (guru)
At work place:	
Hierarchy means an inequality of roles, established for convenience	Hierarchy means existential inequality
Subordinates expect to be consulted	Subordinates expect to be told what to do
Ideal boss is resourceful democrat	Ideal boss is benevolent autocrat (good father)

Individualism and collectivism are at differing sides of a continuum, however, the majority of cultures fall someplace in between the two ends. In an individualistic culture, "we find societies in which the ties between individuals are loose" (Hofstede, 1994, p.

2). In collectivist societies “people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups...which continue protecting them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty” (Hofstede, 1994, pp. 2-3). Individualism scores are additionally correlated with national capital and generational movement from one social class to another. Based on Hofstede’s work (1994), it has been found that collectivism exists in Eastern nations and Western nations are individualistic.

Table 2-2. Differences according to collectivism/individualism (Hofstede, 1994, p. 3)

Collectivist societies	Individualist societies
In the family:	
Education towards “we” consciousness	Education towards “I” consciousness
Opinions pre-determined by group	Private opinion expected
Obligations to family or in-group	Obligations to self:
– Harmony	– self-interest
– respect	– self-actualization
– shame	– guilt
At school:	
Learning is for the young only	Permanent education
Learn how to do	Learn how to learn
At work place:	
Value standards differ for in-group and out-groups: particularism	Same value standards apply to all: universalism
Other people are seen as members of their group	Other people seen as potential resources
Relationship prevails over task	Task prevails over relationship
Moral model of employer-employee relationship	Calculative model of employer-employee relationship

Masculinity v. femininity refers to the allocation of roles among genders

(Hofstede, 1994). Results from the IBM® studies found the following: men’s values vary more than women’s between cultures;

Men’s values from one country to another contain a dimension from very assertive and competitive and maximally different from women’s values on the one side, to modest and caring and similar to women’s values on the other. (Hofstede, 1994, p. 3)

According to this dimension, masculinity is related to assertiveness and femininity is associated with modesty and caring. Certain societies try to maintain a very high level of

social differentiation between genders, while others attempt to maintain a very low level of social differentiation between genders (Hofstede, 1994).

“Masculinity is correlated negatively with the share of gross national product that governments of wealthy countries spend on development assistance to the Third World” (Hofstede, 1994, p. 7). As a result, economic development alone is not a true indicator of masculinity. High masculinity scores can be found in Japan, Germany, Austria, and Switzerland. Reasonably high masculinity scores can be found in Anglo nations. Low masculinity scores, or more feminine scores, can be found in France, Spain, and Thailand (Hofstede, 1994).

Table 2-3. Differences according to femininity/masculinity (Hofstede, 1994, p. 4)

Feminine societies	Masculine societies
In the family:	
Stress on relationships	Stress on achievement
Solidarity	Competition
Resolution of conflicts by compromise and negotiation	Resolution of conflicts by fighting them out
At school:	
Average student is norm	Best students are norm
System rewards students' social adaptation	System rewards students' academic performance
Student's failure at school is relatively minor accident	Student's failure at school is disaster – may lead to suicide
At work place:	
Assertiveness ridiculed	Assertiveness appreciated
Undersell yourself	Oversell yourself
Stress on life quality	Stress on careers
Intuition	Decisiveness

Uncertainty avoidance refers to a pursuit for truth and relates to the acceptance of uncertainty and ambiguity in a society. Hofstede (1994, p. 5) states that it “indicates to what extent a culture programs its members to feel either uncomfortable or comfortable in unstructured situations.” Cultures that accept uncertainty tend to be more open-minded about opinions that differ from their own, attempt to minimize the number of rules, “and on the philosophical and religious level they are relativist and allow many

currents to flow side by side” (Hofstede, 1994, p. 5). Individuals in uncertainty accepting cultures are more apathetic and introspective than individuals in uncertainty avoiding cultures. Uncertainty avoiding societies attempt to prevent uncertain situations through “strict laws and rules, safety and security measures, and on the philosophical and religious level by a belief in absolute truth” (Hofstede, 1994, p. 5). Hofstede (1994) found that Roman Catholicism and the citizens’ legal requirement to hold identification documents are correlated with uncertainty avoidance. Uncertainty avoidance is mixed in Asian nations. High scores can be found in Latin nations and German speaking nations. Low uncertainty avoidance scores are present in Anglo and Nordic nations (Hofstede, 1994).

Table 2-4. Differences according to uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 1994, p. 4)

Weak uncertainty avoidance societies	Strong uncertainty avoidance societies
In the family:	
What is different, is ridiculous or curious	What is different, is dangerous
Ease, indolence, low stress	Higher anxiety and stress
Aggression and emotions not shown	Showing of aggression and emotions accepted
At school:	
Students comfortable with:	Students comfortable with:
– Unstructured learning situations	– Structured learning situations
– Vague objectives	– Precise objectives
– Broad assignments	– Detailed assignments
– No time tables	– Strict time tables
Teachers may say “I don’t know”	Teachers should have all the answers
At work place:	
Dislike of rules – written or unwritten	Emotional need for rules – written or unwritten
Less formalization and standardization	More formalization and standardization

Bond and colleagues conducted research among students in 23 countries (The Chinese Culture Connection, 1987). As a result, in 1991, the fifth cultural dimension (long-term v. short-term orientation) was added to Hofstede’s measures (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2010b). Long-term orientation, deals “with Virtue regardless of Truth” (Hofstede, 1994, p. 5). Long-term orientation values include frugality and persistence; while short-term orientation relates to satisfying cultural responsibility, reverence for

customs, and saving one's 'face' (Hofstede, 1994). The long-term orientation dimension is correlated with a nation's economic development within the previous 25 years. Long-term orientation scores can traditionally be found in Eastern Asian nations, such as China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Japan, and South Korea. Developed countries, namely Western nations, have lower scores in long-term orientation than developing countries (Hofstede, 1994).

Crotts and Erdmann (2000) studied the impact of national culture on consumer evaluations of travel services, using Hofstede's Masculinity dimension of cultural differences. Two questions guided the research:

- (1) Do international visitors from masculine cultures evaluate tourist services more negatively than visitors from more feminine cultures?;
- (2) What influence does national culture have in predicting repeat patronage and the probability of positive word of mouth?. (Crotts & Erdmann, 2000, p. 411)

Data from the U.S. Department of Commerce's Tourism Industries 1996, 1997, and 1998 *Inflight Survey of Overseas Visitors to the United States* was used in this study.

When assessing travel services, travelers from less masculine societies were less judgmental, less negative, and more loyal than more masculine societies. Masculine societies were more critical and aggressive, less loyal to airlines, and assessed airline services more negatively. Customers' overall satisfaction with the flight was best at predicting customer loyalty and defection measures (Crotts & Erdmann, 2000). Another result was that satisfaction and loyalty measures were impacted or moderated by national cultural differences. In addition, "national culture was shown to be a slightly better predictor of customer loyalty measures than customers' evaluation of the overall aircraft (Crotts & Erdmann, 2000, p. 418). A significant conclusion of this study was that national culture was a considerably better predictor of loyalty and defection measures,

compared to gender and the location of customers' seats on the airplane. The results of this study support previous research (Dann, 1993), by finding that consumer decision-making is influenced by national cultural differences, among other factors. Crofts and Erdmann (2000, p. 410) stated "it is a measurable construct, like gender and socio-economic class, that conditions how individuals interact with others and should be taken into account in our attempts to better understand consumers' needs and expectations."

Hofstede (2001) contended that measures of cultural differences are relatively constant over time and acknowledged that changes in national income influence two of the dimensions, individualism and power distance. For instance, as a country becomes wealthier, the nation becomes increasingly individualistic over time and power distances have a tendency to weaken. However, cultures transform very slowly and as one culture shifts, change occurs in all other cultures. Overall, while national cultures surely change with time, cultural differences across nations are very long-lived (Hofstede, 2001).

G.J. Hofstede (2001) investigated whether differences in nations' cultures had an effect on the penetration of communication technology, rather than just the Gross National Product (GNP) which had previously been researched. Data revealed that cultural variables, in addition to GNP per capita, foretell the rate of the adoption of communication technology. The spread of all communication technologies, excluding newspaper subscriptions, were significantly correlated with individualism and less significantly to small power distance. Particularly, the spread of established communication technologies was strongly associated with high individualism. For personal computers and mobile phones, uncertainty avoidance was negatively associated with the adoption of new technologies. Therefore, nations with strong

uncertainty avoidance scores are slow in embracing and implementing any new technology. However, “this correlation will disappear over the years, but will be transferred to the new technologies of the future” (Hofstede, G.J., 2001, p. 71).

Money and Crotts (2003) investigated the association between uncertainty avoidance and tourists’ information search behaviors, time taken for trip planning, travel party characteristics, and trip characteristics for a sample of German and Japanese born leisure travelers to the United States. The sample was further delimited to tourists between the ages of 45 and 60, who had not traveled to the United States in the past five years, and were working in managerial and professional professions. The German born group was characterized by a medium uncertainty avoidance score; on the other hand, the Japanese born group was characterized by a high uncertainty avoidance score. The medium uncertainty avoidance group searched for information through personal sources (i.e. friends and family) and travel guides, while the high uncertainty avoidance group sought information from travel agents and less significantly from all types of marketer-dominated mass media. The medium uncertainty avoidance group engaged in greatly more intense trip planning activities than the high uncertainty avoidance group. For example, the medium uncertainty avoidance group made a decision to take a trip and booked their travel much farther in advance. The high uncertainty avoidance group was much more likely to travel in groups to avoid the risk of traveling alone. On the other hand, the medium avoidance group often traveled alone and when they did travel with a group, there were less people in this group than the high uncertainty avoidance group. The high uncertainty avoidance group, in comparison to the medium uncertainty avoidance group, also engaged in significantly more behaviors

to minimize risk including purchasing more prepackaged trips with guides, traveling for three times as short of a time period, traveling with larger groups, and visiting two times fewer destinations (Money & Crofts, 2003).

Litvin, Crofts, and Hefner (2004) replicated and expanded Money and Crofts' (2003) application of the uncertainty avoidance construct in the context of international travel. First time leisure visitors to the United States, from 58 countries, were surveyed. Particular attention was given to how a tourist's level of uncertainty avoidance could possibly have an effect on their international tourism behavior. The travel behaviors of two groups, high uncertainty avoidance countries and low uncertainty avoidance countries, were compared. Travel behavior was operationalized by external search behavior, trip planning, travel party characteristics, and trip characteristics. Findings of this study were consistent with Money and Crofts' (2003) research and were extended to a broader, more culturally diverse sample. Culture influenced tourists' external vacation information search and travel patterns after a purchase decision. For instance, tourists from the high uncertainty avoidance group were more likely to have acquired information from social sources (i.e. friends and family) and travel offices and tour operators, at the state and city levels. On the other hand, tourists from the low uncertainty avoidance group were more likely to have acquired information from travel guides and marketing dominated sources. The high uncertainty avoidance, more risk adverse group, took a shorter period of time for trip planning. Litvin et al. (2004, pp. 32, 34) stated that

the greater the need to avoid uncertainty and risk the more likely a person is to place higher reliance upon travel channel members for their travel planning (tour operators, etc.) reducing their need for extended trip planning periods.

In contrast, the low uncertainty avoidance group spends additional time coordinating the details because, as Litvin et al. (2004) suggested, this group may enjoy the trip planning process. Individuals in the low uncertainty avoidance, less risk adverse, group often traveled alone and with smaller groups than those in the high uncertainty avoidance group, who bought a lot more prepackaged tours. Litvin et al. (2004, p. 34) also found that

Risk adverse High UAI respondents reported having visited fewer USA destinations, as well as having spent significantly fewer nights both in the USA and during the length of their journey as compared with the less risk adverse Low UAI respondents.

Reisinger and Crofts (2010) studied Hofstede's (1980, 2001) measures of national cultural differences in the context of tourism. To measure cultural differences, Hofstede's (1980) original Value Survey Model and Hofstede and Bond's (1988) Value Survey Model 94 were used in a questionnaire. The results of this study were compared to Hofstede's (2001) measures of cultural differences and similarities were found between the mean values of the two studies. Very little or no differences between the two studies were found for the following measures: power distance, individualism, masculinity, and long-term orientation. Although some differences were found for the uncertainty avoidance measure, the variances were not statistically significant (Reisinger & Crofts, 2010). Therefore; the validity and reliability of Hofstede's (2001) dimensions were endorsed.

A sixth dimension, indulgence v. restraint, was added in 2010 based on Minkov's analysis of World Values Survey data for 93 countries and regions (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2010b). "Indulgence stands for a society that allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human desires related to enjoying life and having fun" (Hofstede &

Hofstede, 2010b). “Restraint stands for a society that suppresses gratification of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms” (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2010b).

To date, six cultural dimensions have been identified: Power Distance Index (PDI), Individualism (IDV), Masculinity (MAS), Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI), Long-Term Orientation (LTO), and Indulgence (IVR) (Hofstede, 1980, 1983, 1986, 1991, 1994; Hofstede & Bond, 1984, 1988; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2010b; The Chinese Culture Connection, 1987). Thus far, 76 countries and regions have been analyzed based on the first four dimensions (PDI, IDV, MAS, UAI) that signify fundamentals of common structure in the cultural systems (Hofstede, 1984; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2010b). Long-term v. short-term orientation and indulgence v. restraint scores are available for 93 countries and regions, based on Minkov’s analysis of recent World Values Survey data (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2010b).

Culture can be described as an individual’s beliefs, values, behaviors, attitudes, and perceptions (Hofstede, 1984). Hofstede’s research on cultural differences is at the forefront of much research in this area. Given the international nature of tourism, it is vital to understand differences in culture as conflict may arise when dissimilar cultures interact. In the context of the tourism industry, national cultural differences have been found to be a significant predictor of loyalty and defection measures (Crotts & Erdmann, 2000). Additionally, nations’ uncertainty avoidance influences information search behaviors and travel behaviors, such as efforts to minimize perceived risks and the preference to travel alone or in a large group (Litvin et al., 2004; Money & Crotts, 2003).

Demographics

The behaviors, requirements, desires, and expectations of tourists differ significantly depending on particular demographic characteristics, such as age, gender,

income, marital status, and education (Cohen, 1972, 1979; Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002; Hamilton-Smith, 1987; Jiang, Havitz, & O'Brien, 2000; Madrigal, Havitz, & Howard, 1992; McGehee, Loker-Murphy, & Uysal, 1996; Mo, Howard, & Havitz, 1993; Pearce, 1982, 1985; Perreault, Darden, & Darden, 1977; Plog, 1974; Redfoot, 1984; Ryan, 1995a; Shoemaker, 2000; Yiannakis & Gibson, 1992). For the purposes of this study, demographics will include: age, gender, and marital status.

Dependent Variables

Likelihood to Travel

In a study of husbands of the Family Consumer Panel at the University of South Carolina, Woodside and Pitts (1976) found that travel behaviors can be impacted by an individual's lifestyle and demographics. When investigating the propensity for foreign and domestic travel, lifestyle was more influential than demographics. The respondents were classified in three different groups: non-travelers, domestic travelers, and foreign travelers. The non-traveler group was characterized by those who participated in activities oriented towards the home, such as watching television. Conversely, the domestic traveler group focused on activities outside of the home, including dining out and leisure activities such as boating. Demographic variables that characterized this group included having "children living at home, a wife with outside-the-home employment, and medium income" (Woodside & Pitts, 1976, p. 14). Foreign travelers participated in cultural activities; for example, visiting museums and going to classical concerts. This group also had a higher income than the other two groups. Foreign travelers additionally went on overnight visits and stayed at accommodations such as hotels (Woodside & Pitts, 1976).

Field (1999) investigated and compared the propensity to travel for both domestic and foreign students at a University in the Southeastern region of the United States. Domestic students were significantly more likely to travel over break than foreign students. Foreign students were more likely to use established travel services, such as a travel agent, for planning and booking travel. Additionally, within the domestic traveler group, females and undergraduates had a greater propensity to travel than males and graduate students (Field, 1999).

Perception of the Likelihood of a Crisis Occurring

The perception of the likelihood of a crisis measures the probability that an individual believes that a certain risk will become a reality, thus resulting in a crisis. Therefore, the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring is related to risk perceptions. Types of risk include, but are not limited to: financial, functional/equipment, physical, psychological, social, satisfaction, time (Cheron & Ritchie, 1982; Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Schiffman & Kanuk, 1991), health, political instability, and terrorism (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a).

Um and Crompton (1990) hypothesized that during both the development of an awareness set to an evoked set and from the evoked set stages to the ultimate destination choice, attitudes towards each substitute effected the travel destination choice. For the purposes of this study, the difference between perceived inhibitors and facilitators represented attitude. Results of the hypotheses testing revealed that attitude had an effect on the travel destination choice during the evoked set and in the selection of the final destination. Um and Crompton (1990) concluded that the findings indicated that the selection of a final destination from additional options in the awareness set can be predicted by attitude.

Hales and Shams (1991) contended that because consumers are not able to sample experiential products, these are intrinsically risky purchases. The authors argued that, as a result, consumers might require themselves to search for information through more sources and also require additional deliberation when considering the purchase of experiential products, such as international leisure travel. A sample of Gulf Arab tourists was analyzed to test these assertions. The behaviors of the sample group did not confirm the assertions. Thus, Hales and Shams (1991) explained the tourists' behavior, characterized by the trade-off of risks and benefits of novelty and familiarity, through furthering the concept of cautious incremental consumption. The tourists traveled to progressively more unfamiliar destinations, instead of lessening risk through obtaining and examining secondary information as originally suggested. The individual novelty-familiarity trade-offs and novelty-familiarity threshold of tourists were significantly related to past international travel experience. Hales and Shams (1991) also attempted to explain the general process of consumer choice for experiential products. The consumer choice model for experiential products "suggested that consumers seek both to satisfy their variety drive and to minimise the risks of unfamiliar experiences through behavioural rather than cognitive strategies" (Hales & Shams, 1991, p. 17). Therefore, consumers will base their initial purchase decisions on their past experiences and seek familiarity, and will gradually make later purchases of unfamiliar products. Based on the model, consumers based their purchase decisions for experiential products on their past and present consumption experiences and the level of perceived novelty and familiarity they associated with various substitutes (Hales & Shams, 1991).

Um and Crompton (1992) investigated the role of perceived inhibitors and facilitators in the development of an awareness set to an evoked set of destinations and the decision of a destination from an evoked set of destinations. Analysis of the hypotheses tests ultimately revealed that in the early evoked set, facilitators had the greatest effect on the possible selection of a prospective destination for the late evoked set. Conversely, in the late evoked set, inhibitors were the prominent predictors of whether an option was chosen as a final destination (Um & Crompton, 1992).

Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) researched risk perceptions related to leisure travel. Analysis revealed three types of perceived risk; namely physical-equipment risk, vacation risk, and destination risk. Further analysis, based on the three types of perceived risk, found three groups of tourists with significantly different perceptions of risk associated with leisure travel. The three groups identified were risk neutral, functional risk, and place risk. When compared with the other groups, the risk neutral group had a lower level of perceived risk. A higher level of physical and equipment risk was found for the functional risk group, as compared to the other two groups. The place risk group “perceived vacations to be fairly risky and the destination of their most recent trip to be very risky” (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992, p. 21). The planning and information search behaviors varied significantly among the three groups, suggesting that the extent of information search may be affected by the degree of perceived risk. For instance, the risk neutral group was more apt to have sought advice from a travel agent or to have made contact with a tourist office or chamber of commerce than the place risk group. Differences in variables describing the characteristics of the most recent trip and travel benefits were found among the three groups. Therefore, the study found that

relationships between risk perceptions and travel behavior appear to be situation-specific, suggesting that it may be difficult to generalize behaviors observed in the purchase of goods to travel decision making. (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992, p. 17)

In other words, risk perceptions are circumstantial and tourists in one group may focus their attention on one specific risk type more than another.

Sönmez and Graefe (1996) investigated the associations between ten types of risk and general risk perceptions of international travelers from the United States and the risk level associated with eight geographic regions and the top seven travel destinations. Empirical data revealed that the types of risk most frequently linked with international travel, by tourists from the United States, were terrorism, equipment, political stability, and satisfaction risks. This research also suggested that equipment, terrorism, and financial risks were associated with specific destinations. Sönmez and Graefe (1996) also found that equipment, political stability, satisfaction, and physical risks were associated with different geographic regions.

Maser and Weiermair (1998) examined relationships between perceived risk and information search. The types of perceived risk included risks associated with diseases, crime, natural disasters, hygiene, transportation, culture/language barriers, and uncertainty related to destination-specific laws and regulations. The findings of the survey demonstrated that personal, travel-related, or lifestyle factors did not explain overall or different types of risk perceptions. Maser and Weiermair (1998, p. 118) suggested that, as a result, "it seems not very useful to explain perceived risk in terms of these reported characteristics." Another important finding was that information search and decision making activities were affected by perceptions of risk and kinds of risk. Perceptions of risk related to transportation had a great influence on participant's pursuit

for travel information. Additionally, particular types of risk perceptions effected certain kinds of decisions (logical vs. hasty). Regarding the information search process, females were described as the traditional information seeking segment. Maser and Weiermair (1998) also found that travelers tend to explore forms of information in accordance with their leisure interests at home, as well as their standard of living.

Risk perception level, as described by Sönmez and Graefe (1998a, p. 127), is “the amount and types of risk potential tourists associate with international tourism.” Sönmez and Graefe (1998a) suggested that perceptions of risk, real or perceived, have the potential to become dominant factors in travel choices, possibly leading tourists to alter travel plans. In the study, participants most often related the following types of risk with international travel: health, financial, political instability, equipment, and terrorism. While well-educated individuals with higher income levels had more favorable attitudes towards international travel, demographic factors (such as age, gender, education, income, and children in the household) did not emerge as significant predictors of the propensity for international travel. Information search was found to be greatly affected by attitude, income level, and risk perception level. For instance, as attitude, risk perception level, and household income increased, participants increased the scope of their information search. Participants favored formal sources less than social sources during their information search process. Sönmez and Graefe (1998a) also discovered that the only predictors of the propensity for international travel were attitude and risk perception level, namely “more positive attitudes and lower levels of perceived risk” (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a, p. 132). The strongest predictor of safety concerns was found to be risk perceptions; where concern for safety increased with risk perception

levels. Results of the study also demonstrated that as positive attitudes increased, participants concern for safety decreased. Sönmez and Graefe (1998a) concluded that, in general, important decision-making phases are considerably effected by risk perceptions, attitudes, and levels of income. Risk perceptions and attitudes toward international tourism were significantly correlated with past travel experience. Risk perception levels declined and attitudes improved for those with greater travel experience (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a).

All demographic factors had significant effects on experience (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). Past international travel experience increased in relation with the individuals' education and income levels. Education was the only demographic factor that significantly predicted attitudes toward international travel. Participants with more positive attitudes had a greater level of education. Decisions, including whether or not to travel internationally or domestically and the extent of the information search, involving the risk of terrorist attacks and political instability, were greatly influenced by attitudes, perceptions of risk, and income. Sönmez and Graefe (1998a, p. 134) stated "people who associate various risks with international tourism (e.g., health and terrorism) are less inclined to leave home." The risk of experiencing a threat of terrorism makes a destination to be perceived as less safe, and the less risky destination is likely to be chosen. Information search involving the risk of terrorism was influenced by attitudes towards international travel, risk perception level, and income. Increased past travel experience did not necessarily cause a decrease in risk perception levels, as individuals may become apprehensive about future travel as a result of past negative experiences (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). Terrorism risk may deter tourists from choosing to travel to

not only specific destinations, but also entire regions. Tourists select the destination that best matches their needs and offers the most benefits for the least risk. Sönmez and Graefe (1998a) added that potential tourists may demonstrate information requirements which match their risk perceptions.

Sönmez and Graefe (1998b) found that risk perceptions while traveling seem to have a stronger effect on the avoidance of areas, as opposed to the possibility of traveling to them. They also found that past international travel experience may offer confidence for future travel in spite of individuals' knowledge of risks or threats. For example, boosted confidence and the likelihood to return to a region may result from personal experience to diverse geographic regions. Also, "Past travel experience to specific regions both increases the intention to travel there again and decreases the intention to avoid areas, particularly risky areas" (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b, p. 174). Ultimately, interest in future international travel can partly be determined by the degree of safety individuals feel during various international travel experiences. Furthermore, it can be deduced that past travel experience, in general or at a specific destination, can influence risk or safety perceptions (by confirming or eliminating them). This in turn can have an effect on the possibility of future travel to that destination (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b).

Sönmez (1998) reviewed the literature on the relationships between tourism, terrorism, and political conflict. She noted that the reaction of tourists to risks associated with terrorism and political instability, as compared to natural and other human-induced crises, may more harshly effect tourist's behaviors. Incidents of terrorism and political instability "can effectively impede travel to affected areas and create an enduring barrier

to international tourism” (Sönmez, 1998, p. 421). The patterns of tourists can be influenced by terrorism as long as the public remembers the occurrence of the attack. If terrorist attacks happen frequently, the destination’s image can be damaged and has the potential to put the entire tourism industry at risk. Tourist’s behaviors can be influenced by the potential for risk. Sönmez (1998) suggested that tourists have a tendency to engage in various behaviors, including replacing risky destinations with safer alternatives and perceiving that the potential risks have spread throughout the entire region, when the threat of terrorism is present. Cultural differences in behaviors related to the threat of terrorism were also reviewed. Additionally, media coverage also played a role in tourist’s perceived risks. Negative media coverage can effect risk perceptions related to a specific destination. The perceived image may possibly prevail over actual conditions. As a result, tourists could consider an entire region to be risky (Sönmez, 1998).

Sönmez, Apostolopoulos, and Tarlow (1999) stressed the vital importance of integrating crisis management planning into destination marketing, management, and planning strategies. It was observed that travel data from around the globe noticeably suggests that as the levels of risk perceptions associated with a destination increases, tourism demand decreases. Tourists may decide to stay home if the prospective costs of travel (perceived risks) seem to offset the benefits (Sönmez, Apostolopoulos, & Tarlow, 1999). This demonstrates the importance of understanding how risk perceptions have the ability to affect the tourism industry.

Carr (2001) studied the perceptions of danger amongst young adult tourists in London, England. Women were found to perceive a higher level of personal danger at

night and in public spaces, as compared to men. In general, women were less likely to go to a public space alone, as compared to men, regardless of the time of day. Based on these findings, Carr (2001) recommended that men and women should be considered as a heterogeneous group and differences within each gender, based on values and norms, should be considered (Carr, 2001).

Seddighi, Nuttall, and Theocharous (2001) studied the cross-cultural differences of 2,000 travel agents' perceptions about the effect of political instability on the tourism industry. Cultural backgrounds influenced significant variation in the travel agents' perceptions, based on the findings of the study. For example, the level of perceived political instability at selected Mediterranean destinations was different depending on the cultural background of the travel agents. Additionally, travel agents perceived that each form of political instability had a different influence on other forms (Seddighi, Nuttall, & Theocharous, 2001). Ultimately, the findings suggest that risk perceptions might be influenced by nationality and cultural backgrounds.

Pizam and Fleischer (2002) investigated whether the severity or the frequency of acts of terrorism had a greater effect on tourism demand. The study specifically focused on Israel for a ten year period, May 1991 to May 2001. Pizam and Fleischer (2002) concluded that the frequency of acts of terrorism had a greater negative impact on international tourist arrivals. Based on the conclusions of this study, the authors suggested that "in cases similar to Israel, tourist destinations can recover from even severe acts of terrorism, as long as the terrorist acts are not repeated" (Pizam & Fleischer, 2002, p. 337). On the other hand, tourism demand will continually decline if there is a high occurrence of terrorist acts at regular intervals, regardless of the severity.

As a result, the tourism industry at the destination will ultimately suffer (Pizam & Fleischer, 2002).

Lepp and Gibson (2003) suggested that questions about how various types of tourists perceive international travel and what influences these perceptions need to be addressed to better understand the concept of risk perceptions. Seven risk factors associated with international tourism were identified: health and well being, war and political instability, terrorism, strange food, political and religious dogma, cross cultural differences, and petty crime. In a survey of American born young adults, tourist role was found to be the most significant construct in explaining differences in the perception of risk associated with health, war and political instability, terrorism, and strange food. Explorers and drifters were less concerned with health-related risks than organized mass tourists and independent mass tourists. The tourist role with the highest perceived risk associated with terrorism was organized mass tourists. Perceptions of health, terrorism, and food risks were greatly influenced by experience. Tourists with the greatest amount of experience perceived the least risks related to health, terrorism, and strange foods. Perceptions of health related risks and risks associated with strange food differed considerably by gender, with males perceiving the least amount of risk. For the American born young adult sample, gender, experience, and tourist role did not influence the perceptions of risk associated with cultural barriers and political and religious dogma. Lepp and Gibson (2003) suggested that there may be an interaction between experience and tourist role when examining the perception of risk related to cross cultural differences. For instance, "For organized mass tourists, individuals with the most experience actually perceived greater risk regarding cultural barriers than

those with less experience” (Lepp & Gibson, 2003, p. 618). Perceived risk of petty crime was not found to be significantly related to tourist role or gender, but may be moderately affected by experience (Lepp & Gibson, 2003).

Floyd, Gibson, Pennington-Gray, and Thapa (2004) investigated how perceptions of risk affected intentions to travel after September 11, 2001. Based on a sample of households in the New York City area, the propensity for travel in the next year was associated with safety concerns, perceived social risk, travel experience, and income. The most significant predictor of travel intentions was found to be past travel experience. Perceived social risk was the only type of perceived risk found to be a significant predictor of intentions to travel. Income also affected intentions to travel after September 11, 2001, with higher income households being more likely to express intent to travel in the next year. Floyd et al. (2004), based on the results of this study, proposed that strategies to lessen perceptions of risk might only exist for safety concerns and social risk.

Reisinger and Mavondo (2005, p. 212) stated that “If the tourism industry is going to be prosperous, then tourism researchers must make efforts to increase the industry’s understanding of risk perception.” Two groups, Australian and international tourists, were evaluated to determine the correlation between cultural orientation, psychographics (lifestyle, motivation for travel, personality), perception of risk, anxiety, perception of safety, and propensity for travel. Perceptions of security and sociocultural risk were influenced considerably by culture, personality, and motivation to travel. Sociocultural risk and perceptions of safety were greatly affected by culture, while travel anxiety and perceptions of terrorism risk were greatly impacted by personality.

Motivation to travel had a significant effect on perceptions of health and financial risk, safety perception, and travel anxiety. Lifestyle did not have an impact on the perception of risk related to travel, anxiety, or the propensity for international travel. The perceived level of safety was majorly impacted by perceptions of terrorism and sociocultural risks. Perceptions of safety and intentions to travel were effected considerably by anxiety. Reisinger and Mavondo (2005) recommended that cultural orientation, psychographics, types of risk, anxiety, and perceived uncertainty during travel be examined in future investigations of travel decision making because tourists' perceptions of travel risk can have an effect on their intentions and likelihood to travel to a destination.

Kozak, Crotts, and Law (2007) studied domestic and international travelers to Hong Kong. Most of the travelers (83.8%) surveyed were likely to alter their travel plans based on the perception of any possible risk threat in their evoked future destinations. In other words, international travelers seem to be perceptive of incidence at their evoked destinations. Additionally, Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance dimension, which measures differences in national cultures, had an effect on the degree of the perceived risk of travelers. Travelers from nations with medium and high uncertainty avoidance were apt to be more worried and uneasy about threats of risk. Older males with past international travel experience were not likely to alter their travel plans. These respondents also were more likely to live in nations with medium uncertainty avoidance. Another finding demonstrated that "infection disease seems to be a higher risk factor as perceived by low-avoidance group members than by the other two groups, whereas high-avoidance group members are more concerned about terrorist attacks" (Kozak, Crotts, & Law, 2007, p. 238).

Travel-related research has continually found that tourists consider safety and security to be of primary concern while traveling (Poon & Adams, 2000). Researchers in the tourism scholarly research have studied tourists' risk perceptions according to the type of risk. Risk is often classified as either natural or man-made. In the context of the tourism industry, the types of risk factors that have been extensively studied include: (1) terrorism (Aziz, 1995; Bar-On, 1996; Brady & Widdows, 1988; Enders, Sandler, & Parise, 1992; Floyd, et al., 2004; Leslie, 1999; Richter & Waugh, 1986; Sönmez, 1998; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a, 1998b; Sönmez et al., 1999); (2) crime (Brunt, Mawby, & Hambly, 2000; Dimanche & Leptic, 1999; Floyd, et al., 2004; Pizam, 1999; Pizam, Tarlow, & Bloom, 1997); (3) war and political instability (Clements & Georgiou, 1998; Gartner & Shen, 1992; Hall & O'Sullivan, 1996; Hollier, 1991; Ioannides & Apostolopoulos, 1999; Mansfeld, 1996, 1999; Pitts, 1996; Richter, 1992, 1999; Seddighi et al., 2000; Teye, 1986; Wall, 1996); and (4) health concerns (Carter, 1998; Cossens & Gin, 1994; Floyd, et al., 2004; Lawton & Page, 1997). Further, risk associated with natural disasters and its effects on tourism demand have been studied (i.e. Faulkner, 2001; Mazzocchi & Montini, 2001).

The most frequently perceived risks at a specific destination may be different from those associated with another destination (Sönmez & Graefe, 1996). The same may be true for geographic regions (Sönmez & Graefe, 1996). Whether risk is real or perceived, it has the potential to be an influential factor in important decision making phases (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). The influence of risk perceptions on travel behavior can depend on the type of perceived risk (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992). Also, the type of perceived risk can influence information search and decision-making behaviors (Maser

& Weiermair, 1998; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). Tourists may match their information search behaviors to their risk perceptions (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). Risk perceptions have been significantly correlated with past travel experience (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a, b). Destinations may be avoided because of the level of perceived risk, while intentions to travel internationally may be impacted by the degree of safety tourists have felt during past experiences (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). Ultimately, past travel experiences can either confirm or eliminate risk and safety perceptions (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). Tourists' cultural backgrounds can also influence perceived risk (Kozak et al., 2007; Seddighi et al., 2001). The study of perceived risk is vital to the tourism industry as research has verified that as risks perceptions associated with a destination or region increase, tourism demand at the destination or region decreases (Sönmez et al., 1999).

Likelihood of Social Media Use during a Crisis

Internet, social media, and travel

Tjostheim (2002) compared the preferred sources of information for package and non-package travel for experienced Norwegian tourists. Results indicated differences between the two sample groups. Non-package tourists viewed the Internet (39%) as the most useful source of information, followed in rank of importance by travel literature (26%) and direct communication with travel agents and tour operators (19%). On the other hand, package tourists indicated that brochures (39%), direct communication with travel agents and tour-operators (35%), and the Internet (17%), in order of rank, were the most useful information sources (Tjostheim, 2002). Although this study did not examine information search preferences in times of crises, it offers insight into tourists'

preferences related to travel and revealed that non-package travelers found the Internet to be a useful tool for vacation planning.

Wang and Fesenmaier (2004b) proposed a model on the subject of the active participation and contribution of members of the travel community on the Internet. According to the authors, in order for an online travel community to advance and thrive, the community will need a sizeable base of members. Additionally, a large segment of the travel community members will need to actively participate and contribute, including sharing information and knowledge, to successfully operate online travel communities. Members of an online travel community in the U.S. were surveyed. Significant relationships were found between members' perceived benefits and level of participation in online travel communities. Specifically, hypotheses testing revealed a positive correlation between perceived social and hedonic benefits and participation level in an online travel community. There was a significant relationship between the perceived incentives to contribute and the amount of member contribution. In an online travel community, a positive correlation between perceived instrumental, efficacy, and expectancy incentives and the amount of member contribution was confirmed. To sum, Wang and Fesenmaier (2004b) found that social and hedonic benefits generally drove involvement in the online travel community and perceived instrumental, efficacy, and expectancy incentives drove members' active contribution levels. As online communities are one type of social media sites, this research highlighted the role that perceived benefits can play in participation on online travel communities.

Beritelli, Bieger, and Laesser (2007) investigated the information source behaviors of Swiss tourists, particularly the influences of use of the Internet on

alternative information sources. The results demonstrated that the Internet was a moderate to very important information source for 37% of all trips. Although, as Beritelli et al. (2007) suggested, this result may be influenced by the high amount of domestic tourism within the country (43%) due to the fact that internal information, such as previous travel experience, is most often used by domestic tourists. Tourists who placed a high level of importance on use of the Internet for seeking information generally were younger, had a higher level of education, had more professional jobs, or were continuing their education. The Internet was found to be a complementary information source, not a substitute; however, this depended on the specific travel circumstances. For instance, travelers planning low-risk vacations indicated that the Internet was a major information source. Also, when prospective tourists had a longer time to plan and were planning a longer vacation, printed brochures and the Internet were quite important to them. Beritelli et al. (2007, p. 63) found that “there is also a strong association between the WWW, travel guidebooks and information provided at the destination.” It is important that we understand tourists’ preferred sources for information related to travel, as this may help us to understand the information sources that they may turn to in the event of a crisis.

Buhalis and Law (2008) suggested that new media has increased the levels of interactivity between the tourism industry and tourists to a new high. Also, “developments in search engines, carrying capacity and speed of networks have influenced the number of travelers around the world that use technologies for planning and experiencing their travels” (Buhalis & Law, 2008, p. 609). Based on a literature review of eTourism over the past 20 years, the authors concluded that technology has

drastically impacted the tourism industry by providing new opportunities for marketing, management, and two-way communication. Buhalis and Law (2008) also suggested that Information Communication Technologies (ICTs) will progressively provide the industry's "info-structure" and will surpass all mechanistic aspects of relations in the tourism industry. Tourist centric technologies will be the main focus of eTourism in the future and will foster interaction between tourists and tourism companies. Therefore, "Innovative tourism enterprises will have the ability to divert resources and expertise to serving consumers and provide a higher value added transactions" (Buhalis & Law, 2008, p. 620). Further advancement of ICTs will give destinations and suppliers the power to improve efficiency and redevelop strategies for communication. Buhalis and Law (2008) also concluded that interoperability, personalization, and continuous networking will be encouraged by ground-breaking, modern technologies.

Xiang and Gretzel (2010) contend that the role of social media as a source of information for tourists is progressively more significant. Their exploratory study examined the extent to which social media sites emerged in travel-related search engine results. Results demonstrated that social media made up a sizeable proportion of the quite fragmented search engine results; approximately 11% of all of the search results were classified as search results corresponding to social media. Interestingly, approximately 70% of all the social media websites were represented by the top 18% (N=68) of unique domain names. Based on the findings, Xiang and Gretzel (2010) also suggested that a relatively small number of sites dominated the Google Search™ results. As a result of this finding, Xiang and Gretzel (2010) suggested that search engines likely lead tourists to social media sites. The social media sites with the

greatest presence in search results were virtual communities, approximately 40% of all social media sites identified in this study. Therefore, virtual communities (i.e. LonelyPlanet[®]) were the preferred platform of online travelers for sharing experiences. Approximately 27% of the social media sites were represented by consumer review sites, such as TripAdvisor[®], while 15% were represented by blogs. When investigating the distribution of social media sites across the sample, Xiang and Gretzel (2010) found that on every Google Search[™] result page, the number of social media sites referenced was approximately one.

Gretzel (2010) did not find a significant difference in the use of social media based on gender. When planning overnight leisure vacations, over half of the respondents, who represented the U.S. population, did not normally read comments and materials posted by others. However, almost 50% viewed other travelers' comments and materials as a reliable source of travel information. Traditional media (i.e. articles, guidebooks, formal travel reviews) were trusted less than other travelers' comments and posts by almost 40% of respondents. Respondents rated comments and materials posted on tourism bureau websites to be the most credible (40%). The credibility of travel agencies (33.5%), third parties such as TripAdvisor[®] (30.8%), and company websites (28.5%) ranked higher than personal blogs (20.9%) and social networking sites (18.9%). A majority of tourists perceived that information not included by marketers can be found on social media (64.7%). Perceptions also included that social media was more fun (53.2%), more interesting (52.6%), more up-to-date (52%), and more relevant (51.9%). Only about 22% of those surveyed had ever posted travel-

related comments and materials online and those who did were more likely younger, men, with higher levels of travel experience, and Asian (Gretzel, 2010).

Gretzel (2010) found that the most popular channel for posting was travel reviews, followed by picture sharing online and forums. The top motivation for tourists in creating social media accounts was to share experiences with others, while the main inhibitor for commenting and posting was a lack of interest. Approximately 52% of online travelers were found to participate in social networking at least several times a month, while almost 29% use social networking sites daily or more. Some key facts about online travelers' use of Facebook[®] include: 59% have a personal Facebook[®] account, less than 20% of Facebook[®] users have joined a travel-related group, 27.5% are a fan of a travel-related organization, and approximately 39% are a fan of a destination. The most popular travel-related companies for online travelers were airlines and rental car agencies (64.5%) and hotels (59.8%). Facebook[®] fans were most likely to "like" a post by a travel company. Online travelers were found to be greatly motivated by exclusive deals and offers (72.6%) when becoming a fan of a travel-related organization. Other key motivations included interesting content (64.2%), being a current customer (63.7%), and receiving up-to-date information and news (63.1%). Gretzel (2010) found that the top three motivations for becoming a fan of a destination were planning a vacation to the destination (70.8%), interesting or entertaining content (70.5%), and an emotional attachment to the destination (63.3%).

Parra-López, Bulchand-Gidumal, Gutiérrez-Taño, and Díaz-Armas (2011) stressed that it is imperative for tourism industry practitioners and stakeholders to be aware of the antecedents of the utilization and acceptance of social media by tourists

throughout the vacation process (prior to, during, and subsequent to the vacation). It was suggested that this is “due to the impact of these collaborative behaviors on tourists’ decisions about the choice of all the elements of the trip (destination, accommodation, activities, restaurants, . . .)” (Parra-López, Bulchand-Gidumal, Gutiérrez-Taño, & Díaz-Armas, 2011, p. 640). Therefore, the authors offered a theoretical framework for the variables that are influential in tourists’ intentions to use social media when planning and taking vacations (Parra-López et al., 2011).

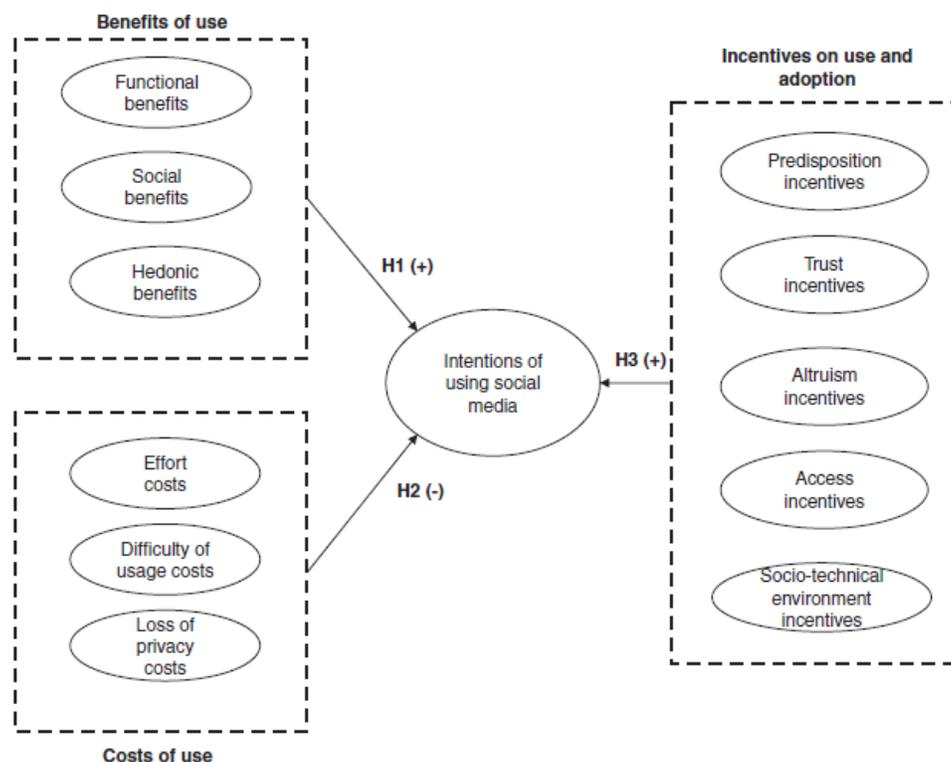


Figure 2-1. Parra-López et al. (2011) hypothesized model

The sample consisted of leisure tourists from the Canary Islands who had taken a trip in the preceding 12 months and who routinely uses the Internet (Parra-López et al., 2011). Use of the Internet and social media tools were generally high in this study. Significantly, this study revealed that perceived benefits (functional, psychological, hedonic, social) were the chief reasons that tourists used social media. Hypotheses

testing revealed that altruism, availability of technology, environment, individual predisposition, and trust in the contributions to others were incentives that facilitated and promoted the use of social media when coordinating and taking vacations. Additionally, costs, although perceived, did not significantly influence tourists' inclination to use social media (Parra-López et al., 2011).

Social media and crises

Through a case study of the Southern California wildfires in October 2007, Sutton, Palen, and Shklovski (2008) investigated the use of social media as a method of peer-to-peer communications during a disaster. More than half of the respondents revealed that they searched for information via mobile phones to contact loved ones. Mobile phones were used by 76% of respondents who sought information through websites and information portals publicized through traditional media. Twitter[®] was used by less than 10% of the respondents; however, a majority of the users adopted this technology during the disaster. Posting information and involvement in discussion groups on the Internet was reported by 36% of the sample. Respondents indicated that “some official information sources were described as consistently slow to update information to at-risk and evacuated communities or simply overwhelmed and stymied by on-line traffic” (Sutton, Palen, & Shklovski, 2008). Although traditional media were the primary sources of information by respondents, some believed that national news sources were slow, not useful, and uninformed. On the other hand, traditional local news sources were viewed as more accurate, credible, knowledgeable about the local area, but struggled with providing up-to-date information. During the Southern California wildfires disaster, there was evidence that community forums were viewed as progressively more reliable suppliers of information by the community (Sutton et al.,

2008). Evidence also showed that traditional media sources used information from the public and disseminated information through social media (Sutton et al., 2008). A key conclusion of this study was that social media encouraged peer-to-peer communications and thus a greater extent of interaction that generated information that is otherwise difficult to acquire (Sutton et al., 2008). This study provided helpful information about social media use during a disaster, despite the fact that the sample consisted of residents rather than tourists.

The American Red Cross (2010) surveyed respondents, representative of the United States population, on the use of social media in disasters and emergencies. Facebook[®] was found to be the most popular social media site and nearly 3 in 4 respondents were involved in one or more social networks. Approximately half of the respondents participated in social media every day or almost every day and 83% of the respondents participated in social media at least one time each week. While television news was the media channel that a majority of the respondents used to obtain information about an emergency, one in six respondents used social media. Nearly half of the respondents expressed interest in signing up for emails, text alerts, or applications to obtain information about emergencies (American Red Cross, 2010).

Approximately half of the respondents who use at least one social media channel would mention an emergency or newsworthy event on the social media channels that they participated in, while 18% have posted information or pictures about an emergency or newsworthy event on social media channels in the past (American Red Cross, 2010). When asked what respondents would do if 911 were busy, 42% would use a phone or cell phone and 18% would use digital media. If someone the respondents knew needed

help during an emergency, 52% would send a text message to a response agency, 44% would use a social network site to ask other individuals to assist in reaching a response agency, 35% would post a request for assistance on a response agency's Facebook[®] page, and 28% would send a response agency a direct message on Twitter[®] (American Red Cross, 2010).

Nearly 50% of respondents would use social media to let friends and family know they are safe during an area wide emergency, most likely on Facebook[®] (American Red Cross, 2010). Close to 70% of respondents agreed that in order to respond promptly to requests for assistance, emergency response agencies should habitually monitor their websites and social media sites. Regarding the prompt response of emergency response agencies, three out of four respondents would anticipate help to arrive within an hour of the request. Overall, younger respondents were more active on social media sites, including when seeking information in times of crises, posting about an emergency, and requesting assistance (American Red Cross, 2010). Although this study was not conducted in the context of tourism, it provides valuable insight into the use of social media during crises.

Between June 23 and 27, 2011, the American Red Cross (2011) reexamined the U.S. population's use of social media during a crisis. Through an online survey and a telephone survey, it was found that residents of metropolitan areas tended to be more likely to use social networks in general than residents of non-metropolitan areas (51% vs. 40%). Social media use, in general, increased over the year. Compared to the 2010 study, the use of at least one social network increased from nearly 3 in 4 to nearly 8 in 10. As previously found, Facebook[®] continued to be the most popular social media

channel used by Americans, with an increase in use of 10% over the past year. It was found that a majority of social media users participate on these channels every day, an increase of nearly 10% compared to 2010 (57% vs. 48%) (American Red Cross, 2011).

When seeking information about a crisis, television remained the favored source (68%) (American Red Cross, 2011). However, online news increased from 37% in 2010 to 48% of the online population in 2011, thus demonstrating a shift towards seeking crisis-related information on the Internet. The use of Facebook[®] to find information about a crisis also increased from 14% in 2010 to 18% in 2011. Additionally, those who have posted information or shared pictures during a past crisis were most likely to have done so on Facebook[®] (78%). During a crisis, women (59%) and households with children (66%) tended to be the most likely to let loved ones know they are safe through a social media channel (American Red Cross, 2011). This study offered greater insight into how Americans are increasingly relying on social media channels, online news, and mobile technology to both receive and share information during a crisis.

Social media and tourism crises

Within a few weeks of the Deepwater Horizon Oil Spill, in early May 2010, the University of Florida's Tourism Crisis Management Institute (2010b) and Research Data Services, Inc. surveyed past and potential visitors to Gulf Coast beach destinations. Differences in social media use were found among tourists who indicated that the oil spill had affected their destination choice and tourists who were planning a trip to a Gulf Coast beach destination. Analysis revealed that a little more than half of the tourists engaged in at least one social network, with Facebook[®] being the most popular channel. Approximately 97% of the tourists had obtained travel information through the Internet. Of the tourists planning to visit a Gulf Coast beach destination in 2010, 97.7%

used the Internet for travel information. Nearly 99% of tourists who indicated that the oil spill had affected their destination choice used the Internet for travel information (Tourism Crisis Management Institute, 2010b).

Some differences in the use of social networks were found (Tourism Crisis Management Institute, 2010b). Tourists planning a trip to a Gulf Coast beach destination were more likely to use Facebook[®] and Twitter[®]. Approximately 58% of tourists planning a Gulf Coast beach destination visit in 2010 used Facebook[®] compared to 50% of those who indicated that the oil spill had affected their vacation choice. Also, 7.4% of tourists with intentions to visit the Gulf Coast engaged on Twitter[®] compared to 2.9% of those whose vacation choice was affected by the oil spill. Approximately 80% of tourists intending to visit the Gulf Coast were not connecting to social networking sites for travel information, compared to approximately 69% of tourists whose destination choice was affected by the oil spill (Tourism Crisis Management Institute, 2010b). This empirical study offered some of the only insights we have into tourists' social media use in the time of a crisis.

Pennington-Gray, London, Cahyanto, and Klages (2011) investigated how the Deepwater Horizon oil spill influenced visitation to the state of Florida between May and June of 2010. It was concluded that perceptions caused by the oil spill generally did not have an effect on visitation (Pennington-Gray, London, Cahyanto, & Klages, 2011). This was attributed to VISIT FLORIDA[®]'s use of social media to communicate vital information and combat misperceptions related to the oil spill crisis. Therefore, the authors suggested that the tourism crisis management planning model (adapted from Pacific Asia Tourism Association, 2003) be extended to incorporate social media.

Ultimately, social media should be a part each phase of tourism crisis management planning (Pennington-Gray, et al., 2011). A case study of VISIT FLORIDA®'s social media campaign during the oil spill crisis was used to suggest ways that social media can be incorporated into the four R tourism crisis management planning model (Pennington-Gray, et al., 2011). Thus, if tourism organizations are being encouraged to utilize social media throughout the crisis management planning process, it is critical that the industry understand how likely tourists are to turn to social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling.

Few studies have examined the drivers of social media use during a crisis for different subpopulations of tourists. Pennington-Gray, Kaplanidou, and Schroeder (2012) investigated African Americans' likelihood to use social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling. For the subpopulation of African American travelers, it was found that age and perceptions of the likelihood of certain types of crises occurring during an upcoming leisure trip influenced the likelihood of using social media in the event of a crisis while traveling (Pennington-Gray, Kaplanidou, & Schroeder, 2012). As expected, there was an inverse relationship between age and the likelihood of social media use in the event of a crisis while traveling. Therefore, younger African Americans were more likely to turn to social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling than older African Americans. Using hierarchical regression to control for the influence of age, it was found that the perception of the likelihood of crime, a financial crisis, and a physical crisis (accident) occurring during leisure travel were drivers for social media during a crisis while traveling (Pennington-Gray, et al. 2012). More specifically, a positive relationship was revealed between the

perception of the likelihood of crime and a financial crisis and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis for African American travelers, while the perception of the likelihood of a physical accident occurring was inversely related to the dependent variable. Interestingly, however, it was found that the type and frequency of social media use in the everyday lives of African Americans did not affect the likelihood to turn to social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling (Pennington-Gray, et al. 2012). This empirical study revealed some of the factors that may influence African American travelers' likelihood of using social media if a crisis were to occur and highlighted the need to explore the drivers for social media use during a crisis for other subpopulations of travelers.

Research investigating the likelihood of social media use during a crisis is embryonic, with only a few studies providing insights into the likelihood of social media use during a crisis, and even fewer within the context of tourism (i.e. Tourism Crisis Management Institute, 2010b). Social media is increasingly becoming a significant information source for tourists (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010) and it can also be helpful in obtaining information during a crisis (American Red Cross, 2010, 2011; Sutton et al., 2008). Research has shown that information that may otherwise be hard to obtain can be found through interactions on social media during a crisis (Sutton et al., 2008). However, tourists may use social media differently. For example, after the Deepwater Horizon Oil Spill, tourists planning a trip to the Gulf Coast were more likely to use social media than those whose choice of a destination was affected by the oil spill (Tourism Crisis Management Institute, 2010b).

Likelihood to Travel and Past International Travel Experience

The propensity for future behaviors is associated directly with past behaviors and norms, as well as satisfaction resulting from a particular experience (Mazursky, 1989). In the context of tourism, this finding suggested that the propensity for future travel is directly related to the extent and nature of past travel experiences. Also, Mazursky (1989) noted that information communicated from external sources has been less pronounced than the dependence on past travel experiences and normative standards. Further, Mazursky (1989) suggested that personal experience may exert more influence on travel decisions than information acquired from external sources. Mazursky (1989) proposed that measures of past experience and normative standards be incorporated in forthcoming research in an effort to further the knowledge and predictions of future behavior.

Kozak (2001a) studied British tourists to Mallorca, Spain and Turkey. The visitation patterns of tourists to the mature and less-developed destination, respectively, were compared and variances were found. The propensity for repeat travel was significantly affected by the extent of the tourists' past visits to the destination and their overall satisfaction. The mature destination, Mallorca, had a stronger relationship between the propensity for repeat visits, the number of past visits, and satisfaction than the less-developed destination, Turkey. In the case of the mature destination, the propensity to revisit a particular destination was greater for those who had previously visited the destination, while those visiting a destination for the first time were less likely to return to that specific destination. Additionally, the propensity to return to the destination was greatly affected by overall satisfaction and to a lesser extent affected by the extent of past visitation. For the less-developed destination, tourists who had

previously visited the destination had a greater likelihood of returning than first-time visitors. The extent of past visitation and intentions had a weaker effect on the less-developed destination than the mature. Overall, behavioral intentions to revisit the destination and to travel to destinations in the same area, in this case country, were greatly and positively related to the satisfaction of tourists (Kozak, 2001a).

Past experiences influence the likelihood of future behaviors, often to a greater extent than information received from external sources (Mazursky, 1989). The likelihood to travel to a destination is significantly influenced by past experiences, as well as the tourists' overall satisfaction with the experiences (Kozak, 2001a). In essence, if a tourist has a very negative experience while traveling to a particular region, the tourist may be less likely to travel to this region in the future and may possibly be less likely to travel internationally. Similarly, a tourist with positive experiences traveling internationally may be more likely to travel internationally in the future.

Study Rationale

The importance of tourism crisis management in protecting tourists, as well as the destination at large, is apparent (i.e. Ritchie, 2004; Sönmez et al., 1999; Tourism Crisis Management Institute, 2010a). Crises have the potential to devastate economies that depend on the tourism industry, further proving the importance of developing and updating tourism crisis management plans (Tourism Crisis Management Institute, 2010a).

Whether real or perceived, individual risk beliefs have been found to influence decision-making phases and to be predictors of future travel behaviors (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a, b). In order for the tourism industry to be profitable, Reisinger and Mavondo (2005) suggest that research must further explore risk perceptions in an effort

to better understand tourists. Sönmez & Graefe, (1998a) suggest that potential tourists may demonstrate information requirements that match their risk perceptions. We also know that the level of risk perceptions can influence the extent of information search while planning a trip (Maser & Weiermair, 1998; Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). We do not know how risk perceptions influence the extent of information search if a crisis were to occur while at the destination. In the event of a crisis, it is imperative that tourism organizations understand the information search requirements of tourists. This information is vital to the development of a crisis management plan, as tourism organizations will need to communicate important information in a timely manner to tourists during a crisis to ensure safety. Knowing how risk perceptions influence tourists' information requirements and the extent of information search could ultimately save lives by helping tourism organizations understand the appropriate channels to communicate key messages to tourists. However, there has been a paucity of research that examines tourists' information search behaviors under risky situations and factors that influence it (Ritchie, 2009). Of particular interest to this study, we do not know the influence that perceptions of risk can have on tourists' likelihood of social media use during a crisis.

We know that new media, particularly social media, plays a vital role in the everyday lives of many across the globe. Any event today can take place and be relived in the realm of social media. Presently, most people easily access social media almost daily through such devices as computers, Smartphones, and tablets (Madden, 2010; Pew Research Center Global Attitudes Project, 2010). In addition, Smartphone users are more active on social media than non-Smartphone users (Facebook®, 2011). In the

context of travel, this means that tourists can readily access social media to seek and share information through Smartphones while traveling. Research has shown that social media as an information source for tourists is becoming progressively more significant; however, there is a limited amount of research in the area of social media use related to tourism (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). Empirical research has not often investigated how tourists use social media while traveling.

Further, it is even more critical to understand tourists' uses of social media during a crisis, given the recent increase in crises globally and the fact that tourists are a vulnerable population during a crisis (Drabek, 2009; Faulkner, 2001; Phillips & Morrow, 2007). In the nine month period from January to September 2011, global crises impacting tourism included a catastrophic earthquake and tsunami off the coast of Japan, regional political unrest in the Middle East, a volcanic explosion in Chile that effected air travel as far away as Australia, and an earthquake and hurricane along the east coast of the United States. These are just a few examples of the many crises affecting the industry in a relatively short period of time. In the case of the earthquake and resulting tsunami in Japan, the U.S. Department of State encouraged American citizens traveling in Japan to post about their safety on social media sites in order to contact family and friends, when telephone lines were down but the Internet was working. Governments have urged tourists traveling in countries impacted by crises to communicate via social media in other cases, as well. During the earthquake in Virginia, people took to social media to obtain information about the situation because they could not make or receive calls and text messages. The fact that social media is being used to

communicate while phone lines are overloaded or not working is another reason that research on the use of social media during a crisis is needed.

The tourism industry is interested in how to successfully integrate social media into tourism crisis management plans (i.e. VISIT FLORIDA[®]). Tourism organizations are learning through trial and error during a crisis. Recent crises have given the industry opportunities to incorporate social media in crisis communications. As a result, best practices have been identified by the industry and scholars. Destination management organizations have found that social media can be used as a tool for effective two-way communication with current and potential tourists; in an effort to fight misperceptions that are often perpetuated by media coverage. Experiences have also proven the potential for social media to help to protect and recover the destination as a whole, as well as to combat potential negative financial effects associated with a crisis. However, significant research in this area is lacking. Such research can greatly impact tourism destinations, as social media can be incorporated into marketing, management, and planning processes. Not only can social media play a vital role in the everyday operations of tourism organizations, but it has great potential to be an integral component of the response and recovery phases of tourism crisis management.

In the event of a crisis and throughout the resulting response and recovery, it is important for tourism organizations to understand where tourists will seek information about the crisis to ensure that critical information be relayed to them. This can help to save the lives of tourists, as well as to protect the tourism organizations' image and finances. What we do not know is if tourists would seek vital information about the crisis situation through social media. Do factors such as demographics (age, gender, marital

status) and culture affect the likelihood of using social media to seek information if a crisis were to occur while traveling? Is past international travel experience correlated with the likelihood of social media use during a crisis? These are important questions that this research seeks to answer. The study will provide valuable data which can influence policy formulation.

CHAPTER 3 METHODS

The purpose of this study was to gain insight into international tourists' likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year, the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring while traveling in the U.S., and the likelihood to use social media to seek information about a crisis while traveling. This chapter explains the methods and procedures used to collect the data for this research study. In addition, the analyses used to attempt to answer the research questions are described. The following five sections are presented in this chapter:

- Data Collection
- Survey Instrument
- Operationalization of Independent Variables
- Operationalization of Dependent Variables
- Analysis of the Data

Data Collection

The data for this study was collected as a part of a larger study conducted by Mandala Research LLC. Due to the large sample size ($n = 2,416$) and the representation of travelers from five countries, data was obtained from a Mandala Research database in this study. The Tourism Crisis Management Institute at the University of Florida worked with the proprietor to add and purchase three crisis-related questions to the larger study of travelers from the emerging growth markets to the United States' international tourism market. In total, seven questions from the larger study of thirty-three questions formed the basis of this study. The purpose of the larger study was to better understand international travelers' attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors regarding travel to the United States.

The larger study was conducted among 2,416 travelers from the top emerging growth markets of the United States' international tourism industry in August and September 2010. Data was gathered among tourists in each of the top five emerging growth markets to the United States, as identified by the U.S. Department of Commerce. The markets were: China (n = 479), Brazil (n = 483), South Korea (n = 479), India (n = 500), and Australia (n = 475) (ITA Office of Travel & Tourism Industries, 2010b). Data was collected through a total of 2,416 online surveys. The data was collected online using Mandala Research's Travel Answer leisure travel panel, hosted by Conduit Systems. To qualify for the survey, respondents must have visited the U.S. at least once within the past 12 months, had spent a minimum of \$250 on shopping during the trip, and had a minimum household income of \$75,000.

Survey Instrument

Seven questions from the survey were used for this study in order to operationalize the following independent and dependent variables: past international travel experience to the United States in the past 12 months, demographics (age, gender, marital status), the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year, the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S., and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling. It was predicted that past international travel experience to the United States in the past 12 months, cultural differences, age, gender, and marital status are directly associated with the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year. It was also predicted that past international travel experience to the United States in the past 12 months, cultural differences, age, gender, and marital status are directly associated with the perception of likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. Furthermore, it was

hypothesized that past international travel experience to the U.S. in the past 12 months, cultural differences, age, gender, and marital status are directly associated with the likelihood of social media use to seek information if a crisis were to occur during travel.

Operationalization of Independent Variables

The three independent variables of this study were: (1) past international travel experience to the U.S. in the past 12 months, (2) cultural differences, (3) and demographics (age, gender, marital status).

The extent of past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months was measured in this study using one open-ended question: "How many international trips to the U.S. have you taken in the past 12 months?." This independent variable ranged from low past experience to high, based on an interval scale. The continuous variable was recoded into the following categories: 1 = only 1 trip in the past year and 2 = more than 1 trip in the past year, where 1 represented the low past experience group and 2 represented the high past experience group.

Second, the cultural difference variable was operationalized by country of origin. For this categorical variable, respondents were asked to indicate their country of origin. The five groups were: China, Brazil, South Korea, India, and Australia.

Age, a demographic variable, was a continuous variable. The open-ended question "What is your age?" was used to operationalize this variable. The ages were then recoded into the following categories: 1 = 18-30, 2 = 31-40, 3 = 41-50, 4 = 51-65, 5 = 65+. Both gender and marital status were categorical variables. Respondents were asked to indicate whether they were male or female to operationalize the demographic variable of gender. To operationalize marital status, respondents were asked to indicate: "Which of the following best describes your marital status?." Possible answers

to this question were: single, never married, living with partner/significant other, married, divorced/separated, widowed, living with friends, and rather not say. For analyses, the response “rather not say” was excluded.

Operationalization of Dependent Variables

This study explored relationships between specified constructs and several important stages of the international vacation tourism decision-making process. The dependent variables of this study were: (1) the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year, (2) the perception of likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S., and (3) the likelihood of social media use during a crisis.

The likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year was operationalized by the question: “How likely are you to take a trip to the U.S. within the next year?.” This question was posed on a six-point Likert-type scale and reverse coded as follows: 1 = not sure, 2 = not at all likely, 3 = not too likely, 4 = somewhat likely, 5 = very likely, 6 = definitely, my trip is already booked. This continuous dependent variable ranged from low likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year to high, based on an interval scale. For analyses, the response “not sure” was removed.

The perception of likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. construct was measured as a continuous measure by the question: “Using a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral and 5 = very much likely, please think about your next or upcoming leisure trip within the United States and rate your perception of the likelihood that the following crises may occur.” Twelve responses, adapted from Floyd et al. (2004), Moutinho (1987), Roehl and Fesenmeier (1992), and Sönmez and Graefe (1998b), measured risk perception. The crisis types included both human and nature induced crises, including terrorism, natural disasters, disease,

cultural barriers, and political unrest, and were asked in the context of pleasure travel to the United States. In keeping with previous studies, individual risk items were included in subsequent analysis rather than creating an index (see Floyd et al., 2004). This question was presented on a five-point Likert-type scale, as demonstrated in Table 3-1. This dependent variable ranged from high perceived likelihood of a crisis to neutral to low, based on an interval scale.

Table 3-1. Perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip

Crisis/risk level	The crisis occurs in the State of destination				
	1	2	3	4	5
Terrorism					
Crime					
Natural disasters (i.e., hurricane)					
Disease (i.e., SARS)					
Food safety (i.e., outbreak of salmonella)					
Financial					
Health (i.e., travelers diarrhea)					
Physical (accidents)					
Equipment failure (i.e., airplane delay due to malfunctions)					
Weather (i.e., storms, flooding)					
Cultural barriers					
Political (i.e., coups)					

Lastly, the likelihood of social media use during a crisis variable was operationalized as a continuous measure. The dependent variable, social media, was one item of a fifteen item list (including “Internet,” “local tourism office (CVB),” and “text messages”), as demonstrated in Table 3-2. The five-point scale measured responses to the question “Supposed that you are currently in the middle of your trip and you hear that a crisis has just occurred within the immediate vicinity of your current location, please indicate the likelihood you would turn to the following sources of media to get more information (using a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral and 5 = very much likely).” For research questions one through ten, only the social media item was utilized.

Table 3-2. Source used to seek information during a crisis

Media	1	2	3	4	5
Newspaper					
Radio					
Television					
Travel agents					
Internet					
Friends/relatives					
Text messages					
Local tourism office (CVB)					
State tourism office (STO)					
Social media (e.g. Facebook)					
Local residents					
Other tourists in your destination					
Hotel concierge					
Consulate General/Embassy					
Local law enforcement office/police					

Analysis of the Data

The data were statistically analyzed using the SPSS software (the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). Descriptions of the methods used for the analysis of each of the ten research question that guided this research are found in this section.

Research questions 1-3 sought to answer questions related to the likelihood to travel to the United States within the next year.

Likelihood to Travel: Research Question 1 (Hypothesis 1)

To examine the relationship between past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months and the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year, the means of the variables were compared using an independent-samples t-test.

Likelihood to Travel: Research Question 2 (no related hypothesis)

To explore the relationship between cultural differences and the likelihood to travel to the U.S., one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used.

Likelihood to Travel: Research Question 3 (Hypothesis 2)

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to test the relationships between both age and marital status and the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the

next year. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to explore the relationship between gender and the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year.

Research questions 4-6 were related to the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States.

Perception of the Likelihood of a Crisis Occurring: Research Question 4 (Hypothesis 3)

To investigate the relationship between past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S., independent-samples t-tests were performed for each of the twelve crisis types associated with the dependent variable.

Perception of the Likelihood of a Crisis Occurring: Research Question 5 (Hypothesis 4)

In order to explore the relationship between cultural differences and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S., one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted for each of the twelve crisis types associated with the dependent variable.

Perception of the Likelihood of a Crisis Occurring: Research Question 6 (Hypothesis 5)

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to test the relationships between both age and marital status and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. Separate one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were performed for each of the twelve crisis types associated with the dependent variable. Independent-samples t-tests were performed to examine the relationship between gender and the perception of the likelihood of each of the twelve crisis types occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States.

Research questions 7-9 focused on the likelihood of social media use in the event of a crisis while traveling.

Likelihood of Social Media Use during a Crisis: Research Question 7 (Hypothesis 6)

In order to explore the relationship between past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling, an independent-samples t-test was conducted.

Likelihood of Social Media Use during a Crisis: Research Question 8 (no related hypothesis)

The relationship between cultural differences and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling was the focus of research question 8. To statistically analyze this bivariate relationship, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed.

Likelihood of Social Media Use during a Crisis: Research Question 9 (Hypothesis 7)

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to test the relationships between both age and marital status and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling. An independent-samples t-test was performed to explore the relationship between gender and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling.

Overall Conceptual Model Tested: Research Question 10 (no related hypothesis)

It was suspected that the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year might influence the dependent variables in this study. Although treated as a dependent variable in the first three analyses (research questions 1-3), the likelihood to travel was treated as a covariate in the final research question. Thus, we treated the likelihood to

travel to the U.S. within the next year as a moderating variable to the likelihood of turning to social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States. Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) was computed separately for three of the independent variables (cultural differences, age, past travel experience to the U.S. in the past year) that were found to significantly influence the dependent variables in previous analyses.

First, cultural difference was examined for its contribution to the variation in the dependent variables, the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. and the likelihood of social media use in the event of a crisis, while controlling for the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year. Second, age was examined for its contribution to the variation in the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. and the likelihood of the use of social media during a crisis, while controlling for the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year. For MANCOVA, the age variable was recoded as follows: 1 = 18-30, 2= 31-50, 3 = 51-65+. Lastly, past international travel experience was examined for its contribution to the variation in the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. and the likelihood of the use of social media during a crisis, while controlling for the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

This study of international tourists from the top emerging growth markets of the United States' international tourism market (China, Brazil, South Korea, India, Australia) provided numerous insights into the socio-demographics of tourists who had traveled to the U.S. at least once in the past 12 months. The results also helped us to understand other travel-related behaviors, such as the likelihood of using social media to seek information if a crisis were to occur while traveling, for international tourists. Bivariate analyses also revealed new insights into the relationship between cultural differences and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States, as well as the likelihood of using social media to seek information during a crisis. Multivariate analysis further explored the independent variables that significantly impact the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis, while controlling for the likelihood to travel to the United States. A total of 2,416 survey questionnaires were useable for analysis.

Four main sections are covered in this chapter:

- Overall Sample Profile
- Sample Profile by Country
- Descriptive Analysis
- Findings and Analysis of Research Questions and Subsequent Hypotheses

Overall Sample Profile

The demographic characteristics analyzed as independent variables in this study were gender, age, and marital status. Additional socio-demographic variables were examined in the larger survey instrument. An analysis of these demographic variables

are provided in the overall sample profile table below. Descriptions of each of the demographic variables are provided following Table 4-1.

Table 4-1. Overall sample profile

Socio-demographic characteristics	Frequency	Valid %
Gender (N=2,416)		
Male	1784	73.8
Female	632	26.2
Age (N=2,416)		
18-30	748	31.0
31-40	672	27.8
41-50	573	23.7
51-65	381	15.8
65	42	1.7
Annual household income (N=2,416)		
\$75,000-\$99,999	443	18.3
\$100,000-\$124,999	447	18.5
\$125,000-\$149,999	378	15.6
\$150,000-\$174,999	332	13.7
\$175,000-\$199,999	290	12.0
\$200,000-\$224,999	208	8.6
\$225,000-\$249,999	91	3.8
\$250,000-\$499,999	73	3.0
\$500,000 or more	52	2.2
Not sure/rather not say	102	4.2
Marital status (N=2,416)		
Single, never married	389	16.1
Living with partner/significant other	498	20.6
Rather not say	95	3.9
Divorced/separated	68	2.8
Widowed	31	1.3
Living with friends	74	3.1
Married	1,261	52.2
Employment status (N=2,416)		
Employed full time	615	25.5
Employed part time	222	9.2
Retired	489	20.2
Full time homemaker	750	31.0
Unemployed	340	14.1
Student enrollment (N=2,416)		
Yes, part time	55	2.3
Yes, full time	13	0.5
No	2,348	97.2

Gender

A majority (73.8%) of respondents were male. Males accounted for 1,784 of the 2,416 respondents, compared to 632 females (26.2%).

Age

The ages of the international tourists ranged from 18 to over 65 years. A majority of the respondents were between the ages of 18 and 50 (82.5%). Respondents between the ages of 18 and 30 represented 31.0% of the sample, while 27.8% was between the ages of 31-40, and 23.7% were between the ages of 41-50. Only 15.8% of the sample were between the ages of 51-65 and 1.7% were 65 years and older.

Annual Household Income

The reported total annual household income in 2009 before taxes for the overall sample ranged from \$75,000-\$500,000+. A majority had an annual household income between \$75,000 and \$199,999 (78.2%). Only 2.2% of the sample had an annual household income of \$500,000 or more. While 18.5% of the sample had an annual household income between \$100,000 and \$124,999, 18.3% had an annual household income between \$75,000 and \$99,999. Approximately 16% of international travelers had an annual household income of \$125,000-\$149,999. Almost 14% had an annual household income of \$150,000-\$174,999 and 12.0% had an annual household income between \$175,000 and \$199,999. Only 8.6% reported an annual household income between \$200,000 and \$224,999, while 3.8% had an annual household income of \$225,000-\$249,999 and 3.0% had an annual household income of \$250,000-\$499,999.

Marital Status

A majority of the international tourists were married (52.2%). Individuals who were living with a partner/significant other represented 20.6% of the sample. Single, never married respondents made up 16.1% of the sample; while 3.9% indicated that they would rather not specify their marital status. Of those surveyed, 3.1% were living with friends, 2.8% were divorced/separated, and 1.3% was widowed.

Employment Status

The employment statuses of the respondents varied. Full time homemakers/self employed respondents represented 31.0% of the sample, while 25.5% were employed full time. Retired individuals made up 20.2% of the sample, compared to 14.1% unemployed. Only 9.2% of the sample was employed part time.

Student Enrollment

The respondents were asked to indicate if they were currently enrolled at the college or university level. A majority of the sample of the international travelers, 97.2%, were not enrolled at the college or university level. Only 2.3% indicated that they were a part time student and 0.5% indicated that they were a full time student.

Sample Profile by Country

The overall sample size for this study was 2,416 international travelers from the emerging growth market of international tourists to the United States. Respondents from India represented 20.7% of the sample (500 respondents). Brazilian tourists made up 20.0% of the sample (483 respondents). Respondents from Korea and China each represented 19.8% of the sample (479 respondents from each country), while Australians represented 19.7% of the sample (475 respondents). The following section describes the socio-demographics of the respondents by country.

Table 4-2. Country profile

Country	Frequency	Valid %
India	500	20.7
Brazil	483	20.0
Korea	479	19.8
China	479	19.8
Australia	475	19.7

The sample profile within each of the five countries studied is provided in Table 4-3. The table includes the percentages within each country for each socio-

demographic characteristic. Also, the overall sample profile percentage is provided in the “Total” column for comparison purposes.

Table 4-3. Sample profile by country

Socio-demographic characteristics	India	Australia	Brazil	Korea	China	Total
Gender						
Male	76.0	71.4	72.7	73.9	75.2	73.8
Female	24.0	28.6	27.3	26.1	24.8	26.2
Age						
18-30	29.8	23.6	43.3	30.3	27.8	31.0
31-40	29.2	25.1	23.6	30.1	31.1	27.8
41-50	21.0	26.9	17.6	24.2	29.0	23.7
51-65	18.0	21.9	13.9	13.4	11.7	15.8
65+	2.0	2.5	1.7	2.1	0.4	1.7
Annual household income						
\$75,000-\$99,999	15.0	2.7	25.5	23.8	24.6	18.3
\$100,000-\$124,999	14.6	8.6	23.8	22.3	23.2	18.5
\$125,000-\$149,999	11.4	12.4	14.7	19.4	20.5	15.6
\$150,000-\$174,999	14.6	17.7	11.8	15.9	8.8	13.7
\$175,000-\$199,999	11.8	27.8	7.7	5.4	7.5	12.0
\$200,000-\$224,999	7.8	17.5	6.4	7.9	3.5	8.6
\$225,000-\$249,999	6.4	5.7	2.3	3.5	0.8	3.8
\$250,000-\$499,999	6.4	3.4	2.3	0.8	2.1	3.0
\$500,000 or more	4.6	2.3	1.7	0.4	1.7	2.2
Not sure/rather not say	7.4	1.9	3.9	0.4	7.3	4.2
Marital status						
Single, never married	12.6	19.6	21.5	12.5	14.4	16.1
Living with partner	15.4	25.9	19.7	17.5	24.8	20.6
Rather not say	8.8	3.4	0.6	4.4	2.3	3.9
Divorced/separated	2.0	2.9	4.6	0.8	3.8	2.8
Widowed	0.8	1.5	1.2	0.4	2.5	1.3
Living with friends	5.4	1.9	2.5	1.0	4.4	3.1
Married	55.0	44.8	49.9	63.3	47.8	52.2
Employment status						
Employed full time	13.8	28.0	30.8	19.6	35.5	25.5
Employed part time	2.6	12.4	9.7	12.7	8.8	9.2
Retired	34.8	9.1	14.7	18.4	23.6	20.2
Full time homemaker	34.2	36.8	28.0	29.4	26.7	31.0
Unemployed	14.6	13.7	16.8	19.8	5.4	14.1
Student enrollment						
Yes, part time	11.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.3
Yes, full time	0.8	0.0	0.2	1.0	0.6	0.5
No	88.2	100.0	99.8	99.0	99.4	97.2

Note: Columns with country titles include percent within country
Abbreviations: Living with partner: Living with partner/significant other

Gender

A majority of the individuals surveyed from each country were males (India: 76.0%, Australia: 71.4%, Brazil: 72.7%, Korea: 73.9%, China: 75.2%). When compared

to the percentage of males surveyed within each country, the highest percentage of female respondents came from Australia (28.6%). The lowest percentage of female respondents, as compared to the percentage of males surveyed within each country, came from India (24.0%).

Age

The distribution of age among the five countries varied. The youngest respondents, between the ages of 18 and 30, tended to be from Brazil (43.3%). In contrast, respondents between 51 and 65 years old tended to be from Australia (21.9%) and India (18.0%). Respondents between the ages of 31 and 50 years old tended to be from China (31-40: 31.1%, 41-50: 29.0%).

Annual Household Income

The annual household income of the respondents varied among the five countries investigated. India seemed to have a slightly higher income than the other countries, with 11.0% of international travelers from India having an annual household income of \$250,000-\$499,999 and \$500,000 or more. The annual household income bracket with the most respondents from Brazil (49.3%), Korea (46.1%), and China (47.8%) was between \$75,000 and \$124,999. In comparison, a majority of Australians (63.0%) had an annual household income between \$150,000 and \$224,999.

Marital Status

Similar to other socio-demographic characteristics, the marital status of respondents varied among the different countries. While a majority of those surveyed from each country were married, Koreans were the most likely to be married (63.3%). Brazilian (21.5%) and Australian (19.6%) tourists were the most likely to be single and never married. The countries with the highest tendencies of living with a

partner/significant other were Australia (25.9%) and China (24.8%). Koreans were the least likely to be divorced (0.8%).

Employment Status

The employment status of respondents varied depending on their country of origin. Respondents from China were the most likely to be full time employees (35.5%). While Koreans (12.7%) and Australians (12.4%) had the highest tendencies of part time employment, Indian tourists (2.6%) had the lowest tendency of part time employment. The most retired individuals came from India (34.8%). In the overall sample, many respondents were full time homemakers/self employed. The countries with the highest tendencies for being full time homemakers/self employed were Australia (36.8%) and India (34.2%). China had the lowest percentage of unemployment (5.4%) and Koreans had the highest percentage of unemployment (19.8%) among international tourists from the top emerging international markets to the U.S. tourism industry.

Student Enrollment

Consistent with the overall sample, a majority of the international travelers from each country were not enrolled at the college or university level (India: 88.2%, Australia: 100.0%, Brazil: 99.8%, Korea: 99.0%, China: 99.4%). Also, very few international travelers from each of the countries were full time students (India: 0.8%, Australia: 0.0%, Brazil: 0.2%, Korea: 1.0%, China: 0.6%) and the only country with respondents who were part time students was India (11.0%).

Descriptive Analysis

This section includes descriptive analysis of the variables examined in this study. Descriptive analysis of the independent variable past travel experience is presented below. However, demographics (age, gender, marital status), along with country of

origin (representing cultural differences) were presented above in Tables 4-1 and 4-2.

The dependent variables are also presented individually.

Independent Variables

Past international travel experience to the U.S. within past 12 months

Approximately half of the respondents had taken only one trip to the United States in the past year; while approximately one-quarter (25.9%) had taken 2 trips to the U.S. within the past 12 months. In total, approximately half of the respondents had taken between two and ten trips to the United States within the past 12 months. The mean of this variable was 2.17 past trips to the U.S. within the past 12 months.

Measures of the past international travel experience to the United States within the past 12 months are provided in Table 4-4.

Table 4-4. Past international travel experience to the U.S. within past 12 months

Number of trips	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Mean	Standard deviation
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%		
	50.1	25.9	7.2	7.2	3.5	1.6	1.2	1.3	0.4	1.4	2.17	1.820

Dependent Variables

Likelihood to travel to the U.S. within next year

Approximately one in three respondents (31.6%) indicated that it was very likely that they would travel to the U.S. within a year of completing the survey, while approximately 18% had already booked their next trip to the United States, which will be taken within the next year. Therefore, half of the respondents indicated that they were very likely or had already made plans to make a return trip to the U.S. within the next year. The mean for this variable was 4.12, where 4 represented that the tourists were “somewhat likely” to make a return trip to the U.S. in the next year. Descriptive analysis of the likelihood to travel to the U.S. is provided in Table 4-5.

Table 4-5. Likelihood to travel to the U.S. within next year

Likelihood to travel	1	2	3	4	5	6	Mean	Standard deviation
% of total	8.4	8.4	14.7	18.5	31.6	18.4	4.12	1.510

Note: 1 = not sure, 2 = not at all likely, 3 = not too likely, 4 = somewhat likely, 5 = very likely, 6 = definitely, my trip is already booked

Perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S.

Overall, respondents were neutral on the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. Of the twelve crisis types, disease (i.e. SARS) was the risk type that was perceived as the most likely to occur ($\mu = 3.31$). Financial crises and crime were the crisis types that were perceived to be the next most likely to occur while traveling in the U.S. ($\mu = 3.13$). International travelers perceived cultural barriers to be the third most likely crisis type to occur while traveling in the U.S. ($\mu = 2.98$). While natural disasters were perceived to be the least likely crisis to occur ($\mu = 2.34$) by international travelers, health-related crises and terrorism were also not perceived to be very likely to occur while traveling in the United States ($\mu = 2.54$). Tourists' perceptions of the likelihood of a crisis occurring while traveling in the U.S. are provided in Table 4-6.

Table 4-6. Perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring

Crisis type	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	Standard deviation
Disease	11.1	11.0	34.8	21.6	21.5	3.31	1.238
Crime	11.3	16.3	35.4	21.8	15.1	3.13	1.193
Financial	15.9	17.9	23.2	23.1	19.8	3.13	1.350
Cultural barriers	10.9	17.9	42.5	19.8	8.8	2.98	1.080
Physical	14.2	16.1	43.6	16.9	9.1	2.91	1.121
Food safety	19.9	16.1	33.8	19.7	10.5	2.85	1.245
Political	11.8	21.6	51.2	9.9	5.5	2.76	0.972
Weather	14.7	23.2	45.6	8.9	7.6	2.72	1.064
Equipment failure	20.9	29.0	31.7	11.3	7.0	2.55	1.147
Terrorism	17.1	27.6	42.3	9.7	3.2	2.54	0.989
Health	19.2	26.1	41.0	8.5	5.2	2.54	1.055
Natural disasters	28.5	22.4	38.6	8.0	2.5	2.34	1.051

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Likelihood of social media use during a crisis

Tourists indicated that they were most likely to turn to local law enforcement ($\mu = 3.40$) to get information if a crisis were to occur within the immediate vicinity of a destination. Friends and relatives ($\mu = 3.27$) and the Internet ($\mu = 3.24$) were the next most likely sources sought to receive information about a crisis while traveling. Out of the fifteen sources provided in the survey instrument, social media ($\mu = 3.21$) was the fifth most likely source that tourists would turn to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling. Interestingly, social media use was more likely than turning to television ($\mu = 3.18$). Tourists were least likely to seek information from the radio ($\mu = 2.45$) and newspaper ($\mu = 2.57$). It is also important to note that the likelihood that tourists' would turn to local tourism offices ($\mu = 2.58$) and state tourism offices ($\mu = 2.65$) was only slightly higher than newspaper. The results of the question related to the likelihood that tourists would use specific sources to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling are presented in Table 4-7.

Table 4-7. Likelihood of social media use during a crisis

Information source	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	Standard deviation
Local law enforcement	8.7	14.7	24.1	33.3	19.3	3.40	1.200
Friends/relatives	10.2	16.0	29.5	25.4	18.9	3.27	1.228
Internet	8.8	18.0	29.9	26.6	16.6	3.24	1.186
Hotel concierge	10.2	19.1	27.3	25.3	18.1	3.22	1.236
Social media	9.1	16.6	34.2	24.6	15.5	3.21	1.164
Television	11.3	18.7	28.2	24.8	17.1	3.18	1.240
Text messages	10.6	21.0	27.3	23.6	17.4	3.16	1.242
Consulate general/embassy	12.1	21.9	25.7	23.3	16.9	3.11	1.266
Travel agents	9.4	22.0	32.1	22.0	14.6	3.10	1.178
Local residents	12.5	25.9	32.9	17.0	11.7	2.90	1.177
Other tourists	17.4	28.4	26.2	18.7	9.3	2.74	1.213
State tourism office (STO)	10.8	32.5	41.3	12.0	3.5	2.65	0.945
Local tourism office (CVB)	14.9	32.7	37.7	9.1	5.6	2.58	1.030
Newspaper	22.3	25.9	31.9	12.3	7.7	2.57	1.182
Radio	16.4	36.3	36.1	8.2	3.1	2.45	0.961

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Findings and Analysis of Research Questions and Subsequent Hypotheses

Summary of Findings for Research Questions 1-3 (Hypotheses 1, 2): Likelihood to Travel

Research question 1 (hypothesis 1)

Research question 1 sought to find the relationship between past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months and the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the likelihood to travel for tourists who had taken only one trip to the U.S. within the past year and tourists who had taken more than one trip to the U.S. within the past year.

Table 4-8. Independent-samples t-test of past international travel experience and likelihood to travel to the U.S.

Number of trips	N	Mean	t	Sig.
More than 1 trip in past year	1139	3.85		
Only 1 trip	1073	2.93	-18.823	.000

Note: 1 = not sure, 2 = not at all likely, 3 = not too likely, 4 = somewhat likely, 5 = very likely, 6 = definitely, my trip is already booked

There was a significant difference in the mean scores of tourists who had only taken one trip ($\mu = 2.93$, $SD = 1.10$) and those who had taken more than one trip to the U.S. in the past year ($\mu = 3.85$, $SD = 1.18$); $t(2210) = -18.83$, $p = .000$ (two-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in means (mean difference = $-.91$, 95% CI: -1.01 to $-.82$) was large (eta squared = $.14$). The results revealed that those who had taken more than one trip to the U.S. within the past year ($\mu = 3.85$) were more likely to travel to the U.S. in the next year than those who had only taken one trip in the past year ($\mu = 2.93$).

Hypothesis 1 stated that past international travel experience is positively associated with the likelihood to travel to the U.S. in the upcoming year. This hypothesis was not rejected. Thus, we conclude that those who have traveled to the U.S. more in the past year are more likely to travel to the United States in the upcoming year.

Research question 2 (no related hypothesis)

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the relationship between cultural differences and the likelihood to travel to the United States in the upcoming year.

Table 4-9. ANOVA of cultural differences and likelihood to travel to the U.S.

	India mean	Australia mean	Brazil mean	Korea mean	China mean	Total mean	F	Sig.
Likelihood to travel	3.11	4.25	4.44	4.35	4.47	4.12	80.949	.000

Note: 1 = not sure, 2 = not at all likely, 3 = not too likely, 4 = somewhat likely, 5 = very likely, 6 = definitely, my trip is already booked

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the likelihood to travel scores for the cultures: $F(4, 2411) = 80.95, p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .12. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey's HSD test indicated that the mean score for India ($\mu = 3.11, SD = 1.12$) was significantly lower than Australia ($\mu = 4.25, SD = 1.46$), Brazil ($\mu = 4.44, SD = 1.53$), Korea ($\mu = 4.35, SD = 1.45$), and China ($\mu = 4.47, SD = 1.50$).

Of the five countries that were investigated in this study, Chinese tourists were the most likely to travel to the U.S. within the next year ($\mu = 4.47$). Brazilian tourists were the second most likely to travel to the U.S. within the next year ($\mu = 4.44$), followed by Koreans ($\mu = 4.35$) and Australians ($\mu = 4.25$). Tourists from India indicated that they were the least likely to make a return trip to the U.S. within the next year ($\mu = 3.11$).

Research question 3 (hypothesis 2)

The relationship between demographics (age, gender, marital status) and the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year was the focus of research question 3.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the relationship between age and the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year.

Table 4-10. ANOVA of age and likelihood to travel to the U.S.

	18-30 Mean	31-40 Mean	41-50 Mean	51-65 Mean	65+ Mean	Total Mean	F	Sig.
Likelihood to travel	3.83	4.00	4.36	4.50	4.29	4.12	17.975	.000

Note: 1 = not sure, 2 = not at all likely, 3 = not too likely, 4 = somewhat likely, 5 = very likely, 6 = definitely, my trip is already booked

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the likelihood to travel scores for the age groups: $F(4, 2411) = 17.98, p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .03. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey's HSD test indicated that the mean score for 41-50 ($\mu = 4.36, SD = 1.40$) was significantly higher than 18-30 ($M = 3.83, SD = 1.56$) and 31-40 ($\mu = 4.00, SD = 1.43$). The age group 51-65 ($\mu = 4.50, SD = 1.55$) was also significantly higher than 18-30 ($\mu = 3.83, SD = 1.56$) and 31-40 ($\mu = 4.00, SD = 1.43$) for the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year.

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to explore the relationship between gender and the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year.

Table 4-11. Independent-samples t-test of gender and likelihood to travel to the U.S.

	Male Mean	Female Mean	t	Sig.
Likelihood to travel	4.09	4.18	-1.306	.192

Note: 1 = not sure, 2 = not at all likely, 3 = not too likely, 4 = somewhat likely, 5 = very likely, 6 = definitely, my trip is already booked

There were not statistically significant differences at $p < .05$ level in the likelihood to travel scores for the gender groups: $t(1164) = -1.31, p = .192$. There was no actual difference in mean scores between the groups. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .00.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the relationship between marital status and the likelihood to travel to the U.S. for leisure purposes within the next year.

Table 4-12. ANOVA of marital status and likelihood to travel to the U.S.

	Single, never married mean	Living with partner mean	Divorced/ separated mean	Widowed Mean	Living with friends mean	Married mean	Total mean	F	Sig.
Likelihood to travel	3.83	3.67	3.91	4.13	3.34	3.11	3.41	33.478	.000

Note: 1 = not sure, 2 = not at all likely, 3 = not too likely, 4 = somewhat likely, 5 = very likely, 6 = definitely, my trip is already booked

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the likelihood to travel scores for the marital status groups: $F(5, 2113) = 33.48, p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was considered to have a moderate effect. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .07. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score of the likelihood to travel to the United States of those living with friends ($\mu = 3.34, SD = 1.35$) was significantly lower than respondents who were single, never married ($\mu = 3.83, SD = 1.30$) and widowed ($\mu = 4.13, SD = 1.28$). Also, post hoc Tukey HSD test revealed that the mean likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year for married respondents ($\mu = 3.11, SD = 1.08$) was significantly lower than respondents who were single, never married ($\mu = 3.83, SD = 1.30$), living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.67, SD = 1.23$), divorced/separated ($\mu = 3.91, SD = 1.30$), and widowed ($\mu = 4.13, SD = 1.28$).

The relationship between demographics and the likelihood to travel to the U.S. in the next 12 months revealed that overall, individuals of the peak earning age tended to be the most likely to plan on making a return trip to the United States within the next

year, when compared to younger respondents. Individuals between the ages of 51 and 65 were the most likely ($\mu = 4.50$), followed by those between 41 and 50 years old ($\mu = 4.36$) and 65 and older ($\mu = 4.29$). Respondents between the ages of 18 and 30 were the least likely to plan on returning to the U.S. within the next year ($\mu = 3.83$). While females were slightly more likely to travel to the U.S. within the next 12 months than males ($\mu = 4.18$; $\mu = 4.09$), there was not a statistically significant difference between the intentions for future travel among the gender groups.

Respondents who were widowed were the most likely to make a trip to the U.S. in the next year ($\mu = 4.13$). Divorced/separated respondents ($\mu = 3.91$) were the second most likely to express interest in traveling to the U.S. within the next year, followed by those who were single, never married ($\mu = 3.83$), living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.67$), and living with friends ($\mu = 3.34$). Those who were married were the least likely to express interest in making a trip to the U.S. in the next year ($\mu = 3.11$).

Hypothesis 2 stated that age is inversely related to the likelihood to travel to the United States in the upcoming year. This hypothesis was rejected. Thus, we infer that adults of the peak earning age (51-65 and 41-50) are more likely to indicate interest to travel to the United States in the upcoming year.

Summary of findings related to likelihood to travel

Table 4-13 summarizes the findings of research questions 1-3. Specifically, the table summarizes the relationships between past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months, cultural differences, age, gender, and marital status and the likelihood to travel to the U.S. in the next 12 months. Each mean score is in relation to the dependent variable.

Table 4-13. Summary for likelihood to travel to the U.S. within next year

Independent variables	Mean	Standard deviation
Past international travel experience		
More than 1 trip	3.85	1.18
Only 1 trip	2.93	1.10
Cultural differences		
China	4.47	1.50
Brazil	4.44	1.53
Korea	4.35	1.45
Australia	4.25	1.46
India	3.11	1.12
Age		
51-65	4.50	1.55
41-50	4.36	1.40
65+	4.29	1.61
31-40	4.00	1.43
18-30	3.83	1.56
Gender		
Female	4.18	1.45
Male	4.09	1.53
Marital Status		
Widowed	4.13	1.28
Divorced/separated	3.91	1.30
Single, never married	3.83	1.30
Living with partner/significant other	3.67	1.23
Living with friends	3.34	1.35
Married	3.11	1.08

* $p < .01$, ** $p < .05$

Note: 1 = not sure, 2 = not at all likely, 3 = not too likely, 4 = somewhat likely, 5 = very likely, 6 = definitely, my trip is already booked

Summary of Findings for Research Questions 4-6 (Hypotheses 3, 4, 5): Perception of the Likelihood of a Crisis Occurring

Research question 4 (hypothesis 3)

Independent- sample t-tests were conducted to compare the perception of the likelihood of twelve crisis types occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. for tourists who had taken only one trip to the U.S. within the past year and tourists who had taken more than one trip to the U.S. within the past year. Independent-samples t-tests were performed to explore the relationship between past international travel experience and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States for each of the twelve crisis/risk types.

Table 4-14. Independent-samples t-test of past international travel experience and perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring

Crisis type	Only 1 trip Mean	More than 1 trip Mean	t	Sig.
Financial	3.02	3.24	-4.123	.000
Disease	3.00	3.63	-12.853	.000
Crime	2.88	3.38	-10.492	.000
Cultural barriers	2.82	3.14	-7.366	.000
Physical	2.78	3.03	-5.470	.000
Food safety	2.66	3.03	-7.471	.000
Weather	2.53	2.90	-8.825	.000
Political	2.50	3.01	-13.459	.000
Terrorism	2.33	2.76	-10.986	.000
Health	2.33	2.75	-9.893	.000
Natural disasters	2.23	2.44	-4.783	.000
Equipment failure	2.21	2.88	-14.858	.000

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Tourists who had only taken one trip to the U.S. in the past year were less likely to express the perception of the likelihood of a crisis happening while on a vacation in the United States than those who had taken more than one trip to the U.S. in the past year across all crisis types. This was found for each of the twelve crisis/risk types. Additional information about the analysis of this research question by each crisis type can be found in Appendix C.

Hypothesis 3 stated that there is an inverse relationship between past international travel experience and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. This hypothesis was rejected. This study found that those with more international travel experience to the U.S. in the past year were more likely to indicate that they perceived that a crisis would occur during an upcoming trip to the United States, across all twelve crisis/risk types. It can be inferred that those with more past experience are more involved in the travel experience. With a greater extent of past travel experience and involvement, travelers are likely to be more familiar with the travel experience, including various types of risk associated with travel. Also, we know that tourists often match their information search requirements to their

risk perceptions (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). Thus, those who have higher risk perceptions are likely to be exposed to more media coverage related to travel. Furthermore, negative media coverage can also impact the extent of perceived risk (Sönmez, 1998). Thus, familiarity via past travel experience and information search are likely to contribute to higher level of perceived risk associated with travel.

Research question 5 (hypothesis 4)

The relationship between cultural differences and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. was the focus of research question 5. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with post hoc tests was conducted to explore the relationship between cultural differences and each of the twelve items associated with the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring.

Table 4-15. ANOVA of cultural differences and perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring

Crisis type	India mean	Australia mean	Brazil mean	Korea mean	China mean	Total mean	F	Sig.
Disease	3.06	3.37	3.26	3.22	3.68	3.31	17.140	.000
Crime	3.03	3.25	3.24	3.07	3.06	3.13	3.898	.004
Financial	3.78	3.59	2.48	2.42	3.36	3.13	129.682	.000
Cultural barriers	2.95	2.69	2.68	3.18	3.38	2.98	40.671	.000
Physical	3.18	2.77	2.69	3.48	2.40	2.91	78.947	.000
Food safety	3.20	3.41	2.70	2.41	2.51	2.85	66.818	.000
Political	2.48	2.54	3.24	2.82	2.71	2.76	50.535	.000
Weather	2.48	3.33	2.59	2.69	2.51	2.72	56.947	.000
Equip. failure	2.28	2.08	2.69	2.70	2.98	2.55	51.522	.000
Terrorism	2.46	2.55	2.70	2.46	2.56	2.54	4.748	.001
Health	2.89	2.08	2.66	2.43	2.62	2.54	41.337	.000
Nat. disasters	2.51	2.10	2.55	2.35	2.16	2.34	18.024	.000

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Abbreviations: Equip failure: Equipment failure; Nat. disasters: Natural disasters

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed statistically significant relationships between cultural differences and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring while traveling in the U.S. for each of the twelve crisis types. The cultures varied on their perceptions of the likelihood of a crisis occurring, with different cultures

placing higher perceptions on certain crisis/risk types than others. Tahmane's T2 post hoc tests were utilized and descriptions of the results can be found in Appendix C.

The perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring while on an upcoming leisure trip to the U.S. varied depending on the tourists' culture/country of origin. Brazilian tourists had the highest average perception of the likelihood of terrorism occurring while traveling in the U.S. ($\mu = 2.70$), while Indian and Korean tourists had the lowest perception of the likelihood of terrorism occurring ($\mu = 2.46$). The perception of the likelihood of encountering crime during an upcoming trip to the U.S. was highest among Australian ($\mu = 3.25$) and Brazilian tourists ($\mu = 3.24$) and lowest among Indian tourists ($\mu = 3.03$). Brazilian tourists perceived the highest likelihood of a natural disaster occurring while on a trip in the U.S. ($\mu = 2.55$) and Australian tourists had the lowest perception of this risk ($\mu = 2.10$). Chinese tourists had the highest perception of a disease-related crisis occurring while traveling in the U.S. ($\mu = 3.68$), while Indian tourists had the lowest perception of the likelihood of a disease-related crisis occurring during travel in the United States ($\mu = 3.06$).

Encountering a food safety crisis was perceived to be the most likely by Australian tourists ($\mu = 3.41$). In contrast, Korean tourists had the lowest average perception of the likelihood of food safety issues while traveling in the U.S. ($\mu = 2.41$). Korean tourists had the lowest average perception of the likelihood of a financial crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the U.S. ($\mu = 2.42$), while Indian tourists had the highest perception of the likelihood of this crisis type ($\mu = 3.78$). The highest average perception of the likelihood of a health-related crisis occurring came from Indian tourists ($\mu = 2.89$) and Australian tourists had the lowest perception of the

likelihood of this crisis type ($\mu = 2.08$). For the likelihood of the occurrence of a physical crisis, the highest perceptions were found among Korean tourists ($\mu = 3.48$) and the lowest perceptions were found among Chinese tourists ($\mu = 2.40$).

Chinese tourists tended to have the highest perception of the likelihood of equipment failure ($\mu = 2.98$) and Australian tourists had the lowest perception of the likelihood of this type of crisis ($\mu = 2.08$). For the likelihood of a weather-related crisis, the highest average perceptions came from Australians ($\mu = 3.33$) and the lowest average perceptions were from Indian tourists ($\mu = 2.48$). Chinese tourists were the most likely to perceive the likelihood of encountering cultural barriers while on a leisure trip to the U.S. ($\mu = 3.38$), while Brazilians had the lowest perception of the likelihood of this type of crisis occurring ($\mu = 2.68$). Indian tourists had the lowest perception of the likelihood of a political crisis occurring ($\mu = 2.48$) and Brazilian tourists had the highest average perception of the likelihood of a political crisis ($\mu = 3.24$).

Hypothesis 4 indicated that cultures with values more similar to the U.S., as measured by their Hofstede score, would be less likely to indicate the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip in the United States. This hypothesis was rejected. In fact, there does not appear to be a correlation between overall cultural similarities to the U.S. and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during a trip. Travelers from the different countries perceived certain risks to be higher than others. In summary, Australians (most similar to U.S. culture) rated the perception of the likelihood of three of the twelve crisis types the highest among the cultures examined. On the other hand, South Koreans (least similar to U.S. culture) rated highest on only one of the twelve crisis types. Brazilians and Chinese each had

the highest ratings for three crisis types, while travelers from India had the highest ratings for two crisis types.

Research question 6 (hypothesis 5)

The relationship between demographics (age, gender, marital status) and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. was the central focus of research question 6. Separate one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to explore the relationship between age and the twelve items associated with the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during travel in the United States.

Table 4-16. ANOVA of age and perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring

Crisis type	18-30 Mean	31-40 mean	41-50 mean	51-65 mean	65+ mean	Total mean	F	Sig.
Disease	3.08	3.09	3.90	3.43	1.98	3.31	63.722	.000
Crime	2.93	2.96	3.64	3.20	1.83	3.13	51.872	.000
Financial	2.85	2.91	3.76	3.28	1.76	3.13	60.832	.000
Cultural barriers	2.82	2.85	3.45	2.97	1.52	2.98	57.351	.000
Physical	2.74	2.76	3.34	2.92	2.02	2.91	36.892	.000
Food safety	2.60	2.60	3.39	3.06	1.90	2.85	54.392	.000
Political	2.64	2.60	3.12	2.80	2.02	2.76	34.798	.000
Weather	2.54	2.57	3.13	2.79	1.71	2.72	42.491	.000
Equipment failure	2.42	2.37	2.97	2.56	1.62	2.55	34.157	.000
Terrorism	2.42	2.41	2.90	2.56	1.95	2.54	29.692	.000
Health	2.44	2.47	2.83	2.55	1.64	2.54	21.197	.000
Natural disasters	2.27	2.22	2.67	2.23	1.86	2.34	21.230	.000

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of terrorism occurring scores for all age groups. In fact, across all twelve crisis types, the age group 41-50 indicated the greatest perceptions of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States. Post hoc comparisons using the Tahmane’s T2 and Tukey HSD tests indicated that the mean scores for the 41-50 age group was significantly higher than any other age group across

all twelve crisis/risk type categories. Details of the results from the post hoc tests can be found in Appendix C.

Research question 6 also sought to explore the relationship between gender and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during a trip in the United States. To test this relationship, independent-samples t-tests were conducted for each of twelve items associated with the perception of the likelihood of crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States dependent variable.

Table 4-17. Independent-samples t-test of gender and perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring

Crisis type	Male mean	Female Mean	Total mean	t	Sig.
Disease	3.32	3.31	3.31	.023	.880
Crime	3.12	3.17	3.13	.950	.330
Financial	3.15	3.08	3.13	1.031	.310
Cultural barriers	2.98	2.97	2.98	.018	.895
Physical	2.92	2.87	2.91	.931	.335
Food safety	2.84	2.88	2.85	.527	.468
Political	2.76	2.76	2.76	.007	.931
Weather	2.73	2.68	2.72	1.236	.266
Equipment failure	2.56	2.50	2.55	1.618	.203
Terrorism	2.54	2.55	2.54	.004	.953
Health	2.56	2.50	2.54	1.762	.184
Natural disasters	2.34	2.32	2.34	.299	.585

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

For all twelve crisis types, there were no statistically significant differences in the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the U.S. for male and female international travelers. Therefore, we conclude that gender does not influence the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to explore the relationship between marital status and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during travel in the United States.

Table 4-18. ANOVA of marital status and perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring

Crisis type	Single, never married mean	Living with partner Mean	Divorced/separated mean	Widowed Mean	Living with friends mean	Married mean	Total mean	F	Sig.
Disease	3.31	3.89	3.63	3.71	4.04	3.02	3.31	46.598	.000
Crime	2.99	3.72	3.26	3.39	3.99	2.87	3.13	49.291	.000
Financial	3.04	3.74	3.37	3.45	4.19	2.79	3.11	52.549	.000
Cult. barr.	2.90	3.43	3.07	3.23	3.62	2.77	2.97	35.388	.000
Physical	2.80	3.29	2.91	2.94	3.34	2.74	2.90	20.818	.000
Food safety	2.93	3.41	3.04	3.10	3.61	2.51	2.83	49.387	.000
Political	2.76	3.20	3.00	2.81	3.09	2.54	2.76	38.172	.000
Weather	2.62	3.25	2.69	2.68	3.16	2.51	2.72	40.739	.000
Eq. failure	2.63	3.00	2.90	2.97	3.27	2.27	2.55	41.459	.000
Health	2.46	2.94	2.59	2.65	3.08	2.37	2.54	25.039	.000
Terrorism	2.51	2.97	2.71	2.58	2.82	2.36	2.54	30.062	.000
Nat. disaster	2.27	2.65	2.28	2.26	2.78	2.21	2.34	15.571	.000

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Abbreviations: Cult. barr.: Cultural barriers; Eq. failure: Equipment failure; Nat. disaster: Natural disasters

Across all of the twelve crisis/risk types, statistical relationships were found between marital status and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. Respondents who were married were less likely to indicate that they perceived that all twelve types of crises could occur during an upcoming trip than those who were single, never married, living with a partner/significant other, divorced/separated, widowed, or living with friends. For eleven of the twelve crisis types, single, never married international travelers had the second lowest perceptions of the likelihood of a crisis occurring while traveling.

Those who were living with friends indicated the highest perceptions that a crisis could happen during a trip in the U.S. across nine of the twelve crisis types and those living with a partner/significant other had the highest perceptions of the likelihood of a crisis occurring for three crisis types. Widowed travelers had the third highest perceptions of the likelihood of a crisis occurring for eight crisis types. Finally, divorced/separated international travelers had the fourth highest perceptions of the

likelihood of a crisis occurring while on a trip in the U.S. for eight crisis types. Post hoc results for the relationship between marital status and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip in the U.S. can be found in Appendix C.

For each of the twelve crisis types, tourists between the ages of 41 and 50 years old had the highest average perceptions of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States. With the exception of natural disasters, tourists between 51 and 65 years old had the second highest average perceptions of the likelihood of a crisis occurring. Tourists who were 65 years and older had the lowest average perceptions of the likelihood of a crisis occurring for each of the twelve crisis types. The relationship between gender and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during a trip in the U.S. was not statistically significant.

Married respondents had the lowest perceptions of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. across all twelve crisis types, followed by single, never married travelers for eleven of the twelve crisis types. The marital status groups with the highest perceptions of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during a trip in the U.S. were living with friends and living with a partner/significant other.

Hypothesis 5 indicated that age is positively associated with the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring. This hypothesis was not rejected, thus we can expect that those who are in their peak earning years express a greater concern with encountering a crisis while traveling in the United States.

Summary of findings related to perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring

The following table summarizes the findings of research questions 4-6. Each mean score is in relation to the dependent variable.

Table 4-19. Summary for perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring

Independent variables	Ter. mean	Cri. mean	N.D. mean	Dis. Mean	F.S. mean	Fin. mean	Hea. mean	Phy. mean	E.F. mean	Wea. mean	C.B. mean	Pol. mean
Past travel experience												
Only 1 trip	2.33	2.88	2.23	3.00	2.66	3.02	2.33	2.78	2.21	2.53	2.82	2.50
More than 1 trip	2.76	3.38	2.44	3.63	3.03	3.24	2.75	3.03	2.88	2.90	3.14	3.01
Cultural differences												
India	2.46	3.03	2.51	3.06	3.20	3.78	2.89	3.18	2.28	2.48	2.95	2.48
Australia	2.55	3.25	2.10	3.37	3.41	3.59	2.08	2.77	2.08	3.33	2.69	2.54
Brazil	2.70	3.24	2.55	3.26	2.70	2.48	2.66	2.69	2.69	2.59	2.68	3.24
Korea	2.46	3.07	2.35	3.22	2.41	2.42	2.43	3.48	2.70	2.69	3.18	2.82
China	2.56	3.06	2.16	3.68	2.51	3.36	2.62	2.40	2.98	2.51	3.38	2.71
Age												
18-30	2.42	2.93	2.27	3.08	2.60	2.85	2.44	2.74	2.42	2.54	2.82	2.64
31-40	2.41	2.96	2.22	3.09	2.60	2.91	2.47	2.76	2.37	2.57	2.85	2.60
41-50	2.90	3.64	2.67	3.90	3.39	3.76	2.83	3.34	2.97	3.13	3.45	3.12
51-65	2.56	3.20	2.23	3.43	3.06	3.28	2.55	2.92	2.56	2.79	2.97	2.80
65+	1.95	1.83	1.86	1.98	1.90	1.76	1.64	2.02	1.62	1.71	1.52	2.02
Gender												
Male	2.54	3.12	2.34	3.32	2.84	3.15	2.56	2.92	2.56	2.73	2.98	2.76
Female	2.55	3.17	2.32	3.31	2.88	3.08	2.50	2.87	2.50	2.68	2.97	2.76
Marital status												
Single, never married	2.51	2.99	2.27	3.31	2.93	3.04	2.46	2.80	2.63	2.62	2.90	2.76
Living with partner	2.97	3.72	2.65	3.89	3.41	3.74	2.94	3.29	3.00	3.25	3.43	3.20
Divorced/separated	2.71	3.26	2.28	3.63	3.04	3.37	2.59	2.91	2.90	2.69	3.07	3.00
Widowed	2.58	3.39	2.26	3.71	3.10	3.45	2.65	2.94	2.97	2.68	3.23	2.81
Living with friends	2.82	3.99	2.78	4.04	3.61	4.19	3.08	3.34	3.27	3.16	3.62	3.09
Married	2.36	2.87	2.21	3.02	2.51	2.79	2.37	2.74	2.27	2.51	2.77	2.54

*p<.01, **p<.05

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Abbreviations: Ter.: Terrorism; Cri.: Crime; N.D.: Natural disasters; Dis.: Disease; F.S.: Food safety; Fin.: Financial; Hea.: Health; Phy.: Physical; E.F.: Equipment failure; Wea.: Weather; C.B.: Cultural barriers; Pol.: Political; Living with partner: Living with partner/significant other

Summary of Findings for Research Questions 7-9 (Hypotheses 6, 7): Likelihood of Social Media Use during a Crisis

Research question 7 (hypothesis 6)

Research question 7 examined the relationship between past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past year and the likelihood of turning to social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling. The relationship between past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while on a trip was investigated using an independent-samples t-test.

Table 4-20. Independent-samples t-test of past international travel experience and likelihood of social media use during a crisis

Number of trips	N	Mean	t	Sig.
More than 1 trip in past year	1205	3.49	-12.027	.000
Only 1 trip	1211	2.93		

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

There was a significant difference in the scores of tourists who had only taken one trip ($\mu = 2.93$, $SD = 1.12$) and those who had taken more than one trip to the U.S. in the past year ($\mu = 3.49$, $SD = 1.15$); $t(2412) = -12.03$, $p = .000$ (two-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in means (mean difference = $-.55$, 95% CI: $-.64$ to $-.46$) was moderate (eta squared = $.06$).

Those who had taken more than one trip to the U.S. within the past 12 months were the most likely to use social media to seek information during a crisis while traveling ($\mu = 3.49$), when compared to those who had taken only 1 trip to the U.S. in the past year ($\mu = 2.93$). Therefore, we can conclude that those who have a greater extent of past travel experience to the U.S. are more likely to turn to social media to seek information if a crisis were to occur while traveling.

Hypothesis 6 indicated that past international travel experience is positively associated with the likelihood of using social media to seek information during a crisis. This hypothesis was not rejected. Thus, we can conclude that those who travel to the U.S. more frequently are more likely to use social media to seek information in a time of crisis while traveling than those who travel less frequently. Therefore, if international travelers are turning to social media for information in the event of a crisis, tourism organizations should have plans to use this communication channel to reach this audience. This finding highlights an opportunity for airlines and other tourism providers to share tourism-specific crisis information with experienced international travelers through social media.

Research question 8 (no related hypothesis)

The relationship between cultural differences and the likelihood of social media use to seek information during a crisis was explored by research question 8. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the relationship between cultural differences and the likelihood of social media use to seek information during a crisis while traveling.

Table 4-21. ANOVA of cultural differences and likelihood of social media use during a crisis

	India mean	Australia Mean	Brazil mean	Korea mean	China mean	Total mean	F	Sig.
Likelihood of social media use	2.99	3.41	3.06	3.52	3.08	3.21	20.563	.000

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the likelihood of social media use during a crisis for the cultural groups: $F(4, 2411) = 20.56, p = .000$. Tahmane’s T2 post hoc test revealed that use of social media during a crisis was significantly more likely for Australians ($\mu = 3.41, SD = .93$) than Indians ($\mu = 2.99, SD =$

1.20), Brazilians ($\mu = 3.06$, $SD = 1.15$), and Chinese ($\mu = 3.08$, $SD = 1.36$). In addition, Koreans ($\mu = 3.52$, $SD = 1.04$) were significantly more likely to indicate using social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling than those from India ($\mu = 2.99$, $SD = 1.20$), Brazil ($\mu = 3.06$, $SD = 1.15$), and China ($\mu = 3.08$, $SD = 1.36$).

Korean tourists were the most likely to use social media to seek information if a crisis were to occur while traveling ($\mu = 3.52$). Australians were the second most likely to use social media during a crisis ($\mu = 3.41$), followed by Chinese tourists ($\mu = 3.08$). Brazilians were the fourth most likely to use social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling ($\mu = 3.06$), while tourists from India were the least likely to turn to social media during a crisis ($\mu = 2.99$).

Research question 9 (hypothesis 7)

Research question 9 sought to explore the relationship between demographic variables (age, gender, marital status) and the likelihood of social media use to seek information if a crisis were to occur while traveling. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the relationship between age and the likelihood of social media use to seek information during a crisis while traveling.

Table 4-22. ANOVA of age and likelihood of social media use during a crisis

	18-30 mean	31-40 mean	41-50 mean	51-65 mean	65+ mean	Total mean	F	Sig.
Likelihood of social media use	2.97	3.04	3.76	3.28	2.00	3.21	61.368	.000

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the likelihood of social media use during a crisis for age groups: $F(4, 2411) = 61.37$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was considered to have a moderate effect. The effect size, calculated using eta

squared, was .09. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey's HSD test indicated that the mean score for 41-50 ($\mu = 3.76$, $SD = 1.08$) was significantly higher than those ages 18-30 ($\mu = 2.97$, $SD = 1.18$), 31-40 ($\mu = 3.04$, $SD = 1.09$), 51-65 ($\mu = 3.28$, $SD = 1.09$), and 65+ ($\mu = 2.00$, $SD = .73$). In addition, those ages 51-65 ($\mu = 3.28$, $SD = 1.09$) had a significantly higher likelihood of using social media in the event of a crisis while traveling than those ages 18-30 ($\mu = 2.97$, $SD = 1.18$), 31-40 ($\mu = 3.04$, $SD = 1.09$), and 65+ ($\mu = 2.00$, $SD = .73$). Respondents who were ages 65+ ($\mu = 2.00$, $SD = .73$) were significantly less likely to indicate that they would use social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling than those ages 18-30 ($\mu = 2.97$, $SD = 1.18$) and 31-40 ($\mu = 3.04$, $SD = 1.09$).

International travelers between the ages of 41 and 50 years old were found to be the most likely to use social media during a crisis while traveling in an effort to seek information ($\mu = 3.76$). Interestingly, travelers ages 18 to 30 ranked fourth out of the five groups for the likelihood to use social media in the event of a crisis while traveling ($\mu = 2.97$). Only travelers 65 years and older ($\mu = 2.00$) were less likely to use social media to seek information during a crisis while traveling than the youngest age group (18-30).

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to explore the relationship between gender and the likelihood of social media use to seek information during a crisis while traveling.

Table 4-23. Independent-samples t-test of gender and likelihood of social media use during a crisis

	Male Mean	Female mean	Total mean	t	Sig.
Likelihood of social media use	3.21	3.20	3.21	.123	.902

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

There were not statistically significant differences at $p < .05$ level in the likelihood of social media use during a crisis scores for gender groups: $t(2414) = .12, p = .902$. There was no actual difference in mean scores between the groups. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .00.

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the relationship between marital status and the likelihood of social media use to seek information if a crisis were to occur while traveling.

Table 4-24. ANOVA of marital status and likelihood of social media use during a crisis

	Single, never married mean	Living with partner mean	Divorced/ separated mean	Widowed Mean	Living with friends mean	Married mean	Total mean	F	Sig.
Likelihood of social media use	3.17	3.78	3.40	3.48	3.89	2.92	3.20	49.077	.000

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the likelihood of social media use during a crisis for marital status groups: $F(5, 2315) = 49.08, p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .10. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for single, never married ($\mu = 3.17, SD = 1.15$) was significantly lower than living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.78, SD = 1.09$) and living with friends ($\mu = 3.89, SD = .93$). Married travelers ($\mu = 2.92, SD = 1.11$) indicated a significantly lower likelihood to use social media in the event of a crisis than travelers who were single, never married ($\mu = 3.17, SD = 1.15$), living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.78, SD = 1.09$), divorced/separated ($\mu = 3.40, SD = 1.00$), or living with friends ($\mu = 3.89, SD = .93$).

Fascinatingly, respondents between the ages of 41 and 50 years old were the most likely to use social media to seek information during a crisis ($\mu = 3.76$). Additionally, those between 51 and 65 were the second most likely to use social media during a crisis ($\mu = 3.28$), followed by 31 to 40 year olds ($\mu = 3.04$) and 18 to 30 year olds ($\mu = 2.97$). Not surprisingly, tourists who were 65 years and older were the least likely to use social media to seek information if a crisis were to occur while traveling ($\mu = 2.00$). There was not a statistically significant relationship between gender and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling among international travelers from the five cultures studied.

International travelers living with friends were the most likely to use social media if a crisis were to occur within their immediate vicinity while on a trip ($\mu = 3.89$). Travelers who were living with a partner/significant other were the second most likely to use social media to seek information during a crisis ($\mu = 3.78$), followed by travelers who were widowed ($\mu = 3.48$), divorced/separated ($\mu = 3.40$), or single, never married ($\mu = 3.17$). Married tourists were found to be the least likely to use social media in an effort to gather information about a crisis while traveling ($\mu = 2.92$).

Hypothesis 7 stated that age is inversely related to the likelihood of using social media during a crisis. This hypothesis was rejected. In fact, younger respondents did not indicate a greater propensity to seek information via social media if a crisis were to occur within their immediate vicinity while traveling.

Summary of findings related to likelihood of social media use during a crisis

The following table summarizes the findings of research questions 7-9. Each mean score is in relation to the dependent variable.

Table 4-25. Summary for likelihood of social media use during a crisis

Independent variables	Mean	Standard deviation
Past international travel experience		
More than 1 trip	3.49	1.15
Only 1 trip	2.93	1.12
Cultural differences		
Korea	3.52	1.04
Australia	3.41	0.93
China	3.08	1.36
Brazil	3.06	1.15
India	2.99	1.20
Age		
41-50	3.76	1.08
51-65	3.28	1.09
31-40	3.04	1.09
18-30	2.97	1.18
65+	2.00	0.73
Gender		
Male	3.21	1.17
Female	3.20	1.14
Marital status		
Living with friends	3.89	0.93
Living with partner/significant other	3.78	1.09
Widowed	3.48	1.53
Divorced/separated	3.40	1.00
Single, never married	3.17	1.15
Married	2.92	1.11

*p<.01, **p<.05

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Summary of Findings for Research Question 10: Controlling for Likelihood to Travel

Research question 10 builds on the findings from the relationships between cultural differences, age, and past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past year and both the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States and the likelihood of social media use in the event of a crisis while traveling. This research question allowed for the control of the likelihood to travel to the United States within the upcoming year. Therefore, the likelihood to travel to the U.S. in the next year was treated as a covariate or moderator (Pallant, 2007). The thought behind the decision to control for the moderator was that those who have traveled more are more likely to indicate using social media to seek

information in the event of a crisis while traveling (which was found in the analysis of research question 7). Also, it was hypothesized that culture, age, and past international travel experience could vary with the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year, thus influencing the likelihood to use social media in the event of a crisis while traveling and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. In summary, we wanted to allow for the interaction effects between culture and the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year, age and the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year, past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past year and the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year, as well as how this may impact the likelihood to turn to social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States.

Model 1: Influence of cultural differences on dependent variables, controlling for likelihood to travel

The first Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) tested for the influence of the independent variable of cultural differences on the variables of the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling, while controlling for the effects of the likelihood to travel to the United States. Thirteen items associated with the dependent variables were used: twelve crisis/risk types associated with the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. and the likelihood to turn to social media to seek information during a crisis while traveling.

Preliminary assumption testing was conducted to check for normality, linearity, univariate and multivariate outliers, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, and

multicollinearity. Upon examination of the Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices, a violation was noted. Therefore, Pillai's Trace statistics was utilized as it is robust to such violation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). There was a statistically significant difference between the countries on the combined dependent variables, $F(4, 2189) = 104.21, p = .000$; Pillai's Trace = 1.54; partial eta squared = .38.

There was a significant interaction effect between the moderator (likelihood to travel) and cultural differences for the following dependent variables: the likelihood of social media use during a crisis ($F = 1267.38, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .37); the perception of the likelihood of terrorism ($F = 1147.74, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .35); crime ($F = 1192.56, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .35); natural disasters ($F = 888.50, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .29); disease ($F = 1194.89, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .35); food safety ($F = 883.28, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .29); financial ($F = 976.40, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .31); health ($F = 935.04, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .30); physical ($F = 1299.44, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .37); equipment failure ($F = 690.93, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .24), weather ($F = 1224.59, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .36); cultural barriers ($F = 1327.89, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .38); and political ($F = 1546.37, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .42).

In other words, we cannot partial out the individual effects of either culture or the likelihood to travel. Rather, the interaction accounts for the variation in each item of the dependent variables. Essentially, the likelihood to travel moderates the relationship between cultural differences and both the likelihood of social media use during a crisis and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip.

Table 4-26. MANCOVA of cultural differences and dependent variables, controlling for likelihood to travel

Between subjects effects														
	Multivariate	Ter.	Cri.	N.D.	Dis.	F.S.	Fin.	Hea.	Phy.	E.F.	Wea.	C.B.	Pol.	S.M.
Variable	F(5, 2189)	5, 2189	5, 2189	5, 2189	5, 2189	5, 2189	5, 2189	5, 2189	5, 2189	5, 2189	5, 2189	5, 2189	5, 2189	5, 2189
Culture	104.2 [*]	5.7 [*]	2.0	21.3 [*]	12.2 [*]	52.1 [*]	109.0 [*]	38.9 [*]	77.2 [*]	43.4 [*]	36.5 [*]	46.7 [*]	47.5 [*]	12.3 [*]
Likelihood to travel	4.9 [*]	7.0 [*]	4.8 ^{**}	1.7	9.8 [*]	14.6 [*]	16.7 [*]	13.7 [*]	7.3 [*]	40.1 [*]	4.0 ^{**}	12.5 [*]	4.2 ^{**}	11.4 [*]
Culture x Likelihood to travel	154.7 [*]	1147.7 [*]	1192.6 [*]	888.5 [*]	1194.9 [*]	883.3 [*]	976.4 [*]	935.0 [*]	1299.4 [*]	690.9 [*]	1224.6 [*]	1327.9 [*]	1546.4 [*]	1267.4 [*]

*p<.01, **p<.05

Note: Multivariate F ratio was generated from Pillai's Trace approximation of F; Post hoc tests can be found in previous individual ANOVAs of Research Questions 5 and 8.

Abbreviations: Ter.: Terrorism; Cri.: Crime; N.D.: Natural disasters; Dis.: Disease; F.S.: Food safety; Fin.: Financial; Hea.: Health; Phy.: Physical; E.F.: Equipment failure; Wea.: Weather; C.B.: Cultural barriers; Pol.: Political; S.M.: Social media use during a crisis

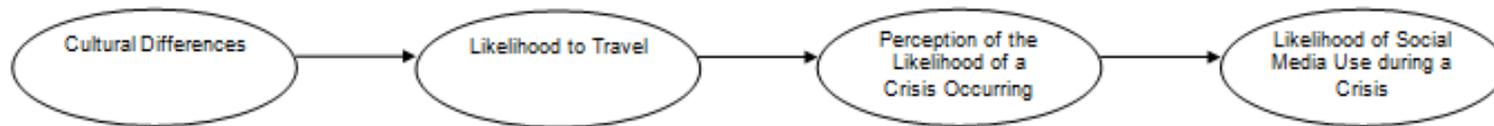


Figure 4-1. Conceptual framework for cultural differences and dependent variables, controlling for likelihood to travel*

*Note: This is not a measurement model.

Model 2: Influence of age on dependent variables, controlling for likelihood to travel

A second Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) was performed to investigate age differences in the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States and the likelihood of social media use to seek information during a crisis while traveling. For MANCOVA, the independent variable of age was recoded into the following three groups: 1 = 18-30, 2= 31-50, 3 = 51-65+. The moderator was the likelihood to travel to the United States in the upcoming year. Thirteen items associated with the two dependent variables were used: twelve crisis/risk types associated with the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States and the likelihood of turning to social media to seek information if a crisis were to occur while traveling.

Preliminary assumption testing was conducted to check for normality, linearity, univariate and multivariate outliers, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, and multicollinearity. A violation was noted upon inspection of the Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices. Thus, Pillai's Trace statistics was utilized because it is robust to such violation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A statistically significant difference was found between the three age groups on the combined dependent variables of the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States and the likelihood of turning to social media for information in the event of a crisis while traveling, $F(2, 2189) = 3.90, p = .000$; Pillai's Trace = .05; partial eta squared = .02.

There was a significant interaction effect between the moderator (likelihood to travel) and age for the following dependent variables: the likelihood of social media use

during a crisis ($F = 1481.68$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .40); the perception of the likelihood of: terrorism ($F = 1369.46$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .39); crime ($F = 1458.23$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .40); natural disasters ($F = 1181.31$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .35); disease ($F = 1327.39$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .38); food safety ($F = 1379.31$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .39); financial ($F = 1524.10$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .41); health ($F = 1360.79$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .38); physical ($F = 1756.90$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .45); equipment failure ($F = 669.01$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .23), weather ($F = 1317.19$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .38); cultural barriers ($F = 1528.12$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .41); and political ($F = 1489.94$, $p = .000$, partial eta squared = .41). In summary, MANCOVA revealed significant interaction effects between age and each of the items associated with the combined dependent variables.

Essentially, the interaction between the moderator and the independent variable suggests that the likelihood to travel to the United States in the upcoming year is a covariate with age. Therefore, the interaction between these variables had an effect on both the likelihood of using social media to seek information during a crisis while traveling and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. The results indicate that we cannot partial out the relationship between age and the likelihood to travel to the U.S. in the next year to understand the individual effects of age or the likelihood to travel on the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. or the likelihood to turn to social media for information in the event of a crisis while traveling.

Table 4-27. MANCOVA of age and dependent variables, controlling for likelihood to travel

Between subjects effects														
	Multivariate	Ter.	Cri.	N.D.	Dis.	F.S.	Fin.	Hea.	Phy.	E.F.	Wea.	C.B.	Pol.	S.M.
Variable	F(3, 2189)	3, 2189	3, 2189	3, 2189	3, 2189	3, 2189	3, 2189	3, 2189	3, 2189	3, 2189	3, 2189	3, 2189	3, 2189	3, 2189
Age	3.9*	8.6*	15.7*	8.2*	17.7*	15.9*	20.1*	9.0*	11.6*	10.2*	13.0*	20.4*	6.3*	20.9*
Likelihood to travel	24.0*	15.2*	9.3*	.1	32.3*	1.3	9.6*	.0	1.8	92.7*	15.5*	16.3*	40.0*	24.8*
Age x Likelihood to travel	203.3*	1369.5*	1458.2*	1181.3*	1327.4*	1379.3*	1524.1*	1360.8*	1756.9*	669.0*	1317.2*	1528.1*	1490.0*	1481.7*

*p<.01, **p<.05

Note: Multivariate F ratio was generated from Pillai's Trace approximation of F; Post hoc tests can be found in previous individual ANOVAs of Research Questions 6A and 9A.

Abbreviations: Ter.: Terrorism; Cri.: Crime; N.D.: Natural disasters; Dis.: Disease; F.S.: Food safety; Fin.: Financial; Hea.: Health; Phy.: Physical; E.F.: Equipment failure; Wea.: Weather; C.B.: Cultural barriers; Pol.: Political; S.M.: Social media use during a crisis

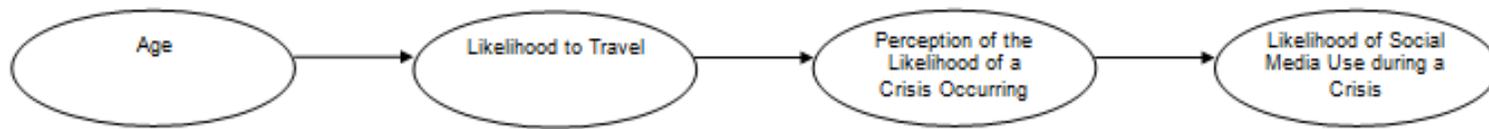


Figure 4-2. Conceptual framework for age and dependent variables, controlling for likelihood to travel*

*Note: This is not a measurement model.

Model 3: Influence of past international travel experience on dependent variables, controlling for likelihood to travel

The third and final Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) was performed to investigate past international travel experience differences in the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. and the likelihood of turning to social media to seek information during a crisis while traveling, while controlling for the effects of the likelihood to travel to the U.S. in the next year. The independent variable was past international travel experience to the U.S. in the past year and the moderator was the likelihood to travel to the United States in the upcoming year. Thirteen items associated with the dependent variables were used: twelve crisis/risk types associated with the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling.

Preliminary assumption testing was conducted to check for normality, linearity, univariate and multivariate outliers, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, and multicollinearity. Examination of the Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices revealed a violation. As a result, Pillai's Trace statistics was utilized because it is robust to such violation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). There was a statistically significant difference between the two past international travel experience groups on the combined dependent variables of the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring and the likelihood of seeking information via social media in the event of a crisis while traveling, $F(1, 2189) = 21.80, p = .000$; Pillai's Trace = .12; partial eta squared = .12.

There was a significant interaction effect between the moderator (likelihood to travel) and past international travel experience for the following dependent variables:

the likelihood of social media use during a crisis ($F = 1748.81, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .44); the perception of the likelihood of terrorism ($F = 1612.84, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .43); crime ($F = 1687.84, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .44); natural disasters ($F = 1265.04, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .37); disease ($F = 1601.49, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .42); food safety ($F = 1490.61, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .41); financial ($F = 1553.73, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .42); health ($F = 1589.07, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .42); physical ($F = 1853.49, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .46); equipment failure ($F = 901.02, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .29), weather ($F = 1483.65, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .40); cultural barriers ($F = 1642.02, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .43); and political ($F = 1807.50, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .45). In other words, MANCOVA revealed significant interaction effects between past international travel experience to the U.S. in the past year and each of the items associated with the combined dependent variables of the likelihood of social media use during a crisis and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring.

Therefore, we cannot partial out the individual effects of either past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months or the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the upcoming 12 months. The interaction between the moderator and independent variable accounts for the variation in the dependent variables. In essence, the likelihood to travel to the U.S. in the next year moderates the relationship between past international travel experience to the U.S. in the past year and both the likelihood of social media use to seek information during a crisis while traveling and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States.

Table 4-28. MANCOVA of past international travel experience and dependent variables, controlling for likelihood to travel

Between subjects effects														
	Multivariate	Ter.	Cri.	N.D.	Dis.	F.S.	Fin.	Hea.	Phy.	E.F.	Wea.	C.B.	Pol.	S.M.
Variable	F(2, 2189)	2, 2189	2, 2189	2, 2189	2, 2189	2, 2189	2, 2189	2, 2189	2, 2189	2, 2189	2, 2189	2, 2189	2, 2189	2, 2189
Past travel exp	21.8*	95.1*	88.4*	22.8*	118.7*	59.7*	22.3*	84.0*	34.7*	121.3*	63.8*	31.4*	128.4*	107.9*
Likelihood to travel	13.6*	.0	.4	5.3**	1.9	13.6*	20.1*	11.6*	12.0*	23.9*	.5	2.1	3.0	.7
Past travel exp x Likelihood to travel	219.9*	1612.8*	1687.8*	1265.0*	1601.5*	1490.6*	1553.7*	1589.1*	1853.5*	901.0*	1483.7*	1642.0*	1807.5*	1748.8*

*p<.01, **p<.05

Note: Multivariate F ratio was generated from Pillais' approximation of F.

Abbreviations: Ter.: Terrorism; Cri.: Crime; N.D.: Natural disasters; Dis.: Disease; F.S.: Food safety; Fin.: Financial; Hea.: Health; Phy.: Physical; E.F.: Equipment failure; Wea.: Weather; C.B.: Cultural barriers; Pol.: Political; S.M.: Social media use during a crisis; Past travel exp: past international travel experience

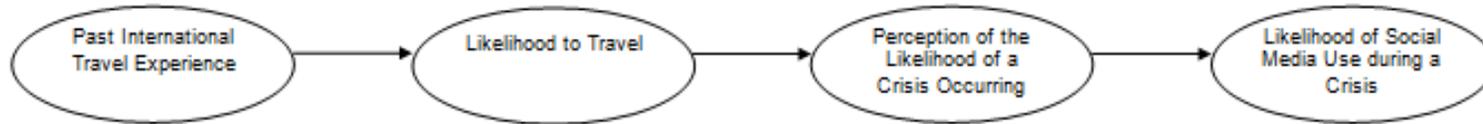


Figure 4-3. Conceptual framework for past international travel experience and dependent variables, controlling for likelihood to travel*

*Note: This is not a measurement model.

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The overall purpose of this study was to explore, not explain, the relationships between the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring, the likelihood of social media use to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling, and the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year. Four main objectives guided this research. One objective of this study was to explore the influence of past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months, cultural differences, and demographics (age, gender, marital status) on the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year. Another objective was to explore the influence of past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months, cultural differences, and demographics (age, gender, marital status) on the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. The third objective was to explore the effects of past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months, cultural differences, and demographics (age, gender, marital status) on the likelihood to turn to social media to seek information during a crisis while traveling.

The fourth objective was to test the overall conceptual model. Specifically, analysis sought to control for the effects of the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year on dependent variables. The effects of the covariate, likelihood to travel, were controlled when exploring the relationships between cultural differences, age, and past international travel experience and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States and the likelihood of turning to social media to seek information in the event of a crisis.

This final chapter serves to focus on a discussion of the research findings, as well as to discuss implications and suggestions for future research. Specifically, this chapter is organized into the following four sections:

- Summary of Methods
- Discussion of the Findings
- Implications
- Suggestions for Future Research

Summary of Methods

As part of a larger study, the data for this research was collected by Mandala Research, LLC. A Mandala Research online database was used because of the large sample size and the representation of tourists from the top five emerging growth markets to the U.S. tourism industry (China, Brazil, South Korea, India, and Australia). A total of 2,416 surveys were collected between August and September 2010.

The survey instrument for the larger study consisted of 33 questions. For the purposes of this study, seven questions from the survey instrument were used. The Tourism Crisis Management Institute at the University of Florida developed and wrote three crisis-related questions and worked with the proprietor to add and purchase these questions. The questions associated with this study were posed to gain insight into international tourists' past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months, demographics, the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year, the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during a trip to the U.S., and the likelihood of turning to social media to seek information during a crisis while traveling.

Discussion of the Findings

As expected, the analysis of the relationship between past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months and the likelihood to travel to the U.S.

within the next year revealed that tourists who had taken more than one trip to the U.S. within the past year were more likely to travel to the U.S. within the next year. Tourists who had only taken one trip to the U.S. within the past year were less likely to take a trip to the U.S. within the upcoming year. Therefore, we can conclude that travelers with a greater extent of past international travel experience have a higher propensity to travel internationally in the future. Similarly, Floyd et al. (2004) found that past travel experience was the strongest predictor of intentions to travel in the future.

Overall, the respondents believed that the likelihood of encountering a crisis during an upcoming trip to the United States was either unlikely or they were neutral in their perceptions. However, in reality, it is likely that individuals will experience a crisis of some type at some point in their lifetime. This finding could have been influenced by the way that the question was posed. The question explored perceptions related to an upcoming leisure trip to the United States; future research should explore perceptions of the likelihood of experiencing a crisis during travel within one's lifetime. Also, future research can also examine this perception in the context of international travel in general, in addition to the context of travel to a particular country or region.

An interesting finding was that for all of the twelve crisis/risk types, those with a greater extent of past international travel experience to the U.S. had the highest perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States. On the other hand, international travelers with less experience traveling to the U.S. in the past had the lowest perceptions of the likelihood of encountering a crisis while traveling in the United States. Although this finding seems counterintuitive, past research has found that past international travel experience may or may not cause

a decrease in perceptions of different types of risk associated with a destination (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). Floyd et al. (2004) found that concerns for safety were not overridden by past travel experience. In addition, the effect on risk can depend on the experience itself (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). For example, the feelings of safety may be enhanced by past travel experiences (Pinhey & Inverson, 1994). Past travel experience may deter tourists from future travel or may provide tourists with confidence for future travel, depending on whether the experience was positive or negative (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998b). However, qualitative research would be needed to further examine and understand the reasons that those with a greater extent of past travel experience to the U.S. had higher perceptions of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States than those with less travel experience.

The exact reasons why more experienced travelers had higher perceptions of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during travel in the U.S. is not apparent, but we can speculate that those who travel more are more likely to be aware of and exposed to possible crises in that particular destination and globally. For instance, while traveling in the United States, travelers are likely to be exposed to media coverage about various crises in the country through various media sources, including the television, Internet, radio, newspaper, etc. Thus, this could increase their awareness of crises, from small to large scale, that have happened in the United States in the past. Also, those who travel more may seek news stories and information related to travel. By reading travel literature, these experienced travelers may be more likely to be informed about what is happening in the industry, as well as about crises that have affected specific tourism destinations. Additionally, these travelers may realize, through both past experience and

exposure to the media, that crises have the potential to occur at virtually any time and any place. This awareness of a constant vulnerability to crises could increase the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during travel.

International travelers from the top emerging growth markets with a greater extent of past international travel experience to the U.S. within the past 12 months had a higher likelihood of turning to social media to seek information in the event of a crisis during travel than those with less past international travel experience. For tourists, previous experience is considered to be one factor that influences the extent of information search (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). Tourists with greater past experience also tend to be more resourceful than those who are less experienced (Kerstetter & Cho, 2004). In other words, tourists with a high level of past travel experience may exhibit more information search behaviors throughout the entire travel process than those who have less experience traveling. Thus, tourists with more experience traveling within the U.S. may be more aware of the possible channels for seeking information in the United States. They may also be aware of the up-to-date information that may be found through social media outlets.

With international tourists, it is possible that social media may be a preferred channel for determining the situation at the destination. Social media can allow tourists to seek information in their native language and through familiar sources. For example, tourists in Japan during the recent earthquake and tsunami were able to seek information and contact friends and family on social media when phone service following this crisis (Tourism Crisis Management Institute, 2011). Furthermore, these travelers may already be using social media to seek information on a regular basis and

their likelihood of using social media may not be impacted by the occurrence of a crisis (Pennington-Gray et al., 2012). In other words, more experienced travelers may be more likely to use social media in general than less experienced travelers. Therefore, social media behaviors on a regular basis should be explored to determine if those who use social media more at home are more likely to use social media to seek information if a crisis were to occur while traveling.

It was found that cultural differences significantly influenced the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year. However, the relationship does not appear to be related to the cultural distance from the host country, as measured by Hofstede & Hofstede (2010a). Interestingly, Chinese tourists, who are the furthest culturally from the U.S. according to Hofstede & Hofstede's (2010a) scores, were the most likely to travel to the U.S. within the next year. This may be because tourists from cultures that are more distant to the U.S. may see the United States as an "exotic" destination and thus the "pull" is greater, thereby increasing their expressed likelihood to travel in the upcoming year. However, travelers from India, who are also considered to be cultural distant from the United States, had the lowest likelihood of traveling to the U.S. in the next year. Although we have not attempted to explain all of the possible reasons behind this finding, the reason that certain countries were more likely to express interest in traveling to the U.S. may have also been influenced by the political and economic environments of the countries.

The perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. was significantly influenced by cultural differences. The types of crises that each culture perceived to be the most and least likely to occur while on an upcoming trip

to the United States varied. Seddighi et al. (2001) found that perceived risk was influenced by a tourists' cultural background. In addition, Reisinger and Mavondo (2005) found that perceptions of security and sociocultural risk were affected by culture. In the past, Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance dimension has been found to have an effect on the degree of perceived risk (Kozak et al., 2007). However, we found no correlation between cultural differences, as measured by Hofstede & Hofstede (2010a), and the overall perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States. Rather, international travelers from each of the five countries perceived different crisis/risk types to be the most likely or unlikely. In addition, in a day when access to information is abundant, perhaps most people's ease of access to information helps to minimize perceptions of risk when traveling to the United States.

When examining specific crisis/risk types and the uncertainty avoidance dimension of cultural differences, however, past research has been supported by the results of this study. As Kozak et al. (2007) found countries with low uncertainty avoidance scores perceived infectious disease to be a higher risk factor. In this study, Chinese tourists, the lowest scoring culture in this study for the uncertainty avoidance dimension, perceived a disease-related crisis to be the most likely to occur while traveling in the U.S. and a natural disaster to be the least likely to occur. Previous research supports that tourists tend to have a low awareness of natural hazards at the destination (Hoogenraad, van Eden, & King, 2004; Johnston, Paton, Houghton, Becker, & Crumbie, 2002). Therefore, it is suggested that hypotheses be developed based on uncertainty avoidance for each of the twelve crisis/risk types, rather than developing one overall hypothesis related to the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring.

In summary, Korean tourists perceived a natural disaster to be the least likely and a physical crisis to be the most likely to occur while on an upcoming trip in the United States. The type of crisis perceived to be the most likely by Brazilian tourists was disease-related. Brazilians perceived a financial crisis to be the least likely to occur. Australian tourists perceived a financial crisis to be the most likely and both equipment failure and a health-related crisis to be the least likely to occur. Indian tourists perceived equipment failure to be the least likely crisis to occur and a financial crisis to be the most likely to occur during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States.

As found by previous research, cultural differences influenced information search behaviors (Litvin et al., 2004; Money & Crotts, 2003), specifically the likelihood of social media use to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling. Also, G.J. Hofstede (2001) suggested that cultures with strong uncertainty avoidance would be slow to embrace and implement new technology initially; however, this would disappear over time. Furthermore, high uncertainty avoidance cultures have been found to engage in significantly more behaviors to minimize risk (Money & Crotts, 2003). In this study, travelers from Korea, the strongest uncertainty avoidance culture studied, were the most likely to turn to social media in the event of a crisis while traveling, which went against G.J. Hofstede's (2001) original finding that cultures with high uncertainty avoidance scores will be slower to embrace new technology. However, this did support G.J. Hofstede's (2001) suggestion that over time those cultures with strong uncertainty avoidance would embrace new technology. The finding in this study also supported Money and Crotts (2003) finding, as Korean tourists were the most likely to turn to social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling.

However, when we examine each of the other four cultures, the uncertainty avoidance score does not appear to be in concert with the likelihood of social media use during a crisis. For instance, Brazil has the second highest uncertainty avoidance score (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2010a), but they were ranked fourth out of the five countries in the likelihood to turn to social media. Also, travelers from China were the third most likely to use social media even though they have the weakest uncertainty avoidance score. Thus, we can conclude that there was not an apparent relationship between cultural differences, as measured by Hofstede & Hofstede (2010a), and the likelihood of social media use to seek information during a crisis.

Rather than guiding hypotheses related to cultural difference and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis on uncertainty avoidance, future studies should explore the technological adoption of the culture instead. More specifically, the rate of Internet penetration and the percentage of the population that use social media should be incorporated into the examination of the relationship. Examination of the social media use adoption of the cultures studied revealed that similar to the use of social media in general, the findings from this study reaffirm research from the Pew Research Center Global Attitudes Project (2010). Of the countries investigated in this study, Koreans had the most similar social media usage to the United States, with 40% of Koreans using social media sites (Pew Research Center Global Attitudes Project, 2010). Indians had the lowest percentage (12%) of social media use when comparing the countries investigated in this study (Pew Research Center Global Attitudes Project, 2010) and were found to be the least likely to use social media during a crisis in this study. Additionally, when comparing the percentage of the population that has access to the

Internet, Korea has the highest Internet penetration rate of the emerging growth markets to the international tourism industry in the U.S. (81.1%) and India has the lowest (6.9%) (TNS Digital Life, 2011). Therefore, we may interpret this finding in that Koreans have more access to social media and the Internet at home and they are the most likely to use social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling. Whereas, Indians have less access to the Internet in general and limited use of social media at home, which likely influenced the likelihood of turning to social media to seek information of a crisis were to occur while traveling.

International tourists between the ages of 41-50, 51-65, and 65+ were the most likely to plan to travel to the U.S. within the next year. This may be because these adults are at the peak earning age. In other words, people in these age groups may have more leisure time and money to travel internationally than their younger counterparts. However, past research has found that demographic variables (i.e. age and gender) were not significant predictors of the propensity for international travel (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a).

Sönmez & Graefe (1998a) found that on their own, demographic variables were not good at predicting risk perception related to travel. However, in this study, a significant relationship was found between age and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States. In fact, international travelers between the ages of 41 and 50 years old had the highest perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring while on an upcoming trip to the U.S. across all twelve crisis/risk types. Additionally, for eleven of the twelve crisis/risk types, tourists between 51 and 65 years old had the second highest mean perception of the likelihood of a

crisis. International travelers who were 65 and older had the lowest mean perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States for all twelve crisis/risk types and they generally believed that it was very unlikely or unlikely that a crisis would occur while traveling in the United States. These are interesting findings that reveal insights into the international travel market, especially given that it was also found that international travelers between the ages of 41-50 and 51-65 were the most likely to travel to the United States in the upcoming year.

The reason for the middle aged respondents, in their peak earning years, indicating that they thought all of the crises may occur is not apparent. Although we do not know the exact reasons behind this finding, we can speculate that it may be because the middle aged respondents are the key consumers of news media. Increased consumption of the news by this age group likely may increase their exposure to stories related to crises occurring around the globe. It is known that media coverage of crises can influence perceptions of risk (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). Furthermore, there may be covariates, such as past international travel experience, influencing this finding. A multivariate analysis will explore potential covariates. Further research is needed to explore the reasons behind this finding, as there are potential marketing implications. Given that this middle aged group often has disposable income to spend on travel, it is important to understand why these tourists perceive crises to be likely to occur. By understanding the perceptions of this lucrative market segment, marketing can seek to address these perceptions in an effort to attract travelers from this age group and reassure them that the destination is safe.

Surprisingly, tourists between the ages of 41 and 50 were the most likely to use social media to seek information if a crisis were to occur while traveling, followed by those of the ages 51-65, 31-40, and 18-30. The least likely users of social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling were 65 years and older. This finding contrasted previous research on the use of social media in general. In general, younger people (ages 18-34) are the largest power users of social media (American Red Cross, 2010, 2011; DeLollis, 2010; Pew Research Center Global Attitudes Project, 2010). However, the presence of children in the household may have influenced this finding. For instance, the American Red Cross (2011) found that households with children were more likely to use social media during a crisis. There may be covariates, such as the perception of the likelihood of a crisis, that have affected the results of this bivariate relationship, as well.

A statistically significant relationship was not found between gender and the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year. This was supported by Sönmez & Graefe's (1998a) finding that gender was not a significant predictor of the propensity for travel. Based on this finding, we can infer that females are just as likely to travel internationally as males. Therefore, this highlights the need to market to females in the international context of travel.

A statistically significant relationship between gender and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. was also not found. Previous research in this area has indicated that gender alone was not an adequate predictor of risks associated with travel (i.e. Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a). Furthermore, the relationship between gender and likelihood of social media use during a crisis was

not statistically significant. The American Red Cross (2010) also did not report differences in the social media uses of males and females during a disaster, although a follow up study revealed that females were “more likely to use social media channels to inform of their safety” during an emergency (American Red Cross, 2011).

International tourists who were widowed were the most likely to travel to the U.S. within the next year, while those who were married were the least likely to travel to the U.S. within the upcoming year. Divorced/separated international travelers were the second most likely to express interest in traveling to the U.S. in the upcoming year. Interestingly, travel-related marketing to international markets often targets traditional families with children or couples. Given that the traditional family is changing, as divorce rates have increased, this finding reinforced the need to market to individual travelers and to those who may be traveling with friends rather than children or a spouse. Through a bivariate relational analysis, it was found that for nine of the twelve crisis/risk types, travelers living with friends had the highest mean perception of the likelihood of a crisis during an upcoming trip to the United States. Married travelers had the lowest perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during travel for the twelve crisis types.

A fascinating finding was that international tourists who were living with friends were the most likely to use social media to seek information during a crisis, followed by those living with a partner/significant other. Married travelers were the least likely to use social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling. This is surprising, given that in the event of a crisis residents with children in the household were more likely to use social media than those without (American Red Cross, 2011). However, respondents living with friends or a partner/significant other may be using

social media more than the other groups in general and for personal reasons, thus potentially influencing their likelihood to seek information via social media in the event of a crisis while traveling. This further highlights the need to explore the influence of general social media behaviors on the likelihood to turn to social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling.

This research sought to explore the bivariate relationships between the independent variables of past international travel experience to the U.S., cultural difference, and demographics (age, gender, and marital status) and the dependent variables of the likelihood to travel to the U.S. in the next year, the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the U.S., and the likelihood of turning to social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling. To build upon these bivariate relationships, the effects of the likelihood to travel to the U.S. in the upcoming year were controlled for and treated as a covariate or moderator. To reiterate, the reason being that those who travel more were found to be more likely to indicate using social media in the event of a crisis and the likelihood to travel would moderate the relationships between age, culture, and past international travel experience and the dependent variables. In summary, we wanted to allow for interaction in the independent variables and control for future travel as drivers of social media use during a crisis. Future studies will test the three models, as the purpose of this study was to explore the relationships, rather than to explain them.

The three MANCOVAs, which were run to control for the influence of the likelihood to travel on the dependent variables of the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the U.S. and the likelihood to turn to

social media to seek information during a crisis, all exhibited similar findings. Results of the MANCOVAs suggest that the likelihood to travel moderates the relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variables of the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring and the likelihood of social media use to seek information during a crisis while traveling.

Thus, in the first model we tested if there was a significant relationship between cultural differences and both the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling, while controlling for the likelihood to travel to the U.S. in the upcoming year. The testing of this model revealed that there was a significant interaction effect between the moderator (likelihood to travel) and cultural differences for both the twelve crisis/risk types associated with the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. and the likelihood of turning to social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling.

In the second model, the effects of age on the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis while traveling were tested, while controlling for the likelihood to travel to the U.S. in the next year. Results indicated a significant interaction effect between the likelihood to travel to the U.S. in the next year (moderator) and age for the twelve crisis/risk items associated with the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring and the likelihood of turning to social media to seek information if a crisis were to occur while traveling.

The third and final model examined the relationship between past international travel experience and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis, while controlling for the likelihood to travel to the U.S. in the next year. Again, there was a significant interaction effect between the likelihood to travel to the U.S. in the next year (moderator) and age for the twelve crisis/risk items associated with the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States and the likelihood of social media use during a crisis.

In summary, when an interaction effect is found we cannot partial out the individual effects of either the moderator or the independent variable. Instead, the interaction accounts for the variation. Therefore, the key findings from the MANCOVAs were that the likelihood to travel moderates the relationships between cultural differences and both the likelihood of social media use and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring, age and both the likelihood of social media use and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring, and past international travel experience and both the likelihood to turn to social media and the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring

Implications

This study serves as one of the first empirical studies to research international tourists' social media use during the event of a crisis. As such, it offers some of the first insights into variables that affect the likelihood of turning to social media to seek information in the event of a crisis while traveling. The purpose of this study was to explore relationships, rather than to explain relationships. The findings of this study were congruent with Prospect Theory. It was found that a number of factors influence

the decision-making process related to travel. In particular, past international travel experience, cultural differences, age, and marital status significantly influenced the likelihood to travel to the U.S. within the next year, the perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S., and the likelihood to seek information via social media during a crisis while traveling.

It is imperative that the tourism industry and emergency managers be prepared as best as possible for the next crisis, as the question is no longer if a crisis will effect an organization. The more appropriate questions that tourism organizations should consider are when a crisis will occur, what type of crisis will impact the organization, and what will be the severity of the crisis (Kash & Darling, 1998). Tourism organizations and emergency managers need to know the appropriate channels for communicating with tourists in the event of a crisis, as tourists are considered a vulnerable population for a number of reasons (Faulkner, 2001).

Among fifteen information sources, social media was the fifth preferred information source for tourists in the event of a crisis. Considering that social media is a rather new information source, this finding is fascinating and illuminates the need to continue further research in this area. Age, marital status, cultural differences, and past international travel experience significantly influenced the likelihood of seeking information through social media during a crisis while traveling. As a result of these findings, tourism organizations should incorporate a comprehensive social media component into their tourism crisis management plans.

A social media component of tourism crisis management plans can help destination management organizations, local tourism offices, and state tourism offices

communicate key messages effectively with tourists before, during, and after a crisis. The effective communication of messages has the potential to save lives during a crisis, while also safeguarding the organization's image. Social media can also help organizations to become the trusted source of information about the destination.

Further, if tourists find the information posted on social media during a crisis to be helpful, they are likely to share the positive experience with friends and family. However, if information is not relayed through the appropriate channels (i.e. social media); the organization's reputation may be damaged through negative word of mouth and possibly negative media coverage. Negative effects to an organization's reputation can ultimately result in financial losses, as well. If tourists have a bad experience, they are not likely to return to the destination, thus a competitor will likely gain business. Social media can also be used post-crisis to help destinations recover from the crisis and welcome tourists back. It is clear that tourists are likely to turn to social media to seek information during a crisis; therefore, it is critical that information about the crisis be available on the appropriate social media channels.

Suggestions for Future Research

Further research is particularly important because tourists are considered to be an "at risk" population (Pan American Health Organization, 2009). Tourists do not have the normal support systems from their home community while traveling and are not familiar with their surroundings at the destination, which ultimately puts them at risk (Burby & Wagner, 1996; Matyas, Srinivasan, Cahyanto, Thapa, Pennington-Gray, & Villegas, 2011; World Tourism Organization, 1998). In order to mitigate the effects of crises, if specific populations are considered to be more vulnerable than others, crisis

managers must be persistent in the pursuit of the appropriate channels for reaching these at-risk populations.

The Internet and social media have changed our everyday lives. While this study focused on social media use during a tourism crisis, it may also be helpful to explore tourists' everyday uses of social media. How long tourists have used social media, as well as how often tourists share and seek information through social media has the potential to provide critical insights into how tourists will use social media during a crisis. In addition, this study examined social media in general. Examinations of behaviors on the most popular social media sites can help tourism organizations to better understand the best channels for communicating key messages to tourists in the event of a crisis.

Through research we know that nearly three-quarters (72%) of social media users access their social media accounts daily while traveling (Tripl[®], n.d.). Gaining insight into tourists' previous uses of social media while traveling can help us to understand how these variables may affect the likelihood of social media use during a crisis. For instance, important questions may include: which sites are tourists accessing while on a trip, how often are tourists sharing information while traveling, how often are tourists seeking information while traveling, are tourists accessing the social media accounts of the destination management organization while traveling, and through what technology are tourists accessing social media (i.e. laptop, tablet, or Smartphone), etc.

Also, not all tourists act the same. This study focused on the emerging growth markets of international tourists to the U.S. (India, Australia, Brazil, Korea, and China). The behaviors, both in seeking and receiving information, of domestic tourists and international tourists from other countries also need to be explored, as well as additional

subpopulations of tourists from these markets. A main focus of such research needs to be the exploration of ways to connect with different subpopulations of tourists. In this digital age, social media is increasingly developing into the preferred channel for communicating with a diverse audience. In order to effectively use social media, however, research needs to be conducted to further understand which social media channels serve which populations best, as well as what messages these populations are seeking and sharing and from whom.

Further, the roles of uses and gratifications of social media as a mediator of perceived risk needs to be investigated in future research. Uses and gratifications can help to understand why tourists would seek or share information on social media during a crisis, as well as how social media may play a role in mitigating or impacting risk perceptions. Also, different groups, such as different cultures, races, or ethnicities, respond differently to formal media (i.e. television, newspaper, etc.) and informal media (i.e. social media, online forums, blogs, etc.) depending on their social affiliations (Elliot & Pais, 2006). Therefore, future research needs to explore how social influences may affect the choice of social media use in the event of a crisis while traveling.

The role of social media is ever changing and it appears that with the occurrence of each crisis, the use of social media intensifies. For example, when an 8.9 magnitude earthquake triggered a tsunami off the coast of Japan, on March 11, 2011, the peak rate of tweets per second was 5,530 (Golijan, 2011). Several months later, on August 23, 2011, a 5.8 magnitude earthquake was centered in Mineral, Virginia, effecting much of the east coast of the U.S. Facebook[®], the most popular social media channel, reported that 3 million users mentioned “earthquake” in their status updates four minutes after

the earthquake struck (Kang, 2011). Over 40,000 tweets mentioned the earthquake within a minute of the Virginia earthquake happening, according to Twitter[®]'s official account, while at the peak there were 5,500 tweets per second related to the earthquake (Mogg, 2011). Individuals are using social media to let others know they are safe, to share pictures and videos, to seek information, and to share their experiences and the scene on the ground during a crisis. Mobile technology, in part, contributes to the use of social media and the relevance of citizen journalism. For example, when the power goes out, people are turning to their mobile phones and accessing the Internet and social media channels. Also, as a crisis happens, phone lines may be over capacity with people trying to make phone calls and send text messages. When it is difficult or impossible to send and receive phone calls and text messages, people are turning to social media to make contact and to seek both information and help. Due to these circumstances, it is critical that tourists' use of social media during a crisis be examined further; however, little attention has been given to this area of research.

Though this study explored tourists' use of social media during a crisis, more research needs to be done. Because the use of social media is rapidly increasing around the globe, both in general and in times of crisis, research needs to continually examine tourists' social media behaviors. This study focused on the likelihood that tourists would seek information via social media, however, it is also important to know how likely tourists are to share information during a crisis. The focus was also on the use of social media in general, rather than specific social media channels. Future research should explore the specific social media channels that tourists are likely to turn to in the event of a crisis, as well as whom tourists are turning to on these channels (i.e.

friends, relatives, local tourism office/CVB, and state tourism office/STO). Since this is an embryonic research area, there is a great need for further research, as the implications can have significant implications that can be applied to the practice of tourism crisis management and communications.

APPENDIX A
DEFINITIONS OF KEY TERMS

Social media	Internet-based applications that carry consumer-generated content (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010, p. 180)
Risk perception level	the amount and types of risk potential tourists associate with international tourism (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998a, p. 127)
Crisis	specific, unexpected and non-routine event or series of events that create high levels of uncertainty and threaten or are perceived to threaten high priority goals (Seeger, Sellnow, & Ulmer, 1998, p. 233)
Culture	the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one category of people from another (Hofstede, 1994, p. 1)
Power distance	the extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions (like the family) accept and expect that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede, 1994, p. 2)
Individualism v. collectivism	the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups (Hofstede, 1994, p. 2)
Masculinity v. femininity	the distribution of roles between the sexes which is another fundamental issue for any society to which a range of solutions are found (Hofstede, 1994, p. 3)
Uncertainty avoidance	a society's tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity: it ultimately refers to man's search for truth (Hofstede, 1994, p. 4)
Long-term orientation v. short-term orientation	to deal with Virtue regardless of Truth (Hofstede, 1994, p. 5)
Indulgence	a society that allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human drives related to enjoying life and having fun (Hofstede, G., & Hofstede, G. J., 2010b)
Restraint	a society that suppresses gratification of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms (Hofstede, G., & Hofstede, G. J., 2010b)

APPENDIX B
SURVEY INSTRUMENT

**Macy's/Shop America
International Shopping Study**

A. SCREENING QUESTIONS

Page 1

1. How many international trips to the U.S. have you taken in the past 12 months?
2. Thinking of all the international trips to the U.S. you have taken in the past 12 months, how many of these trips were for each of the purposes listed below?

Pleasure, holiday or personal purposes within the U.S. _____ Number, if any.
IF NONE, ENTER "0".

Business or convention purposes within the U.S. _____ Number, if any.
IF NONE, ENTER "0".

Combined pleasure and business within the U.S. _____ Number, if any.
IF NONE, ENTER "0".

TERMINATE IF TOTAL TRIPS=0

- 2a. And which of the following was the purpose of your last trip to the U.S.? [Select all that apply.]

- Pleasure, holiday, personal
- Business
- Attending a convention
- Visiting Friends and family
- Honeymoon
- Attending school

[Ask All Respondents]

Page 2

3. How much did you spend, **in total**, on your last trip to the U.S. (including transportation, lodging, shopping, entertainment, food & dining expenses, activities, etc.)?

\$ _____

4. How much did you spend on **shopping** alone, during your last trip to the U.S.? [Dollar amounts will be reflected in local currency equivalent.]

_____ (Open Numeric) [Terminate if spending amount is less than \$250 USD]

Page 3

5. And what is your status of employment?

- Employed full time
- Employed part time
- Retired
- Full time homemaker
- Unemployed

6. Are you a student enrolled at the college or university level?

- Yes, part time
- Yes, full time
- No

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6a. What was your TOTAL annual household income in 2009 before taxes?

- Under \$25,000..... 1 [TERMINATE]
- \$25,000-\$49,999..... 2 [TERMINATE]
- \$50,000-\$74,999..... 3 [TERMINATE]
- \$75,000-\$99,999.....4
- \$100,000-\$124,999.....5
- \$125,000-\$149,999.....6
- \$150,000-\$174,999.....7
- \$175,000-\$199,999.....8
- \$200,000-\$224,999.....9
- \$225,000-\$249,999.....10
- \$250,000 to \$499,999.....11
- \$500,000 or more12
- Not sure/Rather not say.....13 [ASK 6B]

[IF NO RESPONSE/NOT SURE IN 6A, ASK]

6b. Which statement best describes your household income in 2009 before taxes?

- Below \$75,000..... 1 [Accept if they are a student, otherwise, terminate.]
- Approximately \$75,000 2 [CONTINUE]
- Above \$75,000 3 [CONTINUE]

B. PAST TRAVEL

Page 5

7a. In your opinion, what are the top travel destinations in the United States? _____

7b. When you think of cities for shopping in the US, what cities come to mind?

Page 6

7c. Thinking of any trips you have taken within the United States in the past 12 months, what activities did you participate in? Please select all that apply.

RANDOMIZE	Participated On A Trip to the U.S.
a. Visiting historic sites	
b. Visiting Parks: National, State, etc.	
c. Visiting art or cultural Museums, Art Exhibits, etc.	
d. Attending Concerts, Theatre, Dance, etc.	
e. Visiting a museum store	
f. Unique dining experience	
g. Group Tour	
h. Visiting zoos, aquariums or science museums	
i. Visiting amusement parks	
j. Taking seminars or courses	
k. Spa services (i.e. massage, facials, manicure)	
l. Participating in culinary activities (cooking classes, farmers markets, etc.) or attending food festivals	
m. Participating in winery tours, driving a wine trail, tasting locally grown wines or attending wine festivals	
n. Shopping	[TERMINATE IF NOT SELECTED]
o. Shopping at a museum store	
p. Shopping at an outlet mall	
q. Shopping in a mall	
r. Shopping at individual retail stores that were not part of a mall	
s. Participated in volunteer activities	
t. Had a medical procedure	
u. Visited an historic trail	
v. Exploring small towns	
w. Taking a scenic drive	
x. Attending a festival (art, crafts, music, wine, food)	
y. Attending live sporting events	
z. Visiting Native American sites	
aa. Visited or gambled at a casino	
bb. Looking at real estate	

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[7ca.] Please indicate how strongly you agree with each of the following as they apply to your leisure travel.

[MMRQ]

	Strongly Agree (4)	Somewhat Agree (3)	Somewhat Disagree (2)	Strongly Disagree (1)	Don't Know/Rather not say (99)
RANDOMIZE					
I would pay more for lodging that reflects the cultural and/or heritage destination I am visiting					
I seek travel experiences where the destination, its buildings, and surroundings have retained their historic character					
I am willing to pay more for travel experiences that do not harm the environment					
The availability of cultural and heritage activities is the main reason I took my last trip to the U.S.					

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7d. What form of transportation did you use while in the U.S.?

- a. Train/railroad
- b. Car
- c. Bus
- d. Recreational Vehicle (RV)
- e. Airline.
- f. Private or company vehicle
- g. Other (_____)

7e. Thinking about the transportation you used the most, please tell us how convenient you found that transportation for getting you where you needed to go?

- a. Very convenient
- b. Somewhat convenient
- c. Not too convenient
- d. Not at all convenient

[If rented car in 7d]

7f. Which rental car companies did you use for your transportation in the U.S.?

- a. Hertz
- b. National
- c. Avis
- d. Budget
- e. Alamo
- f. Enterprise
- g. Dollar
- h. Other: specify

C. PAST SHOPPING TRAVEL

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8. Thinking about the last trip to the U.S. you have taken over the past 12 months in which you shopped, which best describes the role of shopping on that trip? [Choose only one.]
- Shopping was the key reason I chose to take the trip.
 - Shopping helped me choose between potential destinations.
 - Shopping did not play a role in my destination decision but I still participated in shopping during my trip
- 9a. Thinking about your international travel overall, how well do each of the statements below describe you?

RANDOMIZE	Very Well (4)	Somewhat Well	Not too well	Not at all well	Don't Know/Rather not say (99)
1. I prefer to spend money on vacation travel rather than other purchases					
2. I prefer to travel internationally rather than in my own country					
3. I want to expand my knowledge and understanding of the world					
4. International travel enriches my relationship with my spouse/partner/children					
5. International travel provides educational experiences for my children					
6. I want to explore a different culture					
7. I want to stimulate my mind mind/be intellectually challenged					

10. What other destinations did you consider before you decided on coming to the U.S.?

_____ [OPEN END]

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10a. What was/were the location(s) of the most recent trip (within the last 12 months) to the U.S. you took in which you shopped? Please check all that apply. SEE APPENDIX FOR LIST OF TOP CITIES

1. Atlanta
2. Baltimore
3. Boston (Manchester, NH)
4. Buffalo
5. Charleston, SC
6. Charlotte
7. Chicago
8. Cleveland-Akron (Canton)
9. Dallas-Fort Worth
10. Denver
11. Detroit
12. Fort Myers-Naples
13. Hartford-New Haven
14. Honolulu
15. Houston
16. Las Vegas
17. Los Angeles
18. Miami-Fort Lauderdale
19. Minneapolis-Saint Paul
20. New York
21. Norfolk-Portsmouth-Newport News
22. Orlando-Daytona Beach-Melbourne
23. Philadelphia
24. Phoenix (Prescott)
25. Portland, OR
26. Richmond-Petersburg
27. Sacramento-Stockton-Modesto
28. Salt Lake City
29. San Diego
30. San Francisco-Oakland-San Jose
31. Seattle-Tacoma
32. Tampa-Saint Petersburg (Sarasota)
33. Washington, DC (Hagerstown)
34. West Palm Beach-Fort Pierce
35. **My destination is not listed**

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[IF THEIR DESTINATION WAS NOT LISTED IN 10A. THEY WILL BE SHOWN A MORE EXTENDED LIST OF DESTINATIONS WHICH INCLUDES "Other: Specify _____"]

Abilene-Sweetwater	Dothan	Lafayette, LA	Roanoke-Lynchburg
Albany, GA	Duluth-Superior	Lake Charles	Rochester, NY
Albany-Schenectady-Troy	El Paso (Las Cruces)	Lansing	Rochester-Mason City-
Albuquerque-Santa Fe	Elmira (Corning)	Laredo	Austin
Alexandria, LA	Erie	Lexington	Rockford
Alpena	Eugene	Lima	Saint Joseph
Amarillo	Eureka	Lincoln & Hastings-	Saint Louis
Anchorage	Evansville	Kearney	Salisbury
Augusta	Fairbanks	Little Rock-Pine Bluff	San Angelo
Austin	Fargo-Valley City	Louisville	San Antonio
Bakersfield	Flint-Saginaw-Bay City	Lubbock	Santa Barbara-Santa
Bangor	Fort Smith-Fayetteville-	Macon	Maria-San Luis Obispo
Baton Rouge	Springdale-Rogers	Madison	Savannah
Beaumont-Port Arthur	Fort Wayne	Mankato	Sherman-Ada
Bend, OR	Fresno-Visalia	Marquette	Shreveport
Billings	Gainesville	Medford-Klamath Falls	Sioux City
Biloxi-Gulfport	Glendive	Memphis	Sioux Falls (Mitchell)
Binghamton	Grand Junction-Montrose	Meridian	South Bend-Elkhart
Birmingham (Anniston	Grand Rapids-Kalmazoo-	Milwaukee	Spokane
and Tuscaloosa)	Battle Creek	Minot-Bismarck-	Springfield, MO
Bluefield-Beckley-Oak	Great Falls	Dickinson (Williston)	Springfield-Holyoke
Hill	Green Bay-Appleton	Missoula	Syracuse
Boise	Greensboro-High Point-	Mobile-Pensacola (Fort	Tallahassee-Thomasville
Bowling Green	Winston-Salem	Walton Beach)	Terre Haute
Burlington-Plattsburgh	Greenville-New Bern-	Monroe-El Dorado	Toledo
Butte-Bozeman	Washington	Monterey-Salinas	Topeka
Casper-Riverton	Greenville-Spartanburg-	Montgomery-Selma	Traverse City-Cadillac
Cedar Rapids-Waterloo-	Asheville-Anderson	Myrtle Beach-Florence	Tri-Cities, TN-VA
Iowa City & Dubuque	Greenwood-Greenville	Nashville	Tucson (Sierra Vista)
Champaign & Springfield-	Harlingen-Weslaco-	New Orleans	Tulsa
Decatur	Brownsville-McAllen	North Platte	Twin Falls
Charleston-Huntington	Harrisburg-Lancaster-	Odessa-Midland	Tyler-Longview (Lufkin
Charlottesville	Lebanon-York	Oklahoma City	& Nacogdoches)
Chattanooga	Harrisonburg	Omaha	Utica
Cheyenne-Scottsbluff	Hattiesburg-Laurel	Ottumwa-Kirksville	Victoria
Chico-Redding	Helena	Paducah-Cape Girardeau-	Waco-Temple-Bryan
Cincinnati	Huntsville-Decatur	Harrisburg	Watertown
Clarksburg-Weston	(Florence)	Palm Springs	Wausau-Rhineland
Colorado Springs-Pueblo	Idaho Falls-Pocatello	Panama City	Wheeling-Steubenville
Columbia, SC	Indianapolis	Parkersburg	Wichita Falls & Lawton
Columbia-Jefferson City	Jackson, MS	Peoria-Bloomington	Wichita-Hutchinson Plus
Columbus, GA	Jackson, TN	Pittsburgh	Wilkes Barre-Scranton
Columbus, OH	Jacksonville	Portland-Auburn	Wilmington
Columbus-Tupelo-West	Johnstown-Altoona	Presque Isle	Yakima-Pasco-Richland-
Point	Jonesboro	Providence-New Bedford	Kennewick
Corpus Christi	Joplin-Pittsburg	Quincy-Hannibal-Keokuk	Youngstown
Davenport-Rock Island-	Juneau	Raleigh-Durham	Yuma-El Centro
Moline	Kansas City	(Fayetteville)	Zanesville
Dayton	Knoxville	Rapid City	
Des Moines-Ames	La Crosse-Eau Claire	Reno	
	Lafayette, IN		

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10b. How far in advance did you plan your last trip to the U.S.?

Days: _____

11. How long did you stay?

- a. Just a day trip; no overnights
- b. 1 to 2 days with at least 1 overnight
- c. 3 to 4 days
- d. 5 to 6 days
- e. 7 to 10 days
- f. 11 to 14 days
- g. 15 to 21 days
- h. 22 to 28 days
- i. 29 to 35 days
- j. 36 or more days

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[IF YOU HAD AT LEAST ONE OVERNIGHT]

12a. Where did you stay? Please select all that apply.

- a. Hotel/Motel/Resort
- b. Bed and Breakfast
- c. Rental condominium/Rental town home/Rental house
- d. Owned home/Owned condominium/Owned town home/apartment/timeshare
- e. Stay with family/friend
- f. Recreational Vehicle (RV)
- g. Other

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[Q12ba. – HOTEL STAY] When traveling on your **most recent trip**, at which of the following hotels did you stay? If you stayed at more than one hotel, please select all hotels that apply **RANDOMIZE**

Hotels Stayed at on this trip

Aloft
AmeriSuites
Best Western
Cambria Suites
Candlewood Suites
Clarion
Comfort Inn
Conrad
Country Inn & Suites
Courtyard
Crowne Plaza
DoubleTree
Embassy Suites
Fairfield Inn
Fairmont
Four Points
Four Seasons
Grand Hyatt
Hampton Inn
Hilton
Hilton Garden Inn
Holiday Inn
Holiday Inn Express
Homewood Suites
Hotel Indigo
Hyatt

Stayed Most Number of Nights

Hyatt Place
InterContinental
JW Marriott
Kimpton (e.g. Hotel Monaco,
Hotel Palomar)
La Quinta
Marriott
Omni
Park Hyatt
Quality Inn
Radisson
Ramada
Renaissance
Residence Inn
Ritz-Carlton
Sheraton
SpringHill Suites
Staybridge Suites
Studio Plus
Summerfield Suites
TownePlace Suites
W Hotels
Westin
Wyndham
Independent hotel (not part of
a chain)
Other

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[Q12bb. – HOTEL STAY]

If you have stayed at multiple hotels, please indicate the hotel where you stayed the most nights.

12c. When traveling either domestically or internationally, which hotel brand do you use most often? [REPEAT LIST ABOVE.]

12d. FOR HOTEL STAYED MOST OFTEN] And what was the average room rate per night you spent at this hotel, **excluding** food and beverages.

\$ _____

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13. In total, what percentage of the time did you spend shopping, dining, and on other activities, while you visited [Insert destination visited] the last time? Please provide your best estimate. The total should be equal to 100%.

- a. Shopping _____% of time
 - b. Dining _____% of time
 - c. Other activities _____% of time
- Total=100%

14a. Altogether, how many adults and/or children are in your travel party? (Exclude your tour group members unless you knew them and planned to travel with them prior to booking the tour.)

- Number of adults: _____
- Number of children under 18 years old: _____

15. Did you shop with someone? Please select all that apply.

- a. Shopped with my spouse or significant other
- b. Shopped with friend(s)
- c. Shopped with co-worker(s)
- d. Shopped with child/children under 18 years of age
- e. Shopped with adult child/children 18 years of age or older
- f. Shopped with other family members
- g. Shopped with members of organized group tour
- h. Shopped alone

16. Thinking about all of your shopping on this trip, please tell us for whom you shopped. Please select all that apply.

- a. Myself
- b. Spouse or significant other
- c. My children
- d. Grandchildren
- e. Siblings
- f. Friends
- g. Nieces/nephews/other children
- h. Other family
- i. Coworkers, neighbors, other adults

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9b. How did you get to the shopping area when you were in [Insert destination visited]? Please select all that apply, covering all of your shopping on this trip.

- a. City bus
- b. Mall shuttle bus
- c. Hotel shuttle bus
- d. Motor Coach (as part of a tour)
- e. Taxi
- f. Rental car
- g. Train
- h. Private or company vehicle
- i. Other public transportation
- j. Walk
- k. Other (please specify _____)

[Regarding the most recent trip to [insert Q10a]

17a. Now, please list five of the brands you shopped for while on this trip, if any. If you shopped for more than five brands, please list the five brands that you consider the favorite brands you shopped for during your trip.

17b. At which of the following did you shop on your last trip?

- **Department store**
- **Outlet mall**
- **Boutique, or specialty store**
- **Shopping Center, or Mall**
- **Discount Store (such as target, Wal-Mart, Kmart, etc.)**

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Q17bb. Please indicate where you spent the most money and where you spent the least amount of money?

- **Department store**
- **Outlet mall**
- **Boutique, or specialty store**
- **Shopping Center, or Mall**
- **Discount Store (such as target, Wal-Mart, Kmart, etc.)**

17c. Which of the following retailers have you heard of?

- Macys
- Bloomingdales
- JC Penny
- Sears
- Saks Fifth Avenue
- Neiman Marcus
- Nordstrom's
- Dillard's
- Kohls
- Lord and Taylor

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[Among those aware of retailers above,]

18. And at which of the following did you shop in the U.S. during the past 12 months?

- Macys
- Bloomingdales
- JC Penny
- Sears
- Saks Fifth Avenue
- Neiman Marcus
- Nordstrom's
- Dillard's
- Kohls
- Lord and Taylor

19. Now, which among the following do you think are most widely known throughout the world as a top U.S. brand? Choose as many as apply. [WILL ALTER LIST OF BRANDS BASED ON INPUT FROM MACY'S AND OTHER SPONSORS.]

- | | | |
|--------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| a. Macy's | Schwarzenegger | o. Kenneth Cole |
| b. Ralph Lauren | i. Nordstrom | p. Target |
| c. The Gap | j. Tommy Hilfiger | q. Michael Kors |
| d. McDonald's | k. J.C. Penny | r. Dooney & Bourke |
| e. Jessica Simpson | l. P. Diddy | s. Levi's |
| f. Coach | m. Martha Stewart | t. Madonna |
| g. Lady Gaga | n. Calvin Klein | u. Other |
| h. Arnold | | |

20. Regarding the most recent trip to the U.S., please indicate if the following were important to your shopping experience. Please select all that apply.

RANDOMIZE	
a. Shopping environment that reflects the local culture	
b. Availability of fine dining restaurants	
c. Special discounts for travelers	
d. Shipping service	
e. Helpful and friendly sales associates	
f. Sales associates/mall personnel able to communicate with me	
g. Ability to check product availability on store's website before I shop	
h. Convenient transportation to and from the shopping area	
i. Shopping tours that take me to the best areas for shopping	
j. A wide selection of types of products	
k. Good value for price paid	
l. A wide selection of brands to choose from	
m. Large variety of dining options	
n. Availability of luxury brands	
o. Availability of day spas and salons	
p. Have directions, maps, and signage available in my native language	
q. An upscale mall environment	
r. Outlet mall	
s. Other, specify: _____	

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21. Regarding the most recent trip to the U.S., which of the following did you purchase? Please indicate if you purchased these items on your trips **and** whether or not you had planned ahead of time (before your trip) to purchase these items.

RANDOMIZE	Purchased	Had Planned to Purchase
a. Women’s apparel		
b. Men’s apparel		
c. Children’s apparel		
d. Shoes, boots		
e. Jewelry		
f. Handbags		
g. Luggage		
h. Other fashion accessories (e.g., Belt, scarf, hat)		
i. Electronics		
j. Fine Art		
k. Arts and crafts		
l. Perfume		
m. Cosmetics, beauty products		
n. Food/candies		
o. Music CDs		
p. Books		
q. Toys		
r. Home furnishings or décor		
s. Souvenirs		

[IF STUDENT]

22. Still thinking about your last trip to the U.S., were you traveling with other students or as part of an organized student group from a college or University?

- Traveling with other students
- Travelling as part of an organized student group from a college or University
- Traveling to US to attend school

23. What forms of payment do you typically use when shopping in the U.S.? Please select all that apply.

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------------|
| a. Credit cards | d. Cash |
| b. Debit cards | e. Gift Cards |
| c. Travelers’ checks | f. Other (please specify_____) |

[IF USE CREDIT CARDS, ASK Q23:]

23a. What credit cards did you use when shopping in the U.S.? Please select all that apply. [If respondent chooses F, they cannot select any other response.]

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--|
| a. Visa | [Insert Most Used Credit Cards in each Market] |
| b. American Express | |
| c. Mastercard | |
| d. JCB | |
| e. China Union Pay | |
| f. Diner’s Club | |
| g. Discover | |
| h. Do not use a credit card | |
| i. Other (please specify_____) | |

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24. Which of the following information sources did you use to plan your last trip to [Insert destination visited]? Please select all that apply.

[MULTIPLE RESPONSE]
[RANDOMIZE]

- a. Search engine sites
- b. Online travel agency
- c. Traditional travel agency
- d. Newspapers
- e. Travel magazines
- f. Television
- g. Radio
- h. Brochure received by mail
- i. Family or friends
- j. Travel guides or books
- k. City Convention and Visitor Bureaus
- l. State/Provincial Tourism offices or visitor centers
- m. Welcome centers en route to destination
- n. Material saved from a previous holiday
- o. Traveler community sites (IGOUGO.com, Tripadvisor)
- p. Podcasts
- q. Blogs
- r. Social Media sites (such as Facebook, MySpace)
- s. Social Media travel sites (such as TripAdvisor, etc.)
- t. Travel provider websites (e.g., airline, hotel, etc.)
- u. Online travel website (Expedia, Orbitz, Travelocity)
- v. Destination web sites (ex. sites dedicated to a specific US city or attraction)
- w. Other travel websites (ShopAmericaTours.com; DiscoverAmerica.com, etc.)
- x. None
- a1. Destination travel guides (printed guides to a specific US destination)
- a2. Maps

25a. How was the trip booked? Please consider this regardless of whether you personally, or someone else, actually booked the trip. Please select all that apply.

[MULTIPLE RESPONSE]
[RANDOMIZE]

- a. Booked directly on a travel provider website(s) (owned by airline, hotel, car-rental company, cruiseline, travel or accommodations provider)
- b. Booked directly with the travel provider via the telephone or in person
- c. Booked with a full-service travel agency via the Internet (e.g., American Express, Carlson Wagonlit)
- d. Booked with a full-service travel agency via the telephone or in person
- e. Booked with an online travel website (e.g., Expedia, Orbitz, Travelocity)
- f. Booked with a corporate travel department
- g. Booked with an online corporate booking tool (e.g., Expedia Corporate Travel, GetThere, Orbitz for Business, etc.)
- h. Booked directly with a tour operator
- i. Other online sites (e.g., ShopAmericaTours.com, DiscoverAmerica.com)
- j. Other
- k. Did not book trip

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25b. Which of the following did you travel with on your last trip to the U.S.?

- a. Smart phone (such as Iphone, Blackberry, Droid, etc.)
- b. Music device such as IPod, MP3 player
- c. Video device, such as DVD player
- d. Video camera
- e. Digital camera
- f. Non-digital camera
- g. Cell phone (not a smartphone)

25c. Which of the following did you use on your smartphone or cell phone while on your last trip to the U.S.?

- h. Smart phone (such as Iphone, Blackberry, Droid, etc.)
- i. GPS application on phone or other device
- j. Electronic maps, such as Google Maps, Mapquest, etc.
- k. Texting or SMS on your phone
- l. WiFi Finder
- m. Sending and receiving email from your phone
- n. Reading and/or posting on Facebook, MySpace, or other social media sites
- o. Travel sites, such as Expedia, Travelocity, Orbitz, Kayak, Priceline, etc.
- p. Other

D. FUTURE TRAVEL

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26. How likely are you to take a trip to the U.S. within the next year?

- a. Definitely, my trip is already booked
- b. Very likely
- c. Somewhat likely
- d. Not too likely
- e. Not at all likely
- f. Not sure

27. Please indicate the likelihood that you would travel to one of the major U.S. cities to attend an annual Shopping Festival? This shopping festival would be a special event to include things like major discounts on shopping, discounted hotel packages, cultural events and other attractions to enhance your travel and shopping experience in this city.

- a. Very likely to attend even if I have visited the city before
- b. Very likely to attend but only if it was a city I had not visited before
- c. Somewhat likely to attend
- d. Not too likely to attend
- e. Not at all likely to attend

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University of Florida

61a. Using a scale of 1 to 5, where 1= Very much Unlikely, 3= Neutral and 5= Very much Likely, please think about your next or upcoming leisure trip within the United States and rate your perception of the likelihood that the following crises may occur.

Crisis/risk level						The crisis occurs in the State of destination									
						1	2	3	4	5					
Terrorism															
Crime															
Natural Disasters (i.e., hurricane,															
Disease (i.e., SARS)															
Food Safety (i.e., outbreak of salmonella)															
Financial															
Health (i.e, travelers diarrhea)															
Physical (accidents)															
Equipment failure (i.e., airplane delay due to malfunctions)															
Weather (i.e., storms, flooding)															
Cultural barriers															
Political (i.e., coups)															

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61b. Please rate the states below according to your perception of how safe you feel traveling within the following states, using a 5 point scale, where 1= very safe, 2=safe, 3=neither safe/nor risky, 4= risky, 5=very risky, 6 = don't know

States	1 Very safe	2 safe	3 neutral	4 risky	5 Very risky	6 Don't know	
California							
Florida							
Texas							
Nevada							
Hawaii							
Massachusetts							
Illinois							
New York							
New Jersey							
Washington DC							

62. Supposed that you are currently in the middle of your trip and you hear that a crisis has just occurred within the immediate vicinity of your current location, please indicate the likelihood you would turn to the following sources of media to get more information (using a scale of 1 to 5, where 1= Very much Unlikely, 3= Neutral and 5= Very much Likely).

Media	1	2	3	4	5
Newspaper					
Radio					
Television					
Travel agents					
Internet					
Friends/relatives					
Text messages					
Local tourism office (CVB)					
State tourism office (STO)					
Social media (e.g. Facebook)					
Local residents					
Other tourists in your destination					
Hotel concierge					
Consulate General/Embassy					
Local law enforcement office/police					

E. DEMOGRAPHICS / CLASSIFICATION QUESTIONS

FOR THOSE WHO TRAVELED BY AIR:

28. When you travel internationally, do the airlines' luggage restrictions cause you to buy fewer items?

- Yes 1
- No..... 2
- Sometimes 3

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The following questions are for classification purposes only.

29. **What is your gender?**

- Male..... 1
- Female..... 2

30. **What is your age?** _____

31. **Which of the following best describes your marital status?**

- Single, never married 1
- Living with partner/significant other 2
- Married 3
- Divorced/Separated 4
- Widowed 5
- Living with friends 6
- Rather not say..... 7

APPENDIX C
ADDITIONAL FINDINGS

Perception of the Likelihood of a Crisis Occurring during an Upcoming Trip to the U.S.

Table C-1. Perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. – *terrorism* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
Brazil		16.1	15.1	56.1	8.1	4.6	2.70
China		12.1	31.1	47.2	8.1	1.5	2.56
Australia		21.1	24.2	38.1	12.2	4.4	2.55
India		14.2	38.2	37.2	8.2	2.2	2.46
Korea		22.1	29.0	33.2	12.1	3.5	2.46

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-2. Perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. – *crime* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
Australia		9.1	11.2	46.1	13.1	20.6	3.25
Brazil		14.1	12.0	27.1	29.2	17.6	3.24
Korea		7.1	21.1	38.2	25.1	8.6	3.07
China		12.1	16.1	40.1	17.1	14.6	3.06
India		14.2	21.2	26.2	24.2	14.2	3.03

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-3. Perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. – *natural disasters* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
Brazil		23.2	24.0	34.2	12.0	6.6	2.55
India		29.2	11.2	43.2	12.2	4.2	2.51
Korea		21.1	32.2	38.2	8.1	0.4	2.35
China		32.2	24.0	40.1	3.1	0.6	2.16
Australia		37.1	21.1	37.1	4.2	0.6	2.10

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-4. Perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. – *disease* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
China		8.1	8.1	23.2	29.0	31.5	3.68
Australia		9.1	8.2	40.2	22.1	20.4	3.37
Brazil		7.0	12.0	42.0	26.1	12.8	3.26
Korea		19.2	11.1	24.0	20.0	25.7	3.22
India		12.2	15.2	44.2	11.2	17.2	3.06

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-5. Perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. – *food safety* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
Australia		8.2	16.2	22.1	33.1	20.4	3.41
India		11.2	10.2	40.2	24.2	14.2	3.20
Brazil		23.2	21.1	29.2	15.1	11.4	2.70
China		24.0	21.1	40.1	10.0	4.8	2.51
Korea		33.2	12.1	37.2	16.1	1.5	2.41

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-6. Perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. – *financial* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
India		5.2	15.2	14.2	27.2	38.2	3.78
Australia		8.2	9.1	25.1	31.2	26.5	3.59
China		8.1	14.2	30.1	29.0	18.6	3.36
Brazil		35.2	22.2	15.1	14.1	13.5	2.48
Korea		23.2	29.0	32.2	14.2	1.5	2.42

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-7. Perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. – *health* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
India		8.2	9.2	69.2	12.2	1.2	2.89
Brazil		9.1	29.2	53.0	4.1	4.6	2.66
China		21.1	28.2	30.1	9.2	11.5	2.62
Korea		26.1	32.2	22.1	12.1	7.5	2.43
Australia		32.8	33.0	28.6	4.4	1.1	2.08

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-8. Perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. – *physical* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
Korea		6.1	12.1	31.1	29.0	21.7	3.48
India		5.2	12.2	53.2	18.2	11.2	3.18
Australia		21.1	12.2	44.2	14.1	8.4	2.77
Brazil		21.1	15.1	41.2	19.0	3.5	2.69
China		18.2	29.0	48.0	4.2	0.6	2.40

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-9. Perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. – *equipment failure* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
China		13.2	25.1	26.1	22.1	13.6	2.98
Korea		19.2	28.2	27.1	14.2	11.3	2.70
Brazil		19.0	21.1	39.1	13.0	7.7	2.69
India		22.2	37.2	33.2	5.2	2.2	2.28
Australia		31.2	33.1	33.1	2.1	0.6	2.08

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-10. Perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. – *weather* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
Australia		5.1	14.1	46.1	12.2	22.5	3.33
Korea		9.2	34.0	40.1	12.1	4.6	2.69
Brazil		17.2	26.1	43.1	8.1	5.6	2.59
China		19.2	29.0	39.0	7.1	5.6	2.51
India		22.2	13.2	59.2	5.2	0.2	2.48

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-11. Perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. – *cultural barriers* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
China		4.2	16.1	35.1	27.1	17.5	3.38
Korea		10.0	11.1	38.2	32.2	8.6	3.18
India		12.2	15.2	46.2	18.2	8.2	2.95
Australia		14.1	19.2	56.2	4.2	6.3	2.69
Brazil		14.1	28.2	37.1	17.2	3.5	2.68

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-12. Perception of the likelihood of a crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. – *political* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
Brazil		3.1	14.1	57.1	7.0	18.6	3.24
Korea		5.0	32.2	40.1	21.1	1.7	2.82
China		12.1	18.2	61.2	4.2	4.4	2.71
Australia		17.1	29.1	39.2	12.2	2.5	2.54
India		21.2	15.2	58.2	5.2	0.2	2.48

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Likelihood of Information Source Use during a Crisis

Table C-13. Likelihood of use during a crisis - *newspaper* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
Australia		16.2	14.1	38.1	14.1	17.5	3.03
India		10.4	30.8	25.0	23.6	10.2	2.92
Brazil		28.2	31.1	22.2	11.2	7.5	2.39
China		26.1	22.1	45.1	5.0	1.7	2.34
Korea		31.1	30.9	29.4	7.1	1.5	2.17

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-14. Likelihood of use during a crisis - *radio* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
India		11.0	31.4	22.4	26.0	9.2	2.91
China		6.1	45.1	36.1	8.1	4.6	2.60
Brazil		18.0	32.5	47.8	1.7	0.0	2.33
Korea		16.1	39.0	43.0	1.0	0.8	2.32
Australia		31.2	33.5	31.8	3.2	0.4	2.08

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-15. Likelihood of use during a crisis - *television* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
Brazil		9.1	12.0	33.1	19.3	26.5	3.42
Korea		15.0	12.1	22.1	29.0	21.7	3.30
Australia		7.2	12.2	41.1	24.2	15.4	3.28
China		11.9	24.0	20.9	32.2	11.1	3.06
India		13.2	32.6	24.0	19.4	10.8	2.82

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-16. Likelihood of use during a crisis – *travel agents* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
China		2.1	13.2	46.8	22.5	15.4	3.36
Korea		4.2	22.1	30.1	29.0	14.6	3.28
Brazil		11.2	12.0	36.2	22.2	18.4	3.25
India		10.4	33.2	22.8	22.0	11.6	2.91
Australia		19.2	29.1	24.8	14.1	12.8	2.72

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-17. Likelihood of use during a crisis - *Internet* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
China		4.2	2.1	46.1	25.1	22.5	3.60
Korea		6.1	11.1	28.2	34.0	20.7	3.52
Australia		7.2	16.2	31.2	28.2	17.3	3.32
Brazil		14.1	28.2	24.0	21.1	12.6	2.90
India		12.4	31.8	20.6	24.8	10.4	2.89

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-18. Likelihood of use during a crisis – *friends/relatives* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
Korea		3.1	6.1	41.8	23.6	25.5	3.62
Brazil		7.0	10.1	38.3	25.1	19.5	3.40
Australia		11.8	12.2	26.5	29.1	20.4	3.34
China		14.4	22.1	18.0	27.1	18.4	3.13
India		14.6	29.0	23.0	22.4	11.0	2.86

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-19. Likelihood of use during a crisis – *text messages* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
Brazil		4.1	16.1	31.1	22.2	26.5	3.51
China		4.2	21.1	22.1	32.2	20.5	3.44
Korea		9.2	14.2	29.0	29.0	18.6	3.34
India		12.6	32.2	21.6	22.6	11.0	2.87
Australia		23.2	21.1	33.1	12.2	10.5	2.66

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-20. Likelihood of use during a crisis – *local tourism office (CVB)* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
India	12.4	30.4	16.8	26.2	14.2	2.99
Korea	8.1	29.6	52.6	3.1	6.5	2.70
Australia	18.1	31.6	42.7	6.1	1.5	2.41
Brazil	19.0	37.1	33.1	7.0	3.7	2.39
China	17.1	35.1	44.1	2.1	1.7	2.36

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-21. Likelihood of use during a crisis – *state tourism office (STO)* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
India	12.2	28.0	22.8	26.0	11.0	2.96
Korea	6.1	30.5	49.9	9.2	4.4	2.75
China	7.1	38.2	41.1	12.1	1.5	2.63
Australia	9.5	30.5	55.6	4.2	0.2	2.55
Brazil	19.0	35.2	38.1	7.7	0.0	2.34

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-22. Likelihood of use during a crisis – *social media* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
Korea	4.2	8.1	40.1	27.1	20.5	3.52
Australia	3.2	8.2	46.1	29.1	13.5	3.41
China	15.4	22.1	22.1	20.0	20.3	3.08
Brazil	12.0	15.1	40.4	20.1	12.4	3.06
India	10.6	28.6	22.8	26.8	11.2	2.99

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-23. Likelihood of use during a crisis – *local residents* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
Korea	4.2	14.2	51.1	16.1	14.4	3.22
Brazil	7.0	34.2	17.2	23.2	18.4	3.12
India	13.0	30.6	24.6	21.2	10.6	2.86
Australia	14.1	21.1	45.1	12.2	7.6	2.78
China	24.0	29.0	27.3	12.1	7.5	2.50

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-24. Likelihood of use during a crisis – *other tourists in your destination* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean
India	13.0	26.8	23.8	26.0	10.4	2.94
China	25.1	22.1	14.6	21.5	16.7	2.83
Brazil	21.1	21.1	26.9	23.4	7.5	2.75
Australia	13.9	37.1	24.4	16.2	8.4	2.68
Korea	14.2	34.9	41.5	6.1	3.3	2.49

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-25. Likelihood of use during a crisis – *hotel concierge* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
China		5.0	14.2	28.2	32.2	20.5	3.49
Korea		11.1	12.1	32.2	18.2	26.5	3.37
Australia		12.2	14.1	29.5	20.8	23.4	3.29
Brazil		7.0	21.1	26.1	36.0	9.7	3.20
India		15.4	33.2	21.0	19.6	10.8	2.77

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-26. Likelihood of use during a crisis – *consulate general/embassy* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
China		12.1	12.1	24.2	31.1	20.5	3.36
Korea		10.0	21.1	23.8	26.5	18.6	3.23
Australia		15.2	23.2	20.2	25.1	16.4	3.04
Brazil		13.0	19.0	38.1	12.0	17.8	3.02
India		10.4	33.4	22.4	22.2	11.6	2.91

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Table C-27. Likelihood of use during a crisis – *local law enforcement office/police* by country (% within country)

Country	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	
China		2.1	5.0	26.1	46.1	20.7	3.78
Korea		5.0	7.1	22.1	37.2	28.6	3.77
Australia		7.2	12.2	30.1	32.2	18.3	3.42
Brazil		13.0	14.1	23.2	29.2	20.5	3.30
India		15.8	34.0	19.2	22.2	8.8	2.74

Note: 1 = very much unlikely, 3 = neutral, 5 = very much likely

Research Question 4

There was a significant difference in the scores of tourists who had only taken one trip ($\mu = 2.33$, $SD = 1.02$) and those who had taken more than one trip ($\mu = 2.76$, $SD = .91$); $t(2382) = -10.99$, $p = .000$ (two-tailed) for the perception of the likelihood of terrorism occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. The magnitude of the differences in means (mean difference = $-.43$, 95% CI: $-.51$ to $-.35$) was fairly small (eta squared = $.05$).

An independent-samples t-test revealed that there was a significant difference in the scores of tourists who had only taken one trip ($\mu = 2.88$, $SD = 1.14$) and those who had taken more than one trip ($\mu = 3.38$, $SD = 1.19$); $t(2408) = -10.49$, $p = .000$ (two-

tailed) for the perception of the likelihood of crime occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. The magnitude of the differences in means (mean difference = -.50, 95% CI: -.59 to -.41) was quite small (eta squared = .04).

A significant difference was found in the scores of tourists who had only taken one trip ($\mu = 2.23$, $SD = 1.07$) and those who had taken more than one trip ($\mu = 2.44$, $SD = 1.02$); $t(2410) = -4.78$, $p = .000$ (two-tailed) for the perception of the likelihood of a natural disaster occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. The magnitude of the differences in means (mean difference = -.20, 95% CI: -.29 to -.12) was small (eta squared = .01).

There was a significant difference in the scores of tourists who had only taken one trip ($\mu = 3.00$, $SD = 1.19$) and those who had taken more than one trip ($\mu = 3.63$, $SD = 1.21$); $t(2412) = -12.85$, $p = .000$ (two-tailed) for the perception of the likelihood of a disease-related crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. The magnitude of the differences in means (mean difference = -.63, 95% CI: -.72 to -.53) was moderate (eta squared = .06).

An independent-samples t-test revealed that there was a significant difference in the scores of tourists who had only taken one trip ($\mu = 2.66$, $SD = 1.28$) and those who had taken more than one trip ($\mu = 3.03$, $SD = 1.18$); $t(2397) = -7.47$, $p = .000$ (two-tailed) for the perception of the likelihood of a food safety-related crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. The magnitude of the differences in means (mean difference = -.37, 95% CI: -.47 to -.28) was quite small (eta squared = .02).

Bivariate analysis revealed a significant difference in the scores of tourists who had only taken one trip ($\mu = 3.02$, $SD = 1.35$) and those who had taken more than one

trip ($\mu = 3.24$, $SD = 1.34$); $t(2414) = -4.12$, $p = .000$ (two-tailed) for the perception of the likelihood of a financial crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. The magnitude of the differences in means (mean difference = $-.23$, 95% CI: $-.33$ to $-.12$) was small (eta squared = $.01$).

There was a significant difference in the scores of tourists who had only taken one trip ($\mu = 2.33$, $SD = 1.03$) and those who had taken more than one trip ($\mu = 2.75$, $SD = 1.04$); $t(2390) = -9.89$, $p = .000$ (two-tailed) for the perception of the likelihood of a health-related crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. The magnitude of the differences in means (mean difference = $-.42$, 95% CI: $-.50$ to $-.34$) was quite small (eta squared = $.04$).

Through an independent-samples t-test, a significant difference was found in the scores of tourists who had only taken one trip ($\mu = 2.78$, $SD = 1.16$) and those who had taken more than one trip ($\mu = 3.03$, $SD = 1.07$); $t(2402) = -5.47$, $p = .000$ (two-tailed) for the perception of the likelihood of a physical crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. The magnitude of the differences in means (mean difference = $-.25$, 95% CI: $-.34$ to $-.16$) was small (eta squared = $.01$).

A significant difference was found in the scores of tourists who had only taken one trip ($\mu = 2.21$, $SD = 1.00$) and those who had taken more than one trip ($\mu = 2.88$, $SD = 1.19$); $t(2335) = -14.86$, $p = .000$ (two-tailed) for the perception of the likelihood of equipment failure occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. The magnitude of the differences in means (mean difference = $-.66$, 95% CI: $-.75$ to $-.58$) was moderate (eta squared = $.08$).

An independent-samples t-test was conducted. It revealed a significant difference in the scores of tourists who had only taken one trip ($\mu = 2.53$, $SD = 1.02$) and those who had taken more than one trip ($\mu = 2.90$, $SD = 1.07$); $t(2414) = -8.83$, $p = .000$ (two-tailed) for the perception of the likelihood of a weather-related crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. The magnitude of the differences in means (mean difference = $-.38$, 95% CI: $-.46$ to $-.29$) was quite small (eta squared = $.03$).

There was a significant difference in the scores of tourists who had only taken one trip ($\mu = 2.82$, $SD = 1.06$) and those who had taken more than one trip ($\mu = 3.14$, $SD = 1.08$); $t(2414) = -7.37$, $p = .000$ (two-tailed) for the perception of the likelihood of encountering cultural barriers during an upcoming trip to the United States. The magnitude of the differences in means (mean difference = $-.32$, 95% CI: $-.41$ to $-.24$) was quite small (eta squared = $.02$).

An independent-samples t-test revealed that there was a significant difference in the scores of tourists who had only taken one trip ($\mu = 2.50$, $SD = .91$) and those who had taken more than one trip ($\mu = 3.01$, $SD = .96$); $t(2406) = -13.46$, $p = .000$ (two-tailed) for the perception of the likelihood of a political crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. The magnitude of the differences in means (mean difference = $-.51$, 95% CI: $-.59$ to $-.44$) was moderate (eta squared = $.07$).

Research Question 5

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of terrorism occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. scores for different cultural groups: $F(4, 2411) = 4.75$, $p = .001$. Post hoc comparisons using the Tahmane's T2 test indicated that the mean score for Brazil ($\mu = 2.70$, $SD = .99$) was significantly higher than India ($\mu = 2.46$, $SD = .91$) and Korea ($\mu = 2.46$, $SD = 1.07$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of crime occurring during a leisure trip in the U.S. scores for different cultural groups: $F(4, 2411) = 3.90, p = .004$. Post hoc comparisons using the Tahmane's T2 test indicated that the mean score for India ($\mu = 3.03, SD = 1.26$) was significantly lower than Australia ($\mu = 3.25, SD = 1.17$) and Brazil ($\mu = 3.24, SD = 1.27$).

Results revealed that there were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of a natural disaster occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. scores for different cultural groups: $F(4, 2411) = 18.02, p = .000$. Post hoc comparisons using the Tahmane's T2 test indicated that the mean score for India ($\mu = 2.51, SD = 1.15$) was significantly higher than Australia ($\mu = 2.10, SD = .98$) and China ($\mu = 2.16, SD = .94$). Brazilians ($\mu = 2.55, SD = 1.16$) had significantly higher perceptions of the likelihood of a natural disaster occurring while traveling in the U.S. than Australians ($\mu = 2.10, SD = .98$), Koreans ($\mu = 2.35, SD = .92$), and Chinese ($\mu = 2.16, SD = .94$). Also, Korean travelers ($\mu = 2.35, SD = .92$) had significantly higher perceptions of the likelihood of a natural disaster occurring during a trip in the U.S. than Australians ($\mu = 2.10, SD = .98$) and significantly lower perceptions than Brazilians ($\mu = 2.55, SD = 1.16$).

With regards to the perception of the likelihood a disease-related crisis occurring while traveling in the U.S., statistical differences occurred among various cultural groups at the $p < .01$ level: $F(4, 2411) = 17.14, p = .000$. Tahmane's T2 post hoc tests indicated that the mean score for China ($\mu = 3.68, SD = 1.23$) was significantly higher than India ($\mu = 3.06, SD = 1.20$), Australia ($\mu = 3.37, SD = 1.16$), Brazil ($\mu = 3.26, SD = 1.06$), and Korea ($\mu = 3.22, SD = 1.44$). While Australians ($\mu = 3.37, SD = 1.16$) rated

the perception of the likelihood of a disease-related crisis occurring during a trip in the United States significantly higher than travelers from India ($\mu = 3.06$, $SD = 1.20$).

Statistical differences occurred among the means of the perception of the likelihood of encountering a food safety-related crisis during travel in the U.S. for the various cultural groups at the $p < .01$ level: $F(4, 2411) = 66.82$, $p = .000$. For a food safety-related crisis, the Tukey's T2 post hoc tests indicated that the mean score for Australia ($\mu = 3.41$, $SD = 1.21$) was significantly higher than India ($\mu = 3.20$, $SD = 1.15$), Brazil ($\mu = 2.70$, $SD = 1.29$), Korea ($\mu = 2.41$, $SD = 1.15$), and China ($\mu = 2.51$, $SD = 1.11$). Whereas, respondents from India ($\mu = 3.20$, $SD = 1.15$) were significantly higher in their perception of the likelihood of a food safety-related crisis occurring than respondents from Brazil ($\mu = 2.70$, $SD = 1.29$), Korea ($\mu = 2.41$, $SD = 1.15$), and China ($\mu = 2.51$, $SD = 1.11$). Likewise, respondents from Brazil ($\mu = 2.70$, $SD = 1.29$) indicated significantly higher perceptions of the likelihood of a food safety-related crisis occurring during a trip in the U.S. than respondents from Korea ($\mu = 2.41$, $SD = 1.15$).

Perceptions of the likelihood of financial crises occurring varied among the cultures. Statistical differences occurred among the means of the perception of the likelihood of encountering a financial crisis while traveling in the U.S. for the various cultural groups at the $p < .01$ level: $F(4, 2411) = 129.68$, $p = .000$. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey's T2 test indicated that Brazilians travelers ($\mu = 2.48$, $SD = 1.43$) had significantly lower perceptions of the likelihood of a financial crisis occurring on a trip to the U.S. than respondents from India ($\mu = 3.78$, $SD = 1.25$), Australia ($\mu = 3.59$, $SD = 1.20$), and China ($\mu = 3.36$, $SD = 1.17$). Koreans ($\mu = 2.42$, $SD = 1.04$) were significantly less likely than respondents from India ($\mu = 3.78$, $SD = 1.25$),

Australia ($\mu = 3.59$, $SD = 1.20$), and China ($\mu = 3.36$, $SD = 1.17$) to indicate that they perceived that a financial crisis would occur while traveling in the United States. Finally, Chinese ($\mu = 3.36$, $SD = 1.17$) respondents were significantly less likely to indicate that they perceived that a financial crisis could occur than Australians ($\mu = 3.59$, $SD = 1.20$) and Indians ($\mu = 3.78$, $SD = 1.25$).

The perception of the likelihood of a health-related crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. varied by culture, as well, with statistical differences occurring for the cultural groups at the $p < .01$ level: $F(4, 2387) = 41.34$, $p = .000$. Post hoc comparisons using the Tahmane's T2 test indicated that respondents from India ($\mu = 2.89$, $SD = .76$) were significantly more likely to indicate that they perceived that a health-related crisis could happen on vacation in the U.S. than respondents from Australia ($\mu = 2.08$, $SD = .94$), Brazil ($\mu = 2.66$, $SD = .88$), Korea ($\mu = 2.43$, $SD = 1.21$), and China ($\mu = 2.62$, $SD = 1.24$). In addition, respondents from Australia ($\mu = 2.08$, $SD = .94$) were significantly less likely to indicate that they perceived that a health-related crisis could occur while on a vacation in the U.S. than respondents from Brazil ($\mu = 2.66$, $SD = .88$), Korea ($\mu = 2.43$, $SD = 1.21$), and China ($\mu = 2.62$, $SD = 1.24$). Korean travelers ($\mu = 2.43$, $SD = 1.21$) had significantly lower perceptions of the likelihood of a health-related crisis occurring while traveling in the United States than Brazilian travelers ($\mu = 2.66$, $SD = .88$).

The perception of the likelihood of a physical crisis occurring during an upcoming trip in the U.S. was statistically different at the $p < .01$ level across cultural groups: $F(4, 2411) = 78.95$, $p = .000$. Post hoc comparisons using the Tahmane's T2 test indicated that respondents from India ($\mu = 3.18$, $SD = .96$) were more likely to express the

perception that a physical crisis could happen while on vacation than respondents from Australia ($\mu = 2.77$, $SD = 1.18$), Brazil ($\mu = 2.69$, $SD = 1.11$), and China ($\mu = 2.40$, $SD = .85$), but less likely than respondents from Korea ($\mu = 3.48$, $SD = 1.14$). In addition, respondents from Korea ($\mu = 3.48$, $SD = 1.14$) were more likely to express that they perceived that a physical accident would occur during a trip than respondents from Australia ($\mu = 2.77$, $SD = 1.18$), Brazil ($\mu = 2.69$, $SD = 1.11$), and China ($\mu = 2.40$, $SD = .85$). While travelers from China ($\mu = 2.40$, $SD = .85$) were less likely to perceive that a physical crisis would occur while traveling in the U.S. than travelers from Australia ($\mu = 2.77$, $SD = 1.18$) and Brazil ($\mu = 2.69$, $SD = 1.11$).

Crises related to equipment failure also indicated statistical differences at the $p < .01$ level by cultural groups: $F(4, 2411) = 51.52$, $p = .000$. Respondents from India ($\mu = 2.28$, $SD = .94$) were more likely to indicate the perception that equipment failure would occur while traveling in the U.S. than respondents from Australia ($\mu = 2.08$, $SD = .88$), but less likely than respondents from Brazil ($\mu = 2.69$, $SD = 1.15$), Korea ($\mu = 2.70$, $SD = 1.25$), and China ($\mu = 2.98$, $SD = 1.24$). Also, Australians ($\mu = 2.08$, $SD = .88$) had significantly lower perceptions of the likelihood of equipment failure occurring than those from Brazil ($\mu = 2.69$, $SD = 1.15$), Korea ($\mu = 2.70$, $SD = 1.25$), and China ($\mu = 2.98$, $SD = 1.24$). Chinese travelers ($\mu = 2.98$, $SD = 1.24$) were more likely to perceive that equipment failure would occur while traveling in the United States than Brazilians ($\mu = 2.69$, $SD = 1.15$) and Koreans ($\mu = 2.70$, $SD = 1.25$).

The perception of the likelihood of a weather-related crisis occurring during an upcoming trip in the U.S. was statistically different at the $p < .01$ level across cultural groups: $F(4, 2411) = 56.95$, $p = .000$. Post hoc comparisons using the Tahmane's T2

test indicated that Australians ($\mu = 3.33$, $SD = 1.12$) were more likely to think that a weather-related crisis would occur during a trip to the U.S. than respondents from India ($\mu = 2.48$, $SD = .90$), Brazil ($\mu = 2.59$, $SD = 1.04$), Korea ($\mu = 2.69$, $SD = .96$), and China ($\mu = 2.51$, $SD = 1.06$). Likewise, Koreans ($\mu = 2.69$, $SD = .96$) indicated a greater perception of the likelihood that a weather-related crisis could happen during a trip than respondents from India ($\mu = 2.48$, $SD = .90$).

The perception of the likelihood of facing cultural barriers during travel in the U.S. scores were significantly different at the $p < .01$ level among the cultural groups: $F(4, 2411) = 40.67$, $p = .000$. Tahmane's T2 post hoc tests indicated that respondents from India ($\mu = 2.95$, $SD = 1.07$) were significantly more likely to express the perception that they might experience cultural barriers while traveling in the U.S. than respondents from Australia ($\mu = 2.69$, $SD = .98$) and Brazil ($\mu = 2.68$, $SD = 1.03$), but had a lower perception of the likelihood than respondents from Korea ($\mu = 3.18$, $SD = 1.07$) and China ($\mu = 3.38$, $SD = 1.08$). Also, Koreans ($\mu = 3.18$, $SD = 1.07$) had significantly higher perceptions of the likelihood of encountering cultural barriers in the U.S. than Australians ($\mu = 2.69$, $SD = .98$) and Brazilians ($\mu = 2.68$, $SD = 1.03$), however, they had lower perceptions than Chinese ($\mu = 3.38$, $SD = 1.08$) travelers. Chinese travelers ($\mu = 3.38$, $SD = 1.08$) were significantly more likely to indicate that they thought they would encounter cultural barriers than travelers from Australia ($\mu = 2.69$, $SD = .98$) and Brazil ($\mu = 2.68$, $SD = 1.03$).

Finally, the scores for the possibility of a political crisis occurring during a trip to the United States also varied by culture. At the $p < .01$, there were statistically significant differences for the perception of the likelihood of a political crisis occurring

during a trip in the U.S. among the cultural groups: $F(4, 2411) = 50.54, p = .000$.

Tahmane's T2 post hoc tests indicated that respondents from India ($\mu = 2.48, SD = .89$) were significantly less likely to indicate they perceived that a political coup might occur while traveling in the U.S. than respondents from Brazil ($\mu = 3.24, SD = 1.01$), Korea ($\mu = 2.82, SD = .88$), and China ($\mu = 2.71, SD = .89$). Furthermore, Brazilians ($\mu = 3.24, SD = 1.01$) were more likely to perceive the risk of encountering a political crisis while traveling in the United States than those from Australia ($\mu = 2.54, SD = .99$), Korea ($\mu = 2.82, SD = .88$), and China ($\mu = 2.71, SD = .89$). Korean travelers ($\mu = 2.82, SD = .88$) also had higher perceptions than Australians ($\mu = 2.54, SD = .99$) for political crises.

Research Question 6A

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of terrorism occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. scores for age groups: $F(4, 2411) = 29.69, p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .05. Post hoc comparisons using the Tahmane's T2 test indicated that the mean score for 41-50 ($\mu = 2.90, SD = .94$) was significantly higher than 18-30 ($\mu = 2.42, SD = 1.04$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.41, SD = 1.00$), 51-65 ($\mu = 2.56, SD = .80$), and 65+ ($\mu = 1.95, SD = .94$). The age group 65+ ($\mu = 1.95, SD = .94$) was significantly lower than those ages between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 2.42, SD = 1.04$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.41, SD = 1.00$), and 51-65 ($\mu = 2.56, SD = .80$) for the perception of the likelihood of terrorism occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States.

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of crime occurring scores for age groups: $F(4, 2411) = 51.87, p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between

the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .08. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey's HSD test indicated that the mean score for 41-50 ($\mu = 3.64$, $SD = 1.14$) was significantly higher than 18-30 ($\mu = 2.93$, $SD = 1.18$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.96$, $SD = 1.13$), 51-65 ($\mu = 3.20$, $SD = 1.14$), and 65+ ($\mu = 1.83$, $SD = .85$). The age group 51-65 ($\mu = 3.20$, $SD = 1.14$) was significantly higher than those between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 2.93$, $SD = 1.18$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.96$, $SD = 1.13$), and 65+ ($\mu = 1.83$, $SD = .85$) for the perception of the likelihood of crime occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. The age group 65+ ($\mu = 1.83$, $SD = .85$) perceived the likelihood of crime occurring while traveling in the U.S. to be significantly lower than respondents between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 2.93$, $SD = 1.18$) and 31-40 ($\mu = 2.96$, $SD = 1.13$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of a natural disaster occurring scores for age groups: $F(4, 2411) = 21.23$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .03. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey's HSD test indicated that the mean score for 41-50 ($\mu = 2.67$, $SD = 1.05$) was significantly higher than 18-30 ($\mu = 2.27$, $SD = 1.07$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.22$, $SD = 1.07$), 51-65 ($\mu = 2.23$, $SD = .87$), and 65+ ($\mu = 1.86$, $SD = .87$) for the perception of the likelihood of a natural disaster occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States.

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of a disease-related crisis occurring scores for age groups: $F(4, 2411) = 63.72$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta

squared, was .10. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for 41-50 ($\mu = 3.90$, $SD = 1.14$) was significantly higher than 18-30 ($\mu = 3.08$, $SD = 1.21$), 31-40 ($\mu = 3.09$, $SD = 1.20$), 51-65 ($\mu = 3.43$, $SD = 1.18$), and 65+ ($\mu = 1.98$, $SD = .84$). The age group 51-65 ($\mu = 3.43$, $SD = 1.18$) was significantly higher than respondents between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 3.08$, $SD = 1.21$), 31-40 ($\mu = 3.09$, $SD = 1.20$), and 65+ ($\mu = 1.98$, $SD = .84$) for the perception of the likelihood of a disease-related crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. The age group 65+ ($\mu = 1.98$, $SD = .84$) perceived the likelihood of a disease-related crisis occurring to be significantly lower than those between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 3.08$, $SD = 1.21$) and 31-40 ($\mu = 3.09$, $SD = 1.20$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of a food safety-related crisis occurring while traveling in the U.S. scores for age groups: $F(4, 2411) = 54.39$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .08. Post hoc comparisons using the Tahmane's T2 test indicated that the mean score for 41-50 ($\mu = 3.39$, $SD = 1.19$) was significantly higher than 18-30 ($\mu = 2.60$, $SD = 1.23$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.60$, $SD = 1.25$), 51-65 ($\mu = 3.06$, $SD = 1.05$), and 65+ ($\mu = 1.90$, $SD = .85$). The age group 51-65 ($\mu = 3.06$, $SD = 1.05$) was significantly higher than respondents between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 2.60$, $SD = 1.23$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.60$, $SD = 1.25$), and 65+ ($\mu = 1.90$, $SD = .85$) for the perception of the likelihood of a food safety-related crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the United States. The age group 65+ ($\mu = 1.90$, $SD = .85$) perceived the likelihood of a

food safety-related crisis occurring to be significantly lower than those between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 2.60$, $SD = 1.23$) and 31-40 ($\mu = 2.60$, $SD = 1.25$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of a financial crisis occurring while traveling in the U.S. scores for age groups: $F(4, 2411) = 60.83$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .09. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey's HSD test indicated that the mean score for 41-50 ($\mu = 3.76$, $SD = 1.23$) was significantly higher than 18-30 ($\mu = 2.85$, $SD = 1.35$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.91$, $SD = 1.29$), 51-65 ($\mu = 3.28$, $SD = 1.29$), and 65+ ($\mu = 1.76$, $SD = .85$). The age group 51-65 ($\mu = 3.28$, $SD = 1.29$) perceived the likelihood of a financial crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. to be significantly higher than those between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 2.85$, $SD = 1.35$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.91$, $SD = 1.29$), and 65+ ($\mu = 1.76$, $SD = .85$). The age group 65+ ($\mu = 1.76$, $SD = .85$) perceived the likelihood of a financial crisis occurring while traveling in the United States to be significantly lower than respondents between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 2.85$, $SD = 1.35$) and 31-40 ($\mu = 2.91$, $SD = 1.29$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of a health-related crisis occurring during a trip to the U.S. scores for age groups: $F(4, 2387) = 21.20$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .03. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey's HSD test indicated that the mean score for 41-50 ($\mu = 2.83$, $SD = 1.10$) was significantly higher than 18-30 ($\mu = 2.44$, $SD = 1.08$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.47$, $SD = 1.07$), 51-65 ($\mu = 2.55$,

$SD = .78$), and 65+ ($\mu = 1.64$, $SD = .85$). The age group 65+ ($\mu = 1.64$, $SD = .85$) perceived the likelihood of a health-related crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the U.S. to be significantly lower than those between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 2.44$, $SD = 1.08$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.47$, $SD = 1.07$), and 51-65 ($\mu = 2.55$, $SD = .78$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of a physical crisis occurring scores for age groups: $F(4, 2411) = 36.89$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .06. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey's HSD test indicated that the mean score for 41-50 ($\mu = 3.34$, $SD = 1.08$) was significantly higher than respondents between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 2.74$, $SD = 1.13$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.76$, $SD = 1.14$), 51-65 ($\mu = 2.92$, $SD = .95$), and 65+ ($\mu = 2.02$, $SD = .92$). The age group 65+ ($\mu = 2.02$, $SD = .92$) has significantly lower perceptions of the likelihood of a physical crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States than respondents between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 2.74$, $SD = 1.13$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.76$, $SD = 1.14$), and 51-65 ($\mu = 2.92$, $SD = .95$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of equipment failure occurring during a trip to the U.S. scores for age groups: $F(4, 2411) = 34.16$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .05. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey's HSD test indicated that the mean score for 41-50 ($\mu = 2.97$, $SD = 1.20$) was significantly higher than respondents between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 2.42$, $SD = 1.14$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.37$, $SD = 1.14$), 51-65 ($\mu = 2.56$, $SD = .92$), and 65+ ($\mu = 1.62$, $SD = .76$). The age

group 51-65 ($\mu = 2.56$, $SD = .92$) perceived the likelihood of equipment failure occurring while traveling in the U.S. to be significantly higher than those between the ages of 31-40 ($\mu = 2.37$, $SD = 1.14$) and 65+ ($\mu = 1.62$, $SD = .76$). The age group 65+ ($\mu = 1.62$, $SD = .76$) had significantly lower perceptions of the likelihood of equipment failure occurring than those between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 2.42$, $SD = 1.14$) and 31-40 ($\mu = 2.37$, $SD = 1.14$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of a weather-related crisis occurring during travel in the U.S. scores for age groups: $F(4, 2411) = 42.49$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .07. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey's HSD test indicated that the mean score for 41-50 ($\mu = 3.13$, $SD = 1.02$) was significantly higher than 18-30 ($\mu = 2.54$, $SD = 1.08$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.57$, $SD = 1.01$), 51-65 ($\mu = 2.79$, $SD = .99$), and 65+ ($\mu = 1.71$, $SD = .89$). The age group 51-65 ($\mu = 2.79$, $SD = .99$) had significantly higher perceptions of the likelihood of a weather-related crisis occurring than those between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 2.54$, $SD = 1.08$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.57$, $SD = 1.01$), and 65+ ($\mu = 1.71$, $SD = .89$). The age group 65+ ($\mu = 1.71$, $SD = .89$) has significantly lower perceptions of the likelihood of a weather-related crisis occurring during an upcoming trip to the U.S. than respondents between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 2.54$, $SD = 1.08$) and 31-40 ($\mu = 2.57$, $SD = 1.01$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of experiencing cultural barriers while traveling in the U.S. scores for age groups: $F(4, 2411) = 57.35$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the

actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .09. Post hoc comparisons using the Tahmane's T2 test indicated that the mean score for 41-50 ($\mu = 3.45$, $SD = 1.01$) was significantly higher than 18-30 ($\mu = 2.82$, $SD = 1.11$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.85$, $SD = 1.06$), 51-65 ($\mu = 2.97$, $SD = .88$), and 65+ ($\mu = 1.52$, $SD = .77$). The age group 65+ ($\mu = 1.52$, $SD = .77$) had significantly lower perceptions of the likelihood of encountering cultural barriers during travel in the United States than respondents between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 2.82$, $SD = 1.11$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.85$, $SD = 1.06$), and 51-65 ($\mu = 2.97$, $SD = .88$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of a political crisis occurring during a trip to the United States scores for age groups: $F(4, 2411) = 34.80$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .05. Post hoc comparisons using the Tahmane's T2 test indicated that the mean score for 41-50 ($\mu = 3.12$, $SD = .95$) was significantly higher than those between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 2.64$, $SD = .98$), 31-40 ($\mu = 2.60$, $SD = .98$), 51-65 ($\mu = 2.80$, $SD = .84$), and 65+ ($\mu = 2.02$, $SD = .81$). The age group 51-65 ($\mu = 2.80$, $SD = .84$) had significantly higher perceptions of the likelihood of a political crisis occurring on an upcoming trip in the United States than respondents between the ages of 31-40 ($\mu = 2.60$, $SD = .98$) and 65+ ($\mu = 2.02$, $SD = .81$). The age group 65+ ($\mu = 2.02$, $SD = .81$) had significantly lower perceptions of the likelihood of a political crisis occurring on an upcoming trip than respondents between the ages of 18-30 ($\mu = 2.64$, $SD = .98$) and 31-40 ($\mu = 2.60$, $SD = .98$).

Research Question 6C

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of terrorism occurring on a trip to the U.S. scores for marital status groups: $F(5, 2315) = 30.06, p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .06. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for single, never married ($\mu = 2.51, SD = .77$) was significantly lower than respondents who were living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 2.97, SD = .97$). Travelers who were married ($\mu = 2.36, SD = 1.05$) had significantly lower perceptions of the likelihood of terrorism occurring while traveling in the U.S. than respondents who were living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 2.97, SD = .97$), divorced/separated ($\mu = 2.71, SD = .71$), or living with friends ($\mu = 2.82, SD = .65$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of crime occurring while traveling in the United States scores for marital status groups: $F(5, 2315) = 49.29, p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .10. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.72, SD = 1.10$) was significantly higher than respondents who were single, never married ($\mu = 2.99, SD = 1.20$), divorced/separated ($\mu = 3.26, SD = 1.15$), and married ($\mu = 2.87, SD = 1.14$). International travelers living with friends ($\mu = 3.99, SD = 1.03$) had significantly higher perceptions of the likelihood of crime occurring during a trip in the United States than respondents who were single, never married ($\mu = 2.99, SD = 1.20$), divorced/separated ($\mu = 3.26, SD = 1.15$), and married ($\mu = 2.87, SD = 1.14$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in perception of the likelihood of a natural disaster occurring while on a trip in the U.S. scores for the marital status groups: $F(5, 2315) = 15.57, p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .03. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 2.65, SD = 1.05$) was statistically higher than those who were single, never married ($\mu = 2.27, SD = .93$) and those who were married ($\mu = 2.21, SD = 1.09$). Travelers living with friends ($\mu = 2.78, SD = .80$) had significant higher perceptions of the likelihood of a natural disaster occurring while traveling in the United States than travelers who were single, never married ($\mu = 2.27, SD = .93$), divorced/separated ($\mu = 2.28, SD = .99$), and married ($\mu = 2.21, SD = 1.09$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of a disease-related crisis occurring during a trip to the U.S. scores for marital status groups: $F(5, 2315) = 46.60, p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .09. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for single, never married ($\mu = 3.31, SD = 1.27$) was significantly lower than respondents who were living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.89, SD = 1.12$) and living with friends ($\mu = 4.04, SD = .96$). Respondents who were married ($\mu = 3.02, SD = 1.19$) had significantly lower perceptions of the likelihood of a disease-related crisis occurring during an upcoming trip in the United States than respondents who were single, never married ($\mu = 3.31, SD = 1.27$), living

with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.89$, $SD = 1.12$), divorced/separated ($\mu = 3.63$, $SD = 1.17$), widowed ($\mu = 3.71$, $SD = 1.44$), and living with friends ($\mu = 4.04$, $SD = .96$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of a food safety-related crisis occurring during travels in the U.S. scores for marital status groups: $F(5, 2315) = 49.39$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .10. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for single, never married ($\mu = 2.93$, $SD = 1.02$) was significantly lower than respondents who were living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.41$, $SD = 1.18$) and living with friends ($\mu = 3.61$, $SD = .84$). Married ($\mu = 2.51$, $SD = 1.27$) respondents had significantly lower perceptions of the likelihood of a food safety-related crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States than respondents who were single, never married ($\mu = 2.93$, $SD = 1.02$), living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.41$, $SD = 1.18$), divorced/separated ($\mu = 3.04$, $SD = .92$), and living with friends ($\mu = 3.61$, $SD = .84$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of a financial crisis occurring while traveling in the United States scores for marital status groups: $F(5, 2315) = 52.55$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .10. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for single, never married ($\mu = 3.04$, $SD = 1.25$) was significantly lower than respondents who were living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.74$, $SD = 1.26$). Travelers who were living with friends ($\mu = 4.19$, $SD = 1.22$)

had significantly higher perceptions of the likelihood of a financial crisis occurring during a trip to the U.S. than single, never married ($\mu = 3.04$, $SD = 1.25$) and divorced/separated ($\mu = 3.37$, $SD = 1.13$) travelers. Respondents who were married ($\mu = 2.79$, $SD = 1.30$) had significantly lower perceptions of the likelihood of a financial crisis occurring than respondents who were single, never married ($\mu = 3.04$, $SD = 1.25$), living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.74$, $SD = 1.26$), divorced/separated ($\mu = 3.37$, $SD = 1.13$), widowed ($\mu = 3.45$, $SD = 1.36$), and living with friends ($\mu = 4.19$, $SD = 1.22$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of a health-related crisis occurring during a trip to the U.S. scores for marital status groups: $F(5, 2291) = 25.04$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .05. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 2.94$, $SD = 1.14$) was significantly higher than respondents who were single, never married ($\mu = 2.46$, $SD = .84$) and married ($\mu = 2.37$, $SD = 1.06$). International travelers who were living with friends ($\mu = 3.08$, $SD = .95$) had significantly higher perceptions of the likelihood of a health-related crisis occurring while traveling in the United States than respondents who were single, never married ($\mu = 2.46$, $SD = .84$) and married ($\mu = 2.37$, $SD = 1.06$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of a physical crisis occurring when traveling in the U.S. scores for marital status groups: $F(5, 2315) = 20.82$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was quite small. The effect

size, calculated using eta squared, was .04. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.29$, $SD = 1.04$) was significantly higher than respondents who were single, never married ($\mu = 2.80$, $SD = 1.00$) and married ($\mu = 2.74$, $SD = 1.18$). Travelers living with friends ($\mu = 3.34$, $SD = .76$) had significantly higher perceptions of the likelihood of a physical crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the U.S. than respondents who were single, never married ($\mu = 2.80$, $SD = 1.00$) and married ($\mu = 2.74$, $SD = 1.18$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of equipment failure occurring during travel in the U.S. scores for marital status groups: $F(5, 2315) = 41.46$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .08. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for single, never married ($\mu = 2.63$, $SD = 1.02$) was significantly lower than respondents who were living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.00$, $SD = 1.26$) and living with friends ($\mu = 3.27$, $SD = 1.05$). Respondents who were married ($\mu = 2.27$, $SD = 1.06$) had significantly lower perceptions of the likelihood of equipment failure occurring while traveling in the United States than respondents who were single, never married ($\mu = 2.63$, $SD = 1.02$), living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.00$, $SD = 1.26$), divorced/separated ($\mu = 2.90$, $SD = 1.02$), widowed ($\mu = 2.97$, $SD = 1.49$), and living with friends ($\mu = 3.27$, $SD = 1.05$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of a weather-related crisis occurring scores for marital status groups: $F(5,$

2315) = 40.74, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .08. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.25$, $SD = 1.11$) was significantly higher than respondents who were single, never married ($\mu = 2.62$, $SD = .90$), divorced/separated ($\mu = 2.69$, $SD = .87$), widowed ($\mu = 2.68$, $SD = 1.08$), and married ($\mu = 2.51$, $SD = 1.05$). Respondents who were living with friends ($\mu = 3.16$, $SD = .83$) had significantly higher perceptions of the likelihood of a weather-related crisis occurring during a trip in the United States than respondents who were single, never married ($\mu = 2.62$, $SD = .90$) and married ($\mu = 2.51$, $SD = 1.05$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of experiencing cultural barriers while traveling in the United States scores for marital status groups: $F(5, 2315) = 35.39$, $p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .07. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.43$, $SD = 1.08$) was significantly higher than respondents who were single, never married ($\mu = 2.90$, $SD = .98$) and married ($\mu = 2.77$, $SD = 1.06$). Respondents who were living with friends ($\mu = 3.62$, $SD = .95$) had significantly higher perceptions of the likelihood of experiencing cultural barriers during an upcoming trip to the U.S. than respondents who were single, never married ($\mu = 2.90$, $SD = .98$), divorced/separated ($\mu = 3.07$, $SD = .94$), and married ($\mu = 2.77$, $SD = 1.06$).

There were statistically significant differences at $p < .01$ level in the perception of the likelihood of a political crisis occurring during a trip in the U.S. scores for marital status groups: $F(5, 2315) = 38.17, p = .000$. Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was moderate. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .08. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for single, never married ($\mu = 2.76, SD = .98$) was significantly lower than respondents who were living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.20, SD = .93$). Respondents who were married ($\mu = 2.54, SD = .94$) had significantly lower perceptions of the likelihood of a political crisis occurring during an upcoming leisure trip to the United States than respondents who were single, never married ($\mu = 2.76, SD = .98$), living with a partner/significant other ($\mu = 3.20, SD = .93$), divorced/separated ($\mu = 3.00, SD = .98$), and living with friends ($\mu = 3.09, SD = .86$).

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Ashley L. Schroeder earned a Bachelor of Arts in Business Administration from the University of Florida in 2007. She had a successful career in the fashion industry in New York City before returning to the University of Florida to receive a Master of Science in recreation, parks and tourism from the Department of Tourism, Recreation, and Sport Management. Her role of managing the social media accounts for the Tourism Crisis Management Institute at the University of Florida inspired her thesis. Ashley plans to pursue a PhD in tourism from the University of Florida and to continue researching the role of new media (i.e. social media) in the supply and demand sides of tourism crisis management and communications.