

**THE TRIFECTA: AN EXAMINATION OF TOURISM, TERRORISM, AND THE
MEDIA**

BY

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COLLEGE OF BEHAVIORAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

The thesis of Shannon Brown, "The Trifecta: An Examination of Tourism, Terrorism, and the Media," approved by her Committee, has been accepted and approved by the Faculty of the College of Behavioral and Social Sciences, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Forensic Psychology.

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DEDICATION

Thank you to my parents, for building an incredible foundation for me that has allowed me to dream big and enjoy the journey. Everything I am, is because of you two.

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ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS

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This study explored the tripartite relationship between terrorism, tourism, and the media in modern society today. Previous research suggested the tourism industry suffers when terrorist activity negatively impacts tourist perceptions, most commonly via news outlets (Baker 2014). Extending this research, the present study examined if regions associated with terrorism and its related media coverage influence individuals' travel behavior. In order to untangle this relationship, 150 individuals in Riverside County answered survey questions about their travel behaviors.

Keywords: travel, tourism, terrorism, media, decision-making, safety

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Chapter 1

THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

Historically, the main objective of terrorist organizations, regardless of group differences, has centered on instilling fear in individuals. Existing research has found that terrorism remains a permanent threat and was not going to abruptly disappear (Sonmez, 1998). Over time, terrorist organizations have enhanced their strategies to generate greater fear among various societies. Most notably, these groups learned that targeting highly public destinations accomplished several goals with one attack. Thus, terrorism has developed into one of the most multifaceted social problems of modern society.

Specifically, popular tourist destinations serve as ideal locations for terrorist attacks due to the unique and lasting social response that such attacks elicit. Not only do terrorist attacks against tourists produce extreme fear and outrage, but they affect individuals' future travel behaviors as well. Terrorism naturally generates news coverage due to the attractive media elements of drama, action, and danger (Surette, 2015). Terrorist attacks against tourists guarantees global news coverage, which instantly dramatizes the attacks, creating additional fear. Therefore, the development and organization of

terrorist threats and attacks now include the consideration of such factors.

Thus, the affected destinations and the tourism industry are expressing serious concerns about economic stability, safety perception, and destination image.

Problem Statement

Terrorist organizations have discovered how to generate new and unique threats to international and national safety for both citizens and tourists. This threat includes terrorist attacks against tourist destinations, as one such attack accomplishes several objectives. Terrorism's impact on the tourism industry can result in multiple negative consequences, including social and economic crises, as numerous countries rely on tourism's economic contributions. However, despite these challenges, international tourism continues to grow, with a 3.9 percent increase in international tourist travel in 2016 (World Tourism Organization, 2017). Thus, more research needs to be conducted on the terrorism-tourism relationship to better understand this multifaceted and complex topic.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the public's perceptions of areas that have been involved with terrorism. Specifically, if any differences in experience and response

occur between gender and age. Additionally, the purpose of this study was to examine the role that media plays in decision-making regarding traveling to an area involved with terrorism. Many people believe that destinations that have experienced terrorism are no longer safe locations for travel. These attitudes can potentially damage a destination's image and economy, impacting the tourism industry.

Research Questions/Objectives

R1: Was there a main effect for gender on perceptions of anxiety?

H1: There would be a main effect for gender on perceptions of anxiety. Specifically, women would perceive greater levels of anxiety.

R2: Was there a main effect for gender on perceptions of fear?

H2: There would be a main effect for gender on perceptions of fear. Specifically, women would perceive greater levels of fear.

R3: Was there a main effect for age on perceptions of anxiety?

H3: There would be a main effect for age on perceptions of anxiety. Specifically, older individuals would perceive greater levels of anxiety.

R4: Was there a main effect for age on perceptions of fear?

H4: There would be a main effect for age on perceptions of fear. Specifically, older individuals would perceive greater levels of fear.

R5: Was there an interaction effect between gender and age on perception of anxiety and fear?

H5: There would be an interaction effect between age and gender on perceptions of anxiety and fear. Specifically, older women would perceive greater levels of anxiety and fear.

R6: Was there a main effect for gender on perceptions of safety due to President Trump's travel ban?

H6: There would be a main effect for gender on perceptions of safety due to President Trump's travel ban. Specifically, women would perceive lower feelings of safety due to President Trump's travel ban.

R7: Was there a main effect for gender on perceptions of safety traveling to countries impacted by terrorism?

H7: There would be a main effect for gender on perceptions of safety traveling to countries impacted by terrorism.

Specifically, women would perceive lower feelings of safety traveling to countries impacted by terrorism.

R8: Was there a main effect for age on perceptions of safety due to President Trump's travel ban?

H8: There would be a main effect for age on perceptions of safety due to President Trump's travel ban. Specifically, older individuals would perceive lower feelings of safety due to President Trump's travel ban.

R9: Was there a main effect for age on perceptions of safety traveling to countries impacted by terrorism?

H9: There would be a main effect for age on perceptions of safety traveling to countries impacted by terrorism.

Specifically, older individuals would perceive lower feelings of safety traveling to countries impacted by terrorism.

R10: Was there an interaction effect between gender and age on perceptions of safety due to President Trump's travel ban and to countries impacted by terrorism?

H10: There would be an interaction effect between gender and age on perceptions of safety due to President Trump's travel ban and to countries impacted by terrorism. Specifically, older women would perceive lower levels of safety due to President Trump's travel ban and to countries impacted by terrorism.

R11: Was there a significant difference in the likelihood that traveling has decreased among young and older individuals?

H11: There would be a significant difference in the likelihood that traveling has decreased among young and older individuals.

Specifically, older individuals would experience a decrease in travel.

R12: Was there a significant difference in the likelihood that individuals will no longer travel internationally as a result of not feeling safe among young and older individuals?

H12: There would be a significant difference in the likelihood that individuals will no longer travel internationally as a result of not feeling safe among young and older individuals. Specifically, older individuals would perceive less willingness to travel internationally due to not feeling safe.

R13: Was there a significant group differences in age on perceptions of safety for traveling to popular destinations?

H13: There would be a significant between group differences in age on perceptions of safety for traveling to popular destinations. Specifically, older individuals would perceive lower feelings of safety traveling to popular destinations.

Delimitations

The lack of significant, recent research regarding terrorist attacks against popular, tourist destinations was a delimitation of this study. Additionally, due to the data collection being specifically conducted in Riverside County and the resulting small sample size, the data used may not be representative. A further limitation includes how American

citizens respond to terrorism, as different countries hold different opinions about how to address such activity. This study anticipated potential research biases within the survey instrument when analyzing the four open-ended questions.

Assumptions

Based on previous research, one assumption was that terrorism immediately and negatively impacts the tourism industry and has a negative, continuing effect for such destination. The researcher also assumed that all participant's answers are truthful statements regarding their opinions of travel, terrorism, and the media.

Definition of Key Terms

Terrorism- premeditated, politically motivated violence perpetuated against non-combatants targets by sub-national groups or clandestine agents, usually intended to influence an audience (United States Department of State, 2004, p. xii)

International Terrorism- terrorism involving citizens or the territory of more than one country (United States Department of State, 2004, p. xii)

Terrorist Groups- any group practicing or that has significant subgroups that practice, international terrorism (United States Department of State, 2004, p. xii)

Foreign Terrorist Organization- foreign organizations declared by the Secretary of State that makes it illegal to supply material and finances to terrorist organizations (United States Department of State, 2004).

Radicalization- the process of someone or something developing more radical positions in their ideologies (Gill & Corner, 2017).

Tourism- the actions of people considered visitors (World Tourism Organization, 2014).

Media- the main system of mass communication via print, broadcasting, or digital measures (Surette, 2015).

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This study examined a potential relationship between regions associated with terrorism and related media coverage that may influence individual travel behaviors. Currently, numerous destinations rely on tourism as main sources of economic growth. For example, in 2016 the tourism industry directly and indirectly supplied over 7.6 trillion United States dollars to the global economy (Statista, n.d.). Although the tourism industry is a global dominant sector, this industry is vulnerable to both local and global threats. Such threats include natural disasters (extreme weather) and human disasters (crime and terrorism) (Sonmez, Apostolopoulos, & Tarlow, 1999).

This study specifically examined the impact that terrorism has within the tourism industry. Terrorism is not a new phenomenon; however, this type of threat has grown in severity over time. This is mainly due to technological advancements and the expansion of media coverage. Recently, deadly terrorist attacks have occurred throughout the West, including in Brussels, Paris, London, and Orlando (Singman, 2017). All of these were due to the terrorist organization, ISIS, which claimed responsibility for them.

Media outlets, ranging from television networks to social media sites, provide powerful platforms for both the tourism industry and terrorist organizations. Similarly, both tourism and terrorism have used such media expansion to their advantage to reach the widest audience possible. While the tourism industry generates minimal to no harm, terrorist organizations use media platforms to instill a greater amount of fear that reaches beyond the initial attack. This type of coverage creates additional victims, as they indirectly witness the attacks via media outlets. Thus, the question arises of how much individuals' travel decision-making behaviors are influenced by terrorism and media coverage.

Defining Terrorism

Historically, individuals who have used terrorism are motivated by social, political, or religious issues. Due to the various events involved in terrorist activity, there cannot be one true and fixed definition of terrorism. An example of such fluidity is the definition of terrorism posed by Cooper (2001), who described terrorism as "the international generation of massive fear by human beings for the purpose of securing or maintaining control over other human beings" that has continuously developed over the last thirty years (p. 883). Limiting terrorism to one definition is not adequate due to the

diverse and all-encompassing natures of different political and social policies (Horgan, 2017).

In an effort to better define three essential aspects of terrorism, the United States Department of State (2004) has provided definitions for terrorism, international terrorism, and terrorist groups. The U.S. Department of State (2004) has defined terrorism as "premeditated, politically motivated violence perpetuated against non-combatants targets by sub-national groups or clandestine agents, usually intended to influence an audience" (p. xii), while international defined as "terrorism involving citizens or the territory of more than one country" (p. xii). Additionally, the U.S. Department of State (2004) considers a terrorist group to be "any group practicing or that has significant subgroups that practice, international terrorism" (p. xii), commonly known as "violent extremist organizations" (Hunter, Crayne, Shortland, & Ligon, 2017, p. 242). These definitions serve as labels to categorize different acts and will be the definitions used throughout this study.

In addition to government definitions, Moghaddam (2005) found that terrorism is "politically motivated violence, perpetrated by individuals, groups, or state-sponsored agents, intended to instill feelings of terror and helplessness in a population in order to influence decision making and to change

behavior" (p. 161). Existing government and academic research speculates that the fundamentals of terrorism include some type of violence (real or threatened) against an audience to generate fear, and that they are usually enacted due to political motives.

As illustrated, defining terrorism is a complex and convoluted task, as terrorism includes multiple dimensions. A reason for the numerous aspects of terrorism is that humans rarely see and interpret the same thing in the same manner (Cooper, 2001). Nevertheless, there is a common understanding among several nations that terrorism is a global and atrocious problem that needs to end (Moghaddam, 2005). Gaining a deeper knowledge of terrorism allows for the development of efficient policies to eliminate this global crisis.

Purpose and goals. To fully define terrorism, it is imperative to explore both its purposes and goals. Although motivations may differ amongst organizations, the objective of terrorist activity is similar: to instill fear. Terrorism aims to exploit the weaknesses of its opponents in any possible manner (Cooper, 2001). A common approach to exploiting these weaknesses involves fomenting emotions, especially fear, which ultimately forces the targeted government to respond (Cooper, 2001; Elena, 2016; Nacos, Bloch-Elkon, & Shapiro, 2007). Elena

(2016) found that when terrorism elicits fear among the general population, compared to military personnel, the pressure for the government to react is stronger. Further, Elena (2016) note that the higher the population perceives fear, the government experiences greater pressure the stronger. While there are several approaches terrorist groups can create massive fear, Cooper (2001) described the basic fear provoking principles used as:

You can kill them, you can mutilate them or otherwise damage their physical or mental integrity, you can deprive them of their liberty, you can damage or destroy their relationships with people and things, you can adversely alter the quality of their lives by affecting their environment or their economic prospects or by imposing onerous burdens on them, or you can achieve your ends by credibly threatening to do all or any of these things (p. 886).

These different actions successfully continue to generate fear among the public. An example of combining principles to create fear described above by Cooper (2001) was illustrated in a quote by Osama bin Laden after the commercial aircraft hijacking and attacks against the United States on September 9, 2001, as he stated, "There is America, full of fear from north to south,

from west to east" (Nacos et al., 2007, p. 106). Because of this, terrorists are aware that violent attacks, or the threat alone, will accomplish a central goal of intimidation and fear among society and create government involvement (Nacos et al., 2007).

History of Terrorism

Terrorism is not a new phenomenon, as the action, before definition, has dated back to ancient times. From early history to modern day, organizations have used terrorism as a tool in their political conflicts (Sonmez et al., 1999) and accrued a diverse and extensive history (McCormick, 2003). Terrorism research experts believe that 1968 was the beginning of modern terrorism, when Palestinian groups hijacked aircrafts to publicize perceived injustices and political conflicts in Israel (Nacos et al., 2007). By the early 1970s, extreme fear of, and interest in, terrorism began (Cooper, 2001; McCormick, 2003) due to the rapid increase in and momentum of terrorist activity (Baker, 2014; Elena, 2016; Sonmez et al., 1999). Also during this time, terrorism began to appear in headlines globally, marking the beginning of international terrorism (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). By the late 1970s and early 1980s, there was a drop in terrorist activity (Baker, 2014; Sonmez, 1998). However, the mid 1980s saw a major increase in international terrorism,

as terrorist groups had showed little concern for neutral territories and involved multiple countries in their violence (Baker, 2014; Sonmez, 1998). By the 1990s, a consistent trend of terrorist activity was prominent, and continued to capture global attention (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b).

The examined timeline illustrates that terrorism has continued to dominate nations experiencing conflict. In addition, terrorism has transpired up to the present day (Sonmez, 1998). Therefore, terrorism has proved to be a potentially permanent concern, regardless of brief drops and high peaks of activity. Looking forward, a world without terrorist activity is difficult to visualize, even through an optimistic lens (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). Therefore, instead of anticipating a terrorist free world, nations should continue to prepare for potential terrorist violence.

Modern Terrorism

As previously stated, terrorism is not a new problem and shows no signs of diminishing in the future. Previous research has found that the last twenty-five years has reinforced the belief that terrorism is not suddenly going to disappear (Sonmez, 1998). This poses an issue because there is no "good" terrorism (Cooper, 2001). Further, even individuals who believe

that terrorists are fighting for freedom should reach the conclusion that terrorism itself is bad (Cooper, 2001).

These cruel acts have reached the point where terrorism is amongst the most multifaceted social problems of the modern age (Horgan, 2017). This highly important concern is due to the constant evolving nature of terrorism (Baker 2006) and the threat of terrorist violence has grown into a global issue (Nacos et al., 2007; Shoshani & Slone, 2008). Frequent changes in terrorist strategies have also changed the modern day fight against terrorism. Further, Elena (2016) argued the strategy has changed, focusing now on violence toward the general society while attacks on militaries have substantially diminished.

Societal effects. One of the most concerning effects regarding modern terrorism is the extent of which it can control individuals' daily life. These effects include physical damage, mental harm, and economic suffering. Modern terrorist warfare incorporates either the direct involvement of individuals or the familiarity of involved victims, usually resulting in death or extreme psychological issues (Elena, 2016; Shoshani & Slone, 2008). The economies of involved and neighboring nations affected by terrorism suffer as well. Countries with high terrorism influences, like Israel and Turkey, have experienced economic difficulty due to the expensive recovery costs

associated with terrorism (Elena, 2016). Further, countries that experience economic recessions because of terrorist activity create a type of "economic anxiety and depression" that is likely to generate more terrorism (Baker, 2014, p. 61), resulting in an economic struggle that develops into an endless cycle.

Terrorist Profile

The belief that mental illness is the underlying cause for joining a terrorist group is no longer valid. Existing research revealed there are no specific, defining qualities of individuals who decide to join terrorist organizations (Horgan, 2017). In order to enhance knowledge of those involved with terrorism, Gill and Corner (2017) offered that terrorist groups include members with a broad range of characteristics and behaviors.

Characteristics. Previous research confirmed that although various characteristics in a terrorist profile exists, there has not been a predicative valid, psychological profile for individuals in terrorist groups (Horgan, 2017). For multiple terrorist groups, research displayed that several members experience struggle with their identity, specifically an identity crisis (McCauley & Moskalenko, 2017). Concerning the mental qualities, Gill and Corner (2017) stated that mental

health issues potentially factor into the engagement and disengagement of membership in terrorism.

Regarding engagement, a mental health disorder is a possible risk factor, as it leads to an interest in terrorist involvement (Gill & Corner, 2017). Further, concerning disengagement, a mental health disorder could be a consequence of terrorist membership, experienced either still in the organization or after disengagement (Gill & Corner, 2017). Additionally, terrorist characteristics do not discriminate against age and gender. Therefore, members in terrorist organizations include both women and men, ages from children to elderly, all of whom experience different levels of engagement (Horgan, 2017).

Behaviors. Although Western societies perceive the actions and behaviors of terrorists as heinous, other nations may not. These contradicting beliefs are illustrated by Cooper (2001) as "one person's terrorist will ever remain another's freedom fighter" (p. 882). Thus, members of a terrorist affiliated nation believe the violence committed by terrorists is rational and "a means to an end" (McCormick, 2003, p. 479). Similar to societal roles and norms, each individual in a terrorist group have their own role. Involvement includes various roles, while some are consistently in the field committing violence; others

are involved in less threatening behaviors (Horgan, 2017). Regardless of role, all members are prepared and willing to take the place of another member in a higher role (Kruglanski et al., 2014).

In addition to terrorist roles, members also share similar societal views. Specifically, the majority of groups have strong, negative beliefs towards Western society (McCauley & Moskalenko, 2017). These beliefs against the West include hatred of the government, foreign policy, and limited importance of Islam culture. Lastly, the emotions that drive terrorists include a strong sense of "anger, shame, guilt, humiliation, fear, love and hate" (McCauley & Moskalenko, 2017, p. 209). Therefore, characteristics and behaviors are important factors to consider in understanding members of terrorist groups.

Terrorist Organizations

The formation and the groupthink of terrorist organizations have been frequently examined to improve our understanding of terrorism. For instance, Horgan (2017) revealed that these groups "inspire, radicalize, and recruit" individuals who they view as potential followers of their cause (p. 202). Once the individual is successfully considered a radicalized and engaged member, the organization demands authority, plans its development, and responsibility for terrorist actions (Horgan,

2017). Similar to modern organizations, terrorist groups also experience pressure to meet stakeholder demands and find ways to improve their success. Therefore, to maintain authority, terrorist groups address external pressures and growing competition, and they develop strategies to combat these challenges (Hunter et al., 2017).

Types of Terrorist Organizations

Terrorism is not limited to one specific organization and does not belong to one social group (Horgan, 2017). Terrorist organizations include the extreme right and left, religious groups, and separatist organizations, all of which are formed based on diverse ideologies (Bakker, 2006; Horgan, 2017).

Grothaus (n.d.) offered a list of definitions to categorize various types of terrorist organizations: right wing, left wing, state, religious, separatist, and pathological.

Right wing terrorism. The purpose of right wing terrorism is to preserve traditional orders and values (Grothaus, n.d.). In order to accomplish their goals, these organizations focus their efforts against liberal governments, and they are commonly seen in either militia or gang forms. Further, racism is the main motivating factor behind the establishment of right wing groups. Recent examples of this type of organization includes Neo-Fascists and the Klu Klux Klan (Grothaus, n.d.).

Left wing terrorism. Left wing terrorist groups are solely interested in the promotion of social and political change (Elena, 2016; Grothaus, n.d.). Specifically, such groups attack the established social order to reach the goal of destroying social class status systems (Grothaus, n.d.). The Italian Red Brigade was an example during the Cold War era, whereas Antifa in the United States is a contemporary example (Cameron, 2017).

State terrorism. An important note to highlight is that state terrorism is not the same as state sponsored terrorism, wherein states choose to support terrorist organizations (Grothaus, n.d.). Rather, state terrorism refers to a government's control over its population using terror. State terrorism is unique because this is the original form of terrorism. Historically, the majority of dictators have used this type of terrorism. A recent example of a dictator using state terrorism is Saddam Hussein, who used violence to control the Kurds and who intimidated protestors for democracy in Syria (Grothaus, n.d.).

Religious terrorism. Religious terrorism is among the more dangerous type, specifically against the West. Extreme passion and religious justification of actions encourage these organizations to act (Bakker, 2006; Grothaus, n.d.). Further, individuals who practice this type of terrorism, committed to

the ideology, are willing to sacrifice themselves in violent acts, including suicide (Grothaus, n.d.). One of the most notable and current religious terrorist groups is Al-Qaeda, a product of Islamic ideology and the jihad concept (Bakker, 2006). The jihad concept involves two separate forms, the greater jihad and the lesser jihad. The greater jihad involves a Muslim's efforts to improve and overcome life's struggles in order to become a better Muslim (Bakker, 2006), while the lesser jihad, more commonly seen in social or political struggles, occurs when the belief the community supports violence directed against an unfair ruler (Bakker, 2006).

Separatist terrorism. Separatist terrorism refers to acts used to produce separation within a country in order to form a new state (Elena, 2016; Grothaus, n.d.). Minorities, because of discrimination from a country (Grothaus, n.d.), have commonly used this type of terrorism. Both the Spanish Basque Organization and the Irish Republican Army are prominent examples of separatist terrorism (Elena, 2016).

Pathological terrorism. Pathological terrorism involves individuals who prefer to operate alone or with a few others, rather than in groups (Grothaus, n.d.). Additionally, these terrorists are not directly associated with other terrorist groups, but they may believe in similar radical ideologies.

Pathological terrorism, also known as lone wolf terrorism, poses unique challenges because it is the individual's own radical opinions that lead to the radical action (McCauley & Moskalenko, 2017). These terrorists display five shared characteristics; planned attacks, minimal relationships, mental health concerns, weapon experience, and grief (McCauley & Moskalenko, 2017). A recent example of this type of terrorist is Theodore (Ted) Kaczynski, commonly known as the Unabomber (McCauley & Moskalenko, 2017).

Prominent Terrorist Organizations Today

In order to better understand and develop appropriate responses to modern terrorism, it is important to examine the different organizations that are consistently successful in generating terror in society today.

Al-Qaeda. Al-Qaeda's origins began in the early 1980s, developed by Usama Bin Laden in an effort to support Afghanistan in the war against the Soviets (Al-Qaeda International, 2001). This war initiated group played an essential role in Afghanistan's victory, which encouraged the jihad, commonly known as the holy war movement. Around 1989, Al-Qaeda expanded its holy war by targeting non-Islamic governments with violence in regions of Afghanistan, Pakistan, and the United States. While Al-Qaeda has several goals, one of the main objectives was

to eradicate the United States military personnel from Saudi Arabia and Somalia (Al-Qaeda International, 2001).

In addition, Al-Qaeda despised the United States for a variety of reasons. To start, Al-Qaeda considered the United States as an infidel because the Western government opposes the extremist views of Islam. Next, other infidel nations and governments, like Egypt and Israel, were receiving support from the United States. Third, this group perceived the United States' military presence in the Gulf War and Operation Restore Hope as impulsive involvement in Islamic countries. Lastly, Al-Qaeda deeply resented the arrest and imprisonment of numerous members of Al-Qaeda and its affiliates by the United States (Al-Qaeda International, 2001).

In response to such opposition, the U. S. Department of State designated Al-Qaeda as a "Foreign Terrorist Organizations (FTO)" on October 8, 1999 (United States Department of State, n.d.). The Al-Qaeda organization functions independently, whereas other terrorist groups operate under Al-Qaeda's funding and support (Al-Qaeda International, 2001). By joining forces, Al-Qaeda has experienced large amounts of success against common enemies of infidel governments. An illustration of such success was on August 14, 2017, at Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso, when jihadists attacked a Turkish Hotel, killing 19 and injuring 22

others (Esri Story Maps & PeaceTech Lab, n.d.). Further, on July 26, 2017, Al-Qaeda terrorists struck Menaka, Go, Mali, killing one child and three others (Esri Story Maps & PeaceTech Lab, n.d.).

Boko Haram. Boko Haram is among the newer terrorist organizations, developed in Maiduguri, Nigeria, in 2002 by self-proclaimed, Islamist, Prophet Mohammed Yusuf (Sergie & Johnson, 2015). This organization is an Al-Qaeda affiliate, with specific ties to Al-Qaeda in northwest Africa and in the Arabian Peninsula. The goal of Boko Haram is to turn Nigeria into a complete Islamic state, regardless of violence. Thus, their vicious campaign targets Nigeria's armed forces, civilians, politicians, religious structures, and schools, resulting in the deaths of over ten thousand people and relocation of 1.5 million people as well (Sergie & Johnson, 2015).

Unfortunately, the Nigerian government has experienced minimal success in defeating Boko Haram, and the violence has expanded to neighboring nations of Chad and Cameroon (Sergie & Johnson, 2015). Examples of the extremists' heinous acts include the recent attack on August 23, 2017, in Maiduguri, Nigeria, where 27 people died by gunfire and slit throats (Esri Story Maps & PeaceTech Lab, n.d.). To help aide this fight, the U.S.

Department of State recently declared Boko Haram an FTO on November 14, 2013 (United States Department of State, n.d.).

Islamic State. The Islamic State in Iraq and Syria (ISIS) is an infamous jihadist group known for mass killings, abductions of civilians, and beheadings ("Islamic State", 2018). ISIS has grown to one of the wealthiest militant groups in the world, receiving funds from private donors, Islamic charities, and over twenty million dollars in ransom payments from abductions in 2014 alone. Thus, their wealth has generated an immense amount of confidence, demanding that Muslims and other jihadist groups declare allegiance to ISIS' leader, Abu Bakr al-Baghdadi, and accept their authority ("Islamic State", 2018). Although there is no clear amount of Muslim and non-Muslim individuals living under control of ISIS, the Red Cross International Committee estimates the number over ten million people ("Islamic State" 2018). Regarding the number of ISIS fighters, the United States Director for National Intelligence, James Clapper, believes the number is somewhere between 20,000 and 32,000 rebel fighters.

Ultimately, the main goals of ISIS aim to, "eradicate obstacles to restoring God's rule on Earth and to defend the Muslim community, or umma, against infidels and apostates" ("Islamic State", 2018). ISIS was designated a FTO by the U.S.

Department of State on December 17, 2004, (United States Department of State, n.d.) in response to their expansion of attacks outside of its territories in Syria and Iraq ("Islamic State", 2018). An example of their global attacks was in Barcelona, Catalonia, Spain, on August 17, 2017, where a van ran over individuals in La Rambla of Barcelona, killing 15 pedestrians and injuring over 130 (Esri Story Maps & PeaceTech Lab, n.d., 2017).

Recent Terrorist Attacks

Existing research has shown that terrorists no longer target military forces; rather, they attack civil societies for a greater effect (Elena, 2016). Thus, Singman (2017) illustrated such terror attacks in a timeline, specifically against the West, whereas Parkinson and Heyden (2015) described terrorist attacks in Eastern nations.

1997: Luxor, Egypt. Sixty-two people, mainly tourists, died from an attack from Al-Gama'a al-Islamiyya, an Islamist terrorist organization (Parkinson & Heyden, 2015).

2002: Bali. Multiple members of Jemaah Islamiyah, an Islamist terrorist group, detonated bombs in various nightclubs across the island, killing 202 people and injured 209 people (Parkinson & Heyden, 2015).

March 11, 2004: Madrid train bombing. Four bombs detonated on four different Madrid trains, killing 191 commuters (Singman, 2017).

2005: Sharm El-Sheikh, Egypt. An Al-Qaeda affiliated terrorist group attacked an Egyptian resort, killing 88 people (Parkinson & Heyden, 2015).

July 7, 2005: London subway and bus bombing. Four suicide bombers, influenced by Al-Qaeda, targeted three subway cars and a commuter bus, killing 52 people (Singman, 2017).

July 22, 2011: Teenager massacre. Anders Behring Breivik, extreme right terrorist, detonated a bomb and began a mass shooting killing 77 people, most of whom were teenagers (Singman, 2017).

May 22, 2013: Lee Rigby attack. A British soldier, Lee Rigby, died due to stab wounds by Al-Qaeda extremists in London (Singman, 2017).

December 2, 2015: San Bernardino shooting. ISIS inspired, a married couple open fired in San Bernardino, California, killing 14 people (Singman, 2017).

March 22, 2016: Belgium attack. Claimed by ISIS, this attack involved two separate, but related, suicide bombings in Brussels's airport and subway system, killing 32 people (Singman, 2017).

June 12, 2016: Orlando nightclub shooting. ISIS claimed member, Omar Mateen, Mateen targeted a gay nightclub in Orlando, Florida, where he killed 50 people (Singman, 2017).

July 14, 2016: Nice, France. Claimed by ISIS, 77 individuals died on Bastille Day when a car drove through a holiday gathering (Singman, 2017).

December 19, 2016: Germany Christmas market. Claimed by ISIS, the attacker drove a truck through a market in Berlin, killing 12 and wounded 48 more (Singman, 2017).

February 3, 2017: Louvre knife attack. Although no serious injuries, a man aggressively swinging a machete, shouting "Allahu Akbar" attacked Paris soldiers near the Louvre (Singman, 2017).

March 22, 2017: Westminster Bridge attack. Claimed by ISIS, a terrorist drove over and stabbed multiple people, killing five people injuring over forty people (Singman, 2017).

April 3, 2017: Saint Petersburg bombing. Over twenty passengers died due to a suicide bomber on a popular Russian subway (Singman, 2017).

April 7, 2017: Stockholm truck attack. A 39-year-old male, claiming to be an ISIS member, drove a truck onto the sidewalk and into a department store, injuring dozens and killing five people (Singman, 2017).

May 22, 2017: Ariana Grande Concert in England. A suicide bomber with direct ties to a terrorist organization killed 22 and wounded over 20 people in a concert arena in Manchester, England (Singman, 2017).

June 3, 2017: Van ramming and stabbing in London. Located at the London Bridge, three terrorists ran over pedestrians, killing seven and injuring dozens (Singman, 2017).

August 17, 2017: Van ramming in Barcelona. Claimed by ISIS, a van ran over and killed 14 people (Singman, 2017).

September 15, 2017: Terror on the tube. Involved a bomb exploding on a subway car in London, injuring at least 22 individuals (Singman, 2017).

Post Terrorist Attack

Following a terrorist attack, individuals often experience different concerns regarding a multitude of topics. Personal concerns of victim potential begin to appear after a real or threatened terrorist attack (Nacos et al., 2007). In addition to personal fears, individuals experience familial concerns regarding potential victims of terrorism as well. Previous research by Nacos, Bloch-Elkon, and Shapiro (2007) revealed that over half of Americans following the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks in New York experienced both personal and familial concerns. Forty-seven percent of Americans also held

such concerns immediately following the London subway terrorist attacks in 2005, while 38 percent of individuals felt these concerns before the London terrorist event (Nacos et al., 2007). With the presented data, attracting tourism or international travel to such destinations becomes problematic.

Tourism Industry

Today, individuals live in a world that is extremely motivated by the tourism industry. This industry is extensively diverse, and tourism is common among a wide range of individuals (Cohen, 1972). Because of this, tourism has grown into a cultural phenomenon, where travelers' interests and freedom are the focus (Cohen, 1972; Elena, 2016). Additionally, Kapuscinski (2014) declared tourism to be a highly complex and global phenomenon that significantly affects the destination's environment, society, and economy. Existing research attributes the successful development of tourism's global scale to the various motivations held by tourists (Pizam et al., 2004). These different motivations include desires for "novelty, arousal, or stimulation" (Pizam et al., 2004, 253).

Tourism in numbers. Individuals allocating time and money for their travel desires have played a major role in the expansion of the tourism industry. The United Nations World Tourism Organization, consisting of 156 countries and 400

private sector members, tourism authorities, and education institutions, is a respected, global organization that not only examines tourism and travel trends but that promotes sustainable and effective policies for the tourism industry as well (World Tourism Organization, 2014).

The World Tourism Organization (2014) annual report found that over 1.1 billion individuals leisurely traveled internationally. Furthermore, Europe experienced the majority of travel, with over half of the 1.1 billion tourists visiting that region (World Tourism Organization, 2014). This magnification illustrates that tourism is a powerful force and a significant reason for the global economy's recovery (World Tourism Organization, 2014). Additionally, global tourism has attributed its rapid growth to such factors as less restrictive travel requirements, resourceful marketing and promotion efforts, and a greater amount of leisure time and income (Baker, 2014). The success that this industry has experienced has benefits on the global and the individual scales, contributing 7.6 trillion dollars towards the global economy and providing one out of every ten jobs (Gorney, 2017).

Tourism's vulnerabilities. Although considered an unstoppable force, the tourism industry is not immune to local and global risks. Researchers Seabra, Abrantes, and Kastenholz

(2014) stated that there is an increased amount of global risk associated with tourism. Moreover, existing research has found risk to be a concern when travelling internationally (Lepp & Gipson, 2003; Xueqing Qi, Gibson, & Zhang, 2009). In addition to risk, tourism is vulnerable to both internal and external threats, regardless of the industry's resiliency (Sonmez et al., 1999). Sonmez, Apostolopoulos, and Tarlow (1999) found that these internal and external threats can be subdivided into either natural or human disasters.

Naturally caused disasters, which directly influence tourism, include volcanic eruptions, hurricanes, heavy rains, and extreme weather conditions (Fuchs, Uriely, Reichel, & Maoz, 2012; Kozak, Crofts, & Law, 2007; Sonmez et al., 1999), whereas human caused disasters, which also directly influence tourism, include disease, crime, social riots, political instability, and terrorism (Fuchs et al., 2012; Kozak et al., 2007; Sonmez et al., 1999). Additionally, psychological and financial risks influence the multifaceted nature of the tourism industry (Fuchs et al., 2012). While these risks are individually important, Baker (2014) considered the socio-economic problems and terrorism as the major threats to tourism.

The Relationship between Tourism and Terrorism

The tourism-terrorism relationship unfolded over multiple decades. However, previous research has found that this relationship did not receive international attention until the Munich Olympic Games in 1972 (Baker, 2014; Lepp & Gibson 2003). During this time, Palestinian fighters attacked Israeli athletes in front of an international television broadcast, reaching an audience of approximately 800 million (Baker, 2014). This historical attack brought global attention to the relationship between tourism and terrorism. Today, the modern tourist accepts terrorism as another aspect of life (Kapusinski, 2014).

Although there is degree of acceptance of terrorism amongst tourists, the tourism industry is particularly sensitive to the influence of terrorist attacks (Arana & Leon, 2008). Further, terrorist attacks create unique crises in the tourism industry (Elena, 2016). When compared to tourism crises due to natural disasters, terrorism generates a different kind of crisis due to consumer response (Sonmez et al., 1999). Existing research showed that when natural disasters affect the tourism industry, there is greater social understanding and tolerance (Sonmez, 1998), whereas human caused disasters, like terrorism, create public fear and outrage (Sonmez, 1998). Additionally, Baker (2014) found that terrorism intimidates future tourists and

significantly affects the volume of tourists to a terrorized region.

Recent terrorism against the tourism industry has created security and safety concerns (Goldblatt & Hu, 2005). Moreover, Sonmez (1998) revealed that many tourists did not believe terrorism's threatening power would prompt concerns given tourism's economic strength. Previous literature regarding the tourism-terrorism relationship, speculates that terrorism and political instability present challenges to the tourism industry, regardless of economic success (Baker, 2014; Sonmez & Graefe 1998a). The majority of challenges to tourism remain consistent throughout various countries, despite different the severity of a terrorism experience (Sonmez et al., 1999). Further, these challenges have permanently altered tourist operations in countries frequently affected by terrorism (Elena, 2016).

The challenges resulting from terrorism often have further effects in the tourism industry. Specifically, terrorism directly influences the flow of international travel (Baker, 2014; Coshall, 2003). In addition, the tourism industry struggles when terrorist activity negatively affects tourist's perceptions (Baker 2014; Sonmez 1998). Therefore, travel flows and tourist perceptions are two powerful challenges to the

tourism industry created by terrorist activity and understanding the tourism-terrorism relationship is an important step in mitigating these challenges (Yechiam, Barron, & Erev, 2005).

Destination Image

Historically, destination image has been used to label a variety of locations. According to Schneider and Sonmez (1999), destination image has demanded research attention for the past 20 years. Over the last two decades, the tourism industry examined destination image due to its delicate value, as image is one of the first aspects to fall to terrorism (Sonmez, 1998). Recent research by Elena (2016) stated destination image is "the global perception or the whole set of impressions of an individual regarding a certain place" (p. 4). Furthermore, one's memory stores these impressions felt by individuals, along with existing evaluations of destinations (Kapuscinski, 2014).

While every destination has a unique image, certain destinations have stronger images compared to others (Sonmez et al., 1999). However, destination images are not static, rather they are dynamic, due to changing impressions shaped by new information over time (Kapuscinski, 2014). Existing research revealed that perceived destination image is an important factor in the relationship between intention and decision to travel (Xueqing Qi et al., 2009, Elena, 2016). Further, research also

confirmed that destinations attempt all efforts, including replicating other destinations' strategies, to strengthen the likelihood of travel (Arana & Leon, 2008; Elena, 2016).

Image. Similar to destination image, image formation is dynamic as well. However, researchers Avraham and Ketter (2008) discovered that stereotypes independently construct image. The city and country's image develops travelers' stereotypes as well (Avraham & Ketter, 2008). Furthermore, Avraham and Ketter (2008) found that elements of "location, leadership, type of regime, economic situation, government stability and more" influence image stereotypes (p. 197). Similar to stereotypical thinking of image, Schneider and Sonmez (1999) proposed image consists solely on the cognitive component. The cognitive component is an evaluation made by the individual concerning attributes of the product (Schneider & Sonmez, 1999).

Tourism Influence on Destination Image

The tourism industry directly contributes in the development of a tourist's destination image (Elena, 2016). In addition, tourist image is an important dimension of a country or city's overall image (Elena, 2016). When travelers visit a country, both general and tourist image are immediately influenced (Schneider & Sonmez, 1999). The representations travelers make for themselves are critical for destination image

because social and personal channels of communication between travelers are one of the most trustworthy sources regarding destination image (Sonmez & Sirakaya, 2002). Whether the destination is a country, city, or resort, all locations are attractive to tourists through unique qualities it encompasses (Elena, 2016). Whereas, in areas with a lower probability to attract tourists need to allocate more time marketing themselves with a positive image (Elena, 2016; Sonmez & Sirakaya, 2002). Tourism is an important influence in understanding destination image and the role it plays for both developed and undeveloped areas.

Positive destination image. Research has been consistent in the role perceived image has on destinations and tourism. Early research stated that destinations deeply rely on positive images (Sonmez, 1998). While later research similarly reported that areas with a perceived positive and safe destination image increases the likelihood of travelers (Elena, 2016; Sonmez & Sirakaya, 2002). Several factors influence a destination's positive image. Sonmez (1998) described these attracting factors as peacefulness, calmness, and safety. Additionally, heritage location and unique traits are factors that also influence positive destination image (Kapusinski, 2014).

Few destinations solely depend on naturally occurring influences, whereas the majority of destinations invest a considerable amount of time and effort to improve or ensure a positive destination image (Avraham & Ketter, 2008). Further, researchers Avraham and Ketter (2008) proposed four commonly used techniques including "advertising, public relations, directing maligning/marketing and sales promotion" (p. 197). The use of public relations is the most successful and effective technique in this effort because of the media flexibility it allows (Avraham & Ketter, 2008). Specifically, public relations have a large amount of influence regarding the way media outlets represent a destination (Avraham & Ketter, 2008). Destination's spokespeople are simultaneously able to create attractive images via positive media stories, while preventing any potential negative stories (Avraham & Ketter, 2008). These techniques experience continued success in the effort to portray a positive destination image among individuals.

Negative destination image. While a destination's positive image slowly develops with dedicated efforts, serious image damage occurs in only minutes (Avraham & Ketter, 2008). Similarly, traveler's stereotypes may also distort perceptions regarding destination image, commonly seen after a negative travel experience (Elena, 2016). For example, security

dimensions and political instability are negative travel experiences (Kapuscinski, 2014). Additionally, researchers Arana and Leon (2008) discovered that areas with high Islamic populations, like Tunisia and Turkey, experienced a greater negative impact regarding destination image compared to areas with a lower Islamic population, like the Canary Islands and Balearics Islands. Both positive and negative destination images have profound effects on travelers. However, negative destination images suffer more severely, as image recovery is extensive and costly (Sonmez et al., 1999).

The Impact of Terrorism on Destination Image

Research has shown that destination image is an important component to the tourism industry. Additionally, individual's mental representations aid in the formation of destination image and are susceptible to external influences. Although there are multiple negative influences, including natural disasters, political tension, and disease, one act of terrorism quickly creates an encompassing negative image (Kozak et al., 2007; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). Further, repercussions of terrorism still damage regions not involved with terrorism and generate a negative image of their own (Coshall, 2003).

A single act of terrorism can create a tourism and destination image crisis due to the appearance of weakened

security and safety (Seabra, Abrantes, & Kastenholz, 2014). For instance, the Bastille Day massacre in France generated a 20 percent increase in cancellations of tourist related venues the following day (Alderman, 2016). However, persistent terrorism not only damages positive destination images of safety and desirability, but also threatens every dimension of the tourism industry (Baker, 2014; Sonmez et al., 1999). Destination damage from terrorism also affects potential tourists by instilling fear and terror (Baker, 2014). Further, such fear and terror can change a tourist destination from extremely popular to a highly avoided location (Elena, 2016).

Tourist Types

Tourists largely determine destination images within the tourism industry. Cohen (1972) offered four tourist typologies: organized mass tourist, individual mass tourist, explorer, and drifter.

Organized mass tourist. The organized mass tourist values familiarity heavily, while novelty is valued minimally (Cohen, 1972). This tourist is the least adventurous and buys a package tour with a fixed itinerary. Further, this tourist type rarely makes decisions for oneself and does not stray from his/her environmental bubble. An example of this type is a tourist

traveling through the country in a comfortable, guided bus tour (Cohen, 1972).

Individual mass tourist. The individual mass tourist is similar to the organized mass tourist regarding familiarity and the environmental bubble (Cohen, 1972). This tourist type experiences a greater amount of control over the itinerary and independence from the group. However, a travel agency still orders all arrangements (Cohen, 1972).

Explorer. The explorer largely differs from the previous types due to the emphasis of novelty over familiarity (Cohen, 1972). This type of tourist leaves the environmental bubble and attempts to immerse oneself with the native people. However, this type still includes comfortable and reliable transportation and accommodation (Cohen, 1972).

Drifter. The drifter completely disengages from the tourism industry, focusing solely on novelty (Cohen, 1972). This tourist type has neither specific travel goals nor a fixed itinerary. An example of the drifter is staying with the native people, sharing their foods and habits, all while abandoning one's own customs (Cohen, 1972).

Tourist Decision Making

All tourists have their own personalities that play an essential role in their decision-making (Elena, 2016). With a

better understanding of tourist decision-making, destinations are able to successfully develop and market attractive locations (Sirakaya, Sheppard, & McLellan, 1997). Existing research has offered multiple ideas about tourist decision-making. Early research revealed that future travelers conduct informative searches of potential destinations in order to obtain general information and knowledge about locations (Dowling & Staelin, 1994). Further, Sirakaya, Sheppard, and McLellan (1997) discovered that tourists mentally incorporate previous experiences related to travel when deciding on a future destination. The tourism type (i.e. business or leisure) also affects the decision-making process (Sonmez, 1998). Additionally, Sonmez and Graefe (1998b) found that tourists make their decisions by choosing the location that was desirable and best matched their overall needs. Later research has revealed that internal and external factors influence tourist decision-making. Further, Sonmez and Sirakaya (2002) found that internal influences include "images, perceptions, motives, attitudes, and beliefs" (p. 185), whereas external influences include "time, destination attributes, perceived costs of tourism product, buyer characteristics, and benefits sought" (Sonmez & Sirakaya, 2002, p. 185).

Moreover, a study conducted by Survey Sampling International (2016) asked participants to what extent various global threats affect their decision making regarding travel. The study found that confirmed terrorist attacks in Europe, potential terrorist attacks in America, and the European migration situation largely influenced participants' travel decision-making and planning (Survey Sampling International, 2016).

The Impact of Terrorism on Travel Decisions

The relationship between terrorism and travel decisions has become a growing area of research (Arana & Leon, 2008) because "the threat of terrorism both at home and abroad is a real factor for people considering their travel plans" according to Survey Sampling International Vice President of knowledge management, Jackie Lorch (Survey Sampling International, 2016). Additionally, potential tourists experience consistent exposure to external factors, including travel advisories and media coverage that influence their current and future travel decisions (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). When exposed to terrorism, tourists rethink their travel plans, which affect the tourism industry. Further, decisions to alter travel plans result in significant losses for both the destination and the tourism industry overall (Coshall, 2003).

Although natural disasters and human caused disasters significantly affect the tourism industry, research by Sonmez (1998) discovered that the dangers accompanied with terrorism severely intimidates and influences the flow of tourism. For example, in 1985, travel plans that were altered due to terrorist threats drastically reduced the revenues of several countries (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). The World Tourism Organization estimated that 105 billion dollars were lost in tourism revenue that year. (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). Distinguishing between natural and human caused disasters' influence on travel decisions allows the tourism industry to implement appropriate recovery procedures.

Travel Deterrents

When possible costs outweigh possible benefits, the decision to travel is deterred (Sonmez et al., 1999). Regardless of the nature of the costs, negative experiences often create difficult and complex situations for afflicted areas (Sonmez et al., 1999). Previous research has revealed that these compelling deterrents include "threats to health (spread of disease) and safety (terrorism acts)" (Kozak et al., 2007, p. 241).

Compared to other deterrents, the danger and shock that accompanies terrorism is the most influential type of disaster that deters tourists from traveling (Arana & Leon, 2008; Sonmez,

1998; Sonmez et al., 1999). Further, Sonmez and Graefe (1998b) confirmed that the cost benefit analyses conducted by travelers are a natural response when deciding whether and where to travel. In addition, travelers also exhibit their freedom of choice when deciding between which destinations to visit and which to avoid (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). An extension of traveler freedom of choice includes the capability of cancelling travel plans. For example, roughly two million Americans cancelled their travel plans to destinations that were affected by political instability or terrorism in 1986 (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b).

Terrorist Attacks on Tourists

One of the major travel deterrents in the tourist decision-making process is the recent increase in terrorist attacks on tourist destinations. When tourist destinations develop a positive image through a globally attractive reputation, their popularity also negatively influences their image, as they become a potential target for terrorism (Elena, 2016). These types of terrorist attacks against the tourism industry not only generate disaster for the effected destination, but they also create a tourism crisis (Sonmez et al., 1999). Recently, terrorist organizations have targeted destinations that attract tourists worldwide in areas including France, Turkey, Spain, and

Egypt (Elena, 2016). Additionally, sporting and entertainment events have served as a perfect template for terrorists hoping to reach a global audience (Goldblatt & Hu, 2005).

In the majority of these terrorist attacks, tourists are specifically targeted by organizations that hold no regard for the tourists' wellbeing (Lepp & Gibson, 2003). Terrorist organizations strategically target both local and international tourists (Elena, 2016) to achieve numerous goals (Sonmez 1998; Sonmez et al., 1999). As previous research revealed, terrorist organizations successfully and consistently reach several goals when targeting tourists in attacks (Sonmez, 1998; Sonmez et al., 1999). Baker (2014) explained that terrorists target tourists because tourists serve as representatives and soft targets for their respective countries. Elena (2016) added that terrorist organizations target tourists to generate conflict between countries and create panic within the population. Another of their objectives is to disrupt, destabilize, and harm economies (Gorney, 2017; Sonmez, 1998; Sonmez et al., 1999). Terrorist organizations accomplish economic crises by turning destinations into highly avoided areas (Elena, 2016). Further, hurting the Western tourism industry accomplishes terrorist organizations' goals given their religious opposition (Sonmez, 1998), as

tourists represent Western values and capitalism (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005).

In the existing research, securing media attention is consistently seen as a primary goal of terrorist organizations (Baker, 2014; Gorney, 2017; Sonmez, 1998; Sonmez et al., 1999). Moreover, Sonmez et al. (1999) stated that, "when nationals of other countries become involved, news coverage is guaranteed" (p. 14). Similarly, while terrorist organizations assure international attention via tourist attacks (Elena, 2016, Gorney, 2017; Sonmez et al., 1999), they also accomplish another goal, attacks against the government (Goldblatt & Hu, 2005; Gorney, 2017; Sonmez, 1998). Lastly, Sonmez et al. (1999) revealed that attacks against tourists successfully allow safety and "camouflage" for terrorist organization members because of the large range of languages spoken and wide range of appearance among tourists. Thus, many terrorist organizations continue to attack tourists because doing so successfully accomplishes these various goals.

Risk

Risk perceptions play a critical role in daily life. Recent research found that risk is an essential factor in human life and everyone experiences risk to a certain degree (Kapusinski, 2014; Pizam et al., 2004). Whether the activity is buying a new

product or driving to work, people cognitively evaluate the likelihood of risk exposure and coping mechanisms (Xueqing Qi et al., 2009). The process of individuals assessing for potential risks allow better understanding and management skills when negative life events occur (Kapusinski, 2014). Risks can include shocks, hazards, or disasters that yield negative impacts (Law, 2006). Whereas, risk perception is defined as "the consumer's perceptions of the uncertainty and adverse consequences of buying a product (or service)" (Dowling & Staelin, 1994, p. 119). Further, risk perception can increase in severity when either a highly publicized crisis occurs or frequent multiple crises happen (Gorney, 2017).

The tourism industry is also an important facet in the definition of risks and risk perceptions. Sonmez and Graefe (1998b) considered risk perception related to tourism as "the amount and types of risk potential tourists associated with international tourism" (p. 12). Potential risks as a traveler could include experiencing a negative attribute of the visited destination or experiencing a cost (i.e. severe weather, crime) (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). Moreover, Sonmez and Graefe (1998b) revealed nine risk types associated with international tourism including time, financial, political instability, terrorism, psychological, health, satisfaction, physical, and social. This

study also identified the most common risks associated with international tourism among United States travelers, including satisfaction, transportation reliability, terrorism, and political instability (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). Additionally, Reisinger and Mavondo (2005) conducted a study examining risk perceptions and anxiety while traveling. Data from this study found, "a strong relationship between travel risk perceptions and travel anxiety" (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005, p. 222).

Specifically, this study identified terrorism and sociocultural risk perceptions significantly influenced traveler's anxiety levels (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005).

Individual Risk Perception

Specific information possibly alters the levels of risk perceived by individuals, which create differing feelings of distress (Dowling & Staelin, 1994). Law (2006) attributed the various cultural and geographic backgrounds to different perceptions of risks. Additionally, Xueqing Qi, Gibson, and Zhang (2009) offered that personality type and experience might influence different levels of risk perception. Further, previous travel experience influences the likelihood either to travel to a future destination or avoid a future destination (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a). Specifically, Kapuscinski (2014) posed that experienced travelers assign lower levels of importance to

potential travel risks and higher levels of positive attitudes to unfamiliar locations. Existing research also identified gender as a distinguishing factor towards risk perception (Xueqing Qi et al., 2009). Previous literature found males displayed more willingness for spontaneous vacations (Pizam et al., 2004) downplayed threats, and were less inclined to alter travel plans because of risks associated with natural or human caused disasters compared to females (Kozak et al., 2007). Additionally, research found females perceived significantly greater risk levels (Xueqing Qi et al., 2009) and were less likely to participate in risky activities compared to males (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b).

Tourist risk perception. Travel evokes a high degree of risk and is a major concern amongst travelers (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). When risks, real or imagined, are associated with the tourism industry, tourists respond by altering their travel behaviors (Sonmez et al., 1999; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). Further, each tourists focuses and responds differently to risks at the same location (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a). For instance, one tourist may direct their attention to physical risks (crime victims), whereas another tourist may focus their attention to financial risks (money not well spent) (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a). Another major tourist risk is the perception of terrorism. Much

of the existing research has agreed that terrorism influences tourists' perceptions of risk (Avraham & Ketter, 2008; Seabra et al., 2014). This type of risk perception is significant as it leads to travel anxiety regarding potential destinations (Baker, 2014).

Risk and Decision Making

Research has been consistent regarding the role risk plays in tourists' decision-making process. Early research found that risk has developed into a critical, deciding factor when considering travel plans, especially Americans who view themselves as more vulnerable (Sonmez, 1998; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). While later research continued to report that risk perceptions is a key element that influences tourist decision making (Kapusinski, 2014; Kozak et al., 2007; Law, 2006). Potential travelers assess possible risks in order to minimize feelings of anxiety and any negative consequences (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005). Additionally, Baker (2014) identified factors that influence different risk perception levels as "awareness of destination alternatives, the level of concern given to safety and terrorism threat, the extent of their information search, evaluation of alternatives, and therefore their destination choice" (p. 64). Moreover, high levels of risk perception become dominant factors that cause

tourists to alter travel plans (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a). Thus, risk perception has enough influence to challenge the routine travel decision-making process.

Risk and Travel Deterrents

Today, tourists consider multiple factors when developing their travel plans, some of which eliminate certain areas. Perceived risk factors are major deterrents for domestic and international travelers (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005). Further, Sonmez and Graefe (1998a) found that risks, whether perceived or real, have strong predictive power towards destination avoidance. Previous research has also revealed that although natural disasters harm the tourism industry, the risks associated with terrorism intimidates tourists more severely (Sonmez et al., 1999). Thus, when travelers are deeply impacted by terrorism risk, results in them not only avoiding travel at specific destinations, but avoiding entire regions as well (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). For example, during heightened terrorist activity in the 1980s and the Persian Gulf War in 1991, there were extensive declines in international travel because travelers either visited safer destinations or avoided traveling entirely (Sonmez et al., 1999). Additionally, multiple researchers have speculated that terrorism related risk perceptions increase travelers' avoidance of destinations like

Africa and the Middle East (Kozak et al., 2007; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). Travelers frequently avoid regions where terrorist attacks are common (Iraq, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, and Afghanistan) because perceptions of high-risk (Elena, 2016).

Avoid risk and seek safety. Researchers Sonmez and Graefe (1998b) offered two assumptions relating to terrorism risks and traveler behavior. First, destinations with any amount of terrorism risk are costlier compared to safer destinations (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). Whereas, the second assumption involved the traveler deciding between two similar destinations, choosing the region safe from risks or threats (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). Existing research confirmed these assumptions, where tourists avoided destinations perceived as risky and selected areas they considered safe (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b; Xueqing Qi et al., 2009). Thus, individuals with travel plans tend to avoid risk and seek safety in all areas of the tourism industry.

Safety

Like risk, safety is an important factor in daily activities. Further, Maslow (1987) found that the need for safety is an innate feature of human nature that motivates human behavior. Additionally, safety needs include the need for stability, security, and freedom from fear (Maslow, 1987).

Researchers Taormina and Gao (2013) defined safety and security needs as:

The lack of protections such as shelter from environmental dangers and disasters, personal protection from physical harm, financial protection from destitution, legal protection from attacks on one's rights to a peaceful existence, or a lack of stability in one's life (p. 157).

These various safety and security needs are continuously fulfilled throughout life, ranging from the infant years to old age (Taormina & Gao, 2013). Previous literature has discovered that individuals responsible for small children experience deeply intense safety concerns (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b), while safety concerns decline among individuals younger in age and individuals with higher educational backgrounds (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b).

The Safety-Tourism Relationship

Safety issues raise important questions within the tourism industry regarding tourists' travel anxiety, risk perceptions, travel intentions, and safety perceptions (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005). Further, much of the previous research has agreed that it is necessary to understand the basic human need for security and safety in relation to traveler behavior (Kapusinski, 2014; Kozak et al., 2007; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a). Kapuscinski (2014)

found that safety is a fundamental need that must be met in order for an individual to consider travelling. Additionally, potentials tourists need to feel safe and secure throughout their vacations (Kozak et al., 2007), while Sonmez and Graefe (1998b) suggested that the level of safety that tourists feel during their travel experiences result in their determinations of future travel intentions. Thus, the tourism industry faces the consistent challenge of delivering a product that meets future travelers' safety needs.

Safety and Decision Making

The basic human need for safety and security are often key considerations for individuals developing travel plans (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005; Sirakaya et al., 1997). The sensitivity that surrounds safety and security issues influences decision makers by either increasing or decreasing their likelihood of travel to a given destination (Sonmez & Sirakaya, 2002). Sirakaya et al. (1997) showed that high safety levels result in a greater likelihood of travelling, whereas low safety levels decreased the probability of traveling. In a study of 1,002 United States adults, researchers found that safety was one of the top two deciding factors when arranging a vacation (Survey Sampling International, 2016). On the other end of the perceived safety spectrum, is the elimination of destinations.

Sirakaya et al. (1997) suggested that destinations associated with safety and security issues strongly influenced the elimination of that location. The safety and decision making relationship is often indicative of future travel behavior.

Safety and Destination Image

Another trait impacted by safety perception is destination image. Prior to travelling, tourists determine safety and security issues based on the destination's image (Kozak et al., 2007). Numerous factors influence a destination's safety image. For example, a poorly managed disaster not only can develop into a long-lasting crisis for the tourism industry, but also can quickly destroy the destination's safety image (Sirakaya et al., 1997; Sonmez et al., 1999). Additionally, a destination involved with terrorist activity creates high safety level concerns for potential travelers (Baker, 2014). Sonmez and Graefe (1998a) found tourists associated geographic locations with certain risk types (Middle East with terrorism) and as a result expressed subjective safety perceptions towards those destination images. Further, in a study of over one thousand United States adults, researchers discovered how Americans perceive different countries and danger levels (Survey Sampling International, 2016).

Specifically, researchers found the top three dangerous regions for an American tourist were Israel, Egypt, and North Africa. Whereas, moderate danger areas were Brazil and France, while the safer regions included Hawaii and Canada (Survey Sampling International, 2016). Thus, terrorism risk and safety issues may play a contributing factor in damaging destination image.

The Media

The media's role has continued to cover and transmit numerous issues to a wide range of audiences. Today, the media's audience has expanded to such an extent that some type of media reaches virtually everyone (Surette, 2015). Media content exposure is pervasive and almost unavoidable due to the growing number of media devices, including television, music, Internet, and movies (Surette, 2015). As technology advances, alongside media devices and media outlets, media compete to keep viewership high across multiple nations. The main media structures in U.S. are print media, sound media, visual media, and new media (Surette, 2015).

Print media was the first, official media outlet to generate and maintain mass audiences (Surette, 2015). The inexpensive nature and diverse content were vital in the print's success (Surette, 2015). Further, this medium quickly realized

that individuals were vastly interested in human crime events and continued to cover criminal cases (Surette, 2015).

Shortly after print media, the creation of sound media developed and began to surface across numerous radio networks (Surette, 2015). Thus, radio networks established themselves as "the first live, on-the-scene news reporting medium" (Surette, 2015, p. 11). Sound media copied the majority of print media's structure, specifically, their linear information delivery. However, the sound medium information delivery successfully evoked stronger emotions and mental images compared to print visuals (Surette, 2015). Similar to print, radio news also allocated coverage for crime stories, getting their audience emotionally involved by hearing the details of the crime (Surette, 2015).

By the twentieth century, visual media (television) surfaced, decreasing both the sound and print audiences (Surette, 2015). Visual media was the first medium with the ability to extend to all of society (Surette, 2015). Specifically, television's initial programming focused on attracting and keeping large audiences (Surette, 2015). Television news's growth rate and public approval has progressively grown since it was first introduced (Nacos et al., 2007; Surette, 2015). Therefore, television news remains the

most important information source for the majority of society (Hall, 2003; Nacos et al., 2007). Specifically, broadcasts by NBC news, CBS news, and ABC news, dominate the news programs on television (Nacos et al., 2007). According to Surette (2015), reporting criminal stories remains a popular trend in television programming.

The most recent news medium, "new media" incorporates the older platforms of print, sound, and visual media into quick, interactive, digital, personalized platforms (Surette, 2015). Individuals can obtain these unique news programs via the Internet, smart phones, social media, and similar devices (Surette, 2015). Although there are several differences in delivery between the devices, the content remains the same as in print, sound, and visual media (Surette, 2015). However, the main differences between older media and new media are their accessibility, distribution, and content formation (Surette, 2015).

Media Content

Throughout the various news media, existing research has revealed the media constantly filters which events to display to the public (Hall, 2003). Further, Nacos et al. (2007) found that the selectivity of news stories is less influenced by individual's ideological bias and more influenced by

organization's concern for keeping and maintaining their authoritative voice among viewers (Nacos et al., 2007). The major media are also guilty of interpreting issues, allocating less or more significance to them by the amount of coverage offered (Hall, 2003). Thus, compromising the authentic importance of an issue.

Disaster coverage. In times of crisis, the media tends to deliver negative reports and focus on the negative aspects of events (Avraham & Ketter, 2008). Moreover, media coverage following a natural disaster or a terrorist attack mainly focuses on human suffering, property damage, social disruption, and loss of life (Sonmez et al., 1999). Headlines often consist of horrific stories illustrating injuries and death. For example, news headlines following the ISIS terrorist attack in March 2017 at Westminster Bridge in London included, "London terrorist attack leaves 4 dead, including attacker and police officer" (Mangan & Wang, 2017) and "Terror attack fears cause plummeting visitor numbers at London's top attractions" (Lancefield, 2017). Although the media portrays negativity, individuals continue to rely on these media to explain an event, the reasons for it, and the consequences of what occurred (Nacos et al., 2007).

Media Effects

The consistency and reputation of media coverage significantly influences audiences' cognitive processes (Kapusinski, 2014). When individuals receive different perspectives on issues via the news, this unintentionally activates their cognitive processes related to beliefs and attitudes (Shoshani & Slone, 2008). Specifically, the selectivity of content presented by the news influences cognitive processes (Shoshani & Slone, 2008). One of the cognitive processes magnified by media influences are stereotypes, which generate group assessments (Shoshani & Slone, 2008). Additionally, consistent and negative media coverage easily influences attitude formation (Sonmez, 1998) and potentially changes pre-existing attitudes (Seabra et al., 2014).

Risk perception. The media also influences risk perception. The more the media covers a story or issue, the more the audience perceives greater amounts of risk (Gorney, 2017). Specific factors that increase perceived risk include the extent and length of coverage, story repetition, story prominence, and the repetition of adverse images (Gorney, 2017). As previously discussed, the tourism industry attempts to control for perceived risk among travelers. However, the tourism industry faces a difficult fight to control risk perception given the

numerous media outlets that are determined to convey and publicize drastic events (Lepp & Gibson, 2003). Seabra et al. (2014) found that potential travelers attribute the majority of perceived risk to mass media. Thus, this research reinforces a critical problem that the tourism industry faces in controlling risk perception.

Destination image. Existing research discovered a strong correlation between "mass-mediated terror alerts and threat messages and the public's evaluation of terrorism" (Nacos et al., 2007, p. 124). Moreover, research also found certain news sources influenced public opinion greater than the threat amount (Nacos et al., 2007). Media portrayal of negative events (terrorism, epidemics) impact perceptions held towards a specific place (Elena, 2016). Further, media coverage of such events potentially shape individuals' travel attitudes and destination images (Baker, 2016; Sonmez, 1998). For instance, in the Middle East, the media has an important role regarding the formation of destination images due to the region's prevalent and controversial position regarding international politics (Schneider & Sonmez, 1999). Therefore, negative publicity towards leisure destinations decreases their safety and comfort reputation (Sonmez et al., 1999), resulting in unsafe and

dangerous perceptions (Avraham & Ketter, 2008). Thus, travelers commonly avoid these destinations.

The Relationship between Terrorism and the Media

The media assumes a central role in terrorism (Seabra et al., 2014). This intertwined relationship between terrorism and the media means that they share multiple needs (Surette, 2015). Existing research has agreed that the most fundamental need shared is the desire to reach the greatest number of people (Shoshani & Slone, 2008; Surette, 2015). Therefore, it is fair to argue that terrorism and media have a mutually beneficial relationship. According to Sonmez et al. (1999), mass media and terrorist organizations benefit one another, as the media receives higher ratings, while terrorists gain large amounts of publicity. Further, coverage of terrorist attacks increases media profits due to the attractive elements of drama, action, miracle stories, danger, and blood (Surette, 2015).

Some researchers have speculated that news coverage patterns encourage terrorist organizations to commit more attacks (Nacos et al., 2007). Terrorists arguably organize their attacks strategically and rationally, with careful consideration to future media coverage (Shoshani & Slone, 2008). In addition, terrorist groups consider the likelihood of instant news coverage when planning their attacks (Nacos et al., 2007) since

the technological advancements have developed the media's capability of displaying terrorism scenes instantaneously (Shoshani & Slone, 2008).

Historically, news outlets have consistently and intensely covered natural disasters, health epidemics, and terrorism (Kozak et al., 2007). Research has found that television news programs allocate greater coverage to terrorism than to other issues and events (Nacos et al., 2007). For example, when the Bush Administration created a national terrorism alert, news outlets dedicated an uncommon average of five minutes and twenty seconds per report to terrorist activity (Nacos et al., 2007). The amount of news time an event receives is a distinguishing factor with regard to a report's importance.

Today, terrorism in the media has developed into a routinely discussed topic (Cooper, 2001; Surette, 2015). Shoshani and Slone (2008) referred to this type of commonplace terror in the media as "theater of terror" (p. 637). Additionally, the media today struggles to define fact from fiction, leading to the development of the term "infotainment" (Surette, 2015). Unfortunately, infotainment dominates the current media structure regarding coverage of crime and related events including terrorism (Surette, 2015). Although the media-terrorism relationship is mutually beneficial, terrorism does

not solely rely on the media. Thus, if the media no longer existed, terrorism would remain a concerning topic for numerous regions (Surette, 2015).

The Impact of Media Coverage of Terrorism

News coverage of terrorism accomplishes terrorist organizations' intent to generate both a personal and national threat of terror and fear of future attacks (Shoshani & Slone, 2008). The media frequently forms public perceptions of terrorism and through details of the attacks. In situations of high news coverage of terrorism, audiences followed the media's focus and grow more concerned (Nacos et al., 2007; Shoshani & Slone, 2008). For example, audiences perceived reports from the Bush Administration regarding terrorism as most influential and extremely important (Nacos et al., 2007). This reinforces research by Shoshani and Slone (2008) finding that news viewers are vulnerable to becoming secondary victims of terrorism due to indirect media exposure to such attacks.

Individuals affected by terrorism may develop psychological issues due to frequent exposure. Shoshani and Slone (2008) speculated that the violent and heinous images of terrorism displayed by the media produce both short and long term, extreme psychological tolls on the audience. Further, Shoshani and Slone's (2008) study examined emotional states of anxiety and

anger after audiences watched television news coverage of terrorism. Results from this study found that "participants in a terrorism media exposure group will exhibit significantly higher post-test levels of state anxiety, state anger, negative enemy perception, and stereotypes than those in a violent nonterrorism exposure group" (Shoshani & Slone, 2008, p. 635). In addition to emotional effects, Shoshani and Slone (2008) found that news coverage of terrorism influences viewers' attitudes and stereotypes of terrorists and similar enemies.

Tourism impact. Influential news broadcasts may significantly affect potential travelers (Schneider & Sonmez, 1999). Constant old and new media coverage deter future visitors from traveling to destinations affected by terrorism (Sonmez, 1998; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). Those who are solely dependent on media outlets are more likely to develop negative attitudes associated with terrorism. For example, the Middle East constantly receives negative images and prevents future travel due to media's portrayal of terrorism (Schneider & Sonmez, 1999).

Media Coverage of Terrorist Attacks against Tourists

Terrorist organizations have quickly realized that terrorist attacks generate a large amount of media coverage. Specifically, when citizens of multiple countries are involved,

society can expect guaranteed media coverage (Baker, 2014). Additionally, the media attention secured also curtails government abilities to filter news content, allowing terrorist organizations to fulfill their goal of instilling fear in populations (Baker, 2014; Sonmez, 1998). News networks, including television, radio, and print networks, have a tendency to magnify such heinous events (Nacos et al., 2007). Much of the existing research has agreed that when tourists are kidnapped, injured, or killed, media outlets immediately magnify the situation (Baker, 2014; Sonmez, 1998; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). Further, instant dramatization also benefits terrorist organization's political conflict ideologies by publicizing their beliefs globally (Nacos et al., 2007; Sonmez, 1998; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). For example, news coverage of terrorism occurs mostly in long segments and are announcement as lead stories or breaking news (Nacos et al., 2007). Thus, the high level of media attention given to terrorism encourages terrorist organizations to continue organizing these attacks.

Presidential Travel Restrictions

Historically, presidents of the United States have developed numerous immigration restrictions to maintain the nation's security. These restrictions are possible due to provisions of section 212(f) in the Federal Immigration and

Nationality Act, which allows Presidents the flexibility to decide how to keep certain people from entering the country (Simmons & Zarembo, 2017). For example, the previous seven Presidents throughout the last four decades have invoked this act over 40 times. Beginning with the thirty-ninth President of the United States, James (Jimmy) Carter, banned all Iranians from entering the country in response to 52 Americans held hostage for 444 days in Iran (Simmons & Zarembo, 2017). More recently, the forty-fourth President, Barack Obama, invoked his executive power several times, most notably in 2011 with a temporary pause in processing refugee requests from Iraq in response to a failed attempt to send Al-Qaeda money and weapons by Iraqi individuals living in America (Mark, 2017). Although previous Presidents placed immigration restrictions of certain countries, these type of bans continue to be a topic of debate and influence regarding travel safety.

President Donald Trump. As the forty-fifth President of the United States of America, Donald Trump quickly developed numerous Executive Orders. Specifically, within the week following his inauguration, President Trump signed three controversial, Executive Orders regarding immigration (Fullerton, 2017). These Executive Orders included Border Security and Immigration Enforcement Improvements, Enhancing

Public Safety in the Interior of the United States, and Protecting the Nation from Foreign Terrorist Entry into the United States (Fullerton, 2017). All three Executive Orders created controversy across the nation; however, the last generated numerous legal challenges.

The third and most controversial order, Protecting the Nation from Foreign Terrorist Entry into the United States, signed on January 27, 2017, proposed a temporary travel ban of nationals from seven predominately-Muslim countries to the United States (The White House, 2017). Commonly referred as Executive Order 13769, the seven countries in this order included Iran, Libya, Iraq, Somalia, Yemen, Sudan, and Syria, all based on the statement that terrorists would enter the United States in any way possible due to the declining conditions of such regions (The White House, 2017). However, unlike the previous discussed Executive Orders, this order is the most controversial and has generated large amounts of news coverage, numerous protests nationwide and created extreme amounts confusion of international air travel (Fullerton, 2017).

Due to the numerous legal challenges that followed Executive Order 13769, Schallhorn (2017) offered a timeline illustrating the judicial process.

January 27, 2017. President Trump signed the order banning entry into the United States for 90 days from the seven countries and indefinitely ends Syrian refugees (Schallhorn, 2017).

January 28, 2017. Numerous protests occurred across airports nationwide in response to the travel ban (Schallhorn, 2017).

January 28, 2017. A federal New York judge declared the order violates due process and equal protection under the United States Constitution (Schallhorn, 2017).

January 30, 2017. President Trump fired Attorney General Yates because she publicly opposed the travel ban (Schallhorn, 2017).

February 3, 2017. United States District Court Judge declared the states met their burden and blocked the ban nationally (Schallhorn, 2017).

February 5, 2017. The Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals rejected the United States government request to continue the travel ban (Schallhorn, 2017).

March 6, 2017. The Trump administration developed a new travel ban, excluding Iraq from the list of prohibited countries (Schallhorn, 2017).

March 15, 2017. United States District Court Judge Watson from Hawaii blocked the new travel ban (Schallhorn, 2017).

March 30, 2017. The United States government appealed the ruling to the Ninth Circuit court of Appeals (Schallhorn, 2017).

May 25, 2017. In Virginia, the Fourth Circuit Court of Appeals blocked the implementation of the travel ban (Schallhorn, 2017).

June 26, 2017. The Supreme Court approved the enactment of a limited version of the travel ban (Schallhorn, 2017).

June 29, 2017. By 8pm Eastern Time, the travel ban was implemented across the country (Schallhorn, 2017).

September 24, 2017. President Trump created a new travel ban, adding Iran, Libya, Chad, Yemen, Syria, Somalia, and North Korea (Schallhorn, 2017).

October 5, 2017. The United States government requested the Supreme Court dismiss the cases opposing the travel ban (Schallhorn, 2017).

October 17, 2017. Again, Hawaii United States District Judge Watson temporarily blocked the revised travel ban (Schallhorn, 2017).

December 4, 2017. The United States Supreme Court approved the President's newest travel ban, pending lower court appeals (Schallhorn, 2017).

Chapter 3

METHOD

Participants

A total of 150 surveys were completed by Riverside County community members through a sample of convenience. In this study, participants ranged in age between 18 to 80 years ($M=35.56$, $SD=15.14$). A total of 43.3% were male ($n=65$), and 56.7% were female ($n=85$). Religion identification was as follows: A total of 71% were Christian ($n=71$), 30% Roman Catholic ($n=45$), 1.3% Muslim ($n=2$), 6% Jewish ($n=9$), 6% Atheists ($n=9$), and 9.3% identified as 'Other' ($n=14$). Of the total participants, 61.3% identified as White ($n=92$), 18% as Hispanic/Latino ($n=27$), 6% as Asian/Pacific Islander ($n=9$), 0.7% as Native American/Indian ($n=1$), 10.7% as Black/African American ($n=16$), and 3.3% as 'Other' ($n=5$). Education levels were as follows: A total of 1.3% did not complete High School ($n=2$), 10.7% completed High School/GED ($n=16$), 30.7% completed Some College ($n=46$), 36% completed a Bachelor's Degree ($n=54$), 16.7% completed a Master's Degree ($n=25$), and 4.7% completed a Doctorate Degree ($n=7$).

Design

The design utilized in this study was a self-reporting survey to assess the public's perceptions of traveling to

destinations impacted by terrorism and the media's role in the decision-making process.

Instrument

The instrument utilized in this study was a 17-item self-report survey (Appendix A) examining community perceptions of traveling to destinations impacted by terrorism as well the media's role in making those decisions. The survey included a total of five demographic items including age, gender, religion, ethnicity, and education. A total of three categorical items measured perceptions of safety within the past 5-years, international travel, and domestic travel.

A total of five items measured perceptions of anxiety due to lack of safety, fear for safety, safety in traveling due to terrorist activity, fear for safety due to the Presidents travel ban, and safety concerns for traveling to popular destinations. These items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. A total of four open-ended questions examined the extent to which the news influenced a sense of safety on domestic and international travel and factors that positively and negatively influenced the sense of safety when traveling.

Procedure

Institutional Review Board approval was obtained prior to obtaining any research data. An affirmation of safety and professional standards of conduct (Appendix B) was reviewed and discussed with the thesis Chairperson of this project. A disengagement script (Appendix C) was also reviewed with thesis Chairperson. The NIH training on the Protection of Human Research Subjects was completed by the PI and the Chairperson. Approval from California Baptist University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) was obtained prior to conducting any research. Once granted IRB approval, the researcher began data collection near California State Route 91 and Magnolia Avenue, outside a local, public shopping center. A recruitment script (Appendix D) was read to all potential participants. Prior to completing the survey, each participant signed a consent form (Appendix E). Each participant also received a list of community resources throughout Riverside County if they experienced distress from study participation (Appendix F). Additionally, all participants were cognizant that their involvement in the study was voluntary and confidential. No incentives were provided for participation in this study.

Data Analyses

SPSS IBM 25 was used to analyze data. The statistical analyses conducted for this study include two factorial

multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), two 2 x 3 chi-squares, and one Independent Samples *t*-test. The first two-way MANOVA examined gender and age differences in perceptions of travel safety due to President Trump's travel ban and to countries impacted by terrorism. The second two-way MANOVA assessed gender and age differences in perceptions of anxiety and fear when traveling. The first 2 x 3 chi-square examined differences in the likelihood that traveling has decreased among younger and older individuals. The second 2 x 3 chi-square assessed differences in the likelihood that individuals will no longer travel internationally as a result of not feeling safe among younger and older individuals. The independent samples *t*-test examined group differences in age on perceptions of safety for traveling to popular destinations. Additionally, a qualitative analysis was conducted for the four short answer, open-ended questions regarding media influence and travel decision-making.

Chapter 4

RESULTS

A two-way MANOVA was used to examine gender and age differences in perceptions of travel safety due to President Trump's travel ban and to countries impacted by terrorism. Gender consisted of males and females, while age included younger (<35 years) and older (≥35 years) adults. The study hypothesized that there would be a main effect for gender on perceptions of safety due to President Trump's travel ban. Specifically, the hypothesis posited that women would perceive lower feelings of safety due to President Trump's travel ban. The study hypothesized that there would be a main effect for gender on perceptions of safety traveling to countries impacted by terrorism. Specifically, the hypothesis posited that women would perceive lower feelings of safety traveling to countries impacted by terrorism. The study hypothesized that there would be a main effect for age on perceptions of safety due to President Trump's travel ban. Specifically, the hypothesis posited that older individuals would perceive lower feelings of safety due to President Trump's travel ban. The study hypothesized that there would be a main effect for age on perceptions of safety traveling to countries impacted by terrorism. Specifically, the hypothesis posited that older

individuals would perceive lower feelings of safety traveling to countries affected by terrorism. Lastly, the study hypothesized that there would be an interaction effect between gender and age on perceptions of safety due to President Trump's travel ban and to countries impacted by terrorism. Specifically, the hypothesis posited that older women would perceive lower levels of safety due to President Trump's travel ban and to countries affected by terrorism.

The two-way MANOVA indicated a between-group difference for gender (Wilk's $\Lambda = .949$, $F [2,145] = 3.878$, $p = .023$, $\eta^2 = .05$). Female participants had higher mean scores ($M=2.74$) on perceptions of not feeling safe when traveling because of the President's travel ban in comparison to male ($M=2.26$) counterparts.

No main effect was found for age effects.

No interaction effects were found for age and gender.

A second two-way MANOVA was used to assess gender and age differences in perceptions of anxiety and fear when traveling. Gender included males and females, while age consisted of younger (<35 years) and older (≥ 35 years) adults. The study hypothesized that there would be a main effect for gender on perceptions of anxiety. Specifically, the hypothesis posited

that women would perceive higher levels of anxiety. The study hypothesized that there would be a main effect for gender on perceptions of fear. Specifically, the hypothesis posited that women would perceive higher levels of concern. The study hypothesized that there would be a main effect for age on perceptions of anxiety. Specifically, the hypothesis posited that older individuals would perceive higher levels of anxiety. The study hypothesized that there would be a main effect for age on perceptions of fear. Specifically, the hypothesis posited that older individuals would perceive higher levels of concern. Lastly, the study hypothesized that there would be an interaction effect between age and gender on perceptions of anxiety and fear. Specifically, the hypothesis posited that older women would perceive higher levels of anxiety and fear.

No main effect was found for gender on perceptions of anxiety and fear.

No main effect was found for age on perceptions of anxiety and fear.

No interaction effect was found for age and gender on perceptions of anxiety and fear.

A 2 x 3 Chi-Square was used to examine differences in the likelihood that traveling has decreased among younger and older individuals. The study hypothesized that there would be a

significant difference in the likelihood that traveling has decreased among younger and older individuals. Specifically, the hypothesis posited that older individuals would experience a decrease in travel. Results were not significant.

A second 2 x 3 Chi-Square was used to assess differences in the likelihood that individuals will no longer travel internationally as a result of not feeling safe among younger and older individuals. The study hypothesized that there would be a significant difference in the likelihood that individuals would no longer travel internationally as a result of not feeling safe among younger and older individuals. Specifically, the hypothesis posited that older individuals would perceive less willingness to travel abroad due to not feeling safe. Results were not significant.

An Independent Samples *t*-test was used to examine group differences in age on perceptions of safety for traveling to popular destinations. The study hypothesized that there would be a significant between-group difference in age on perceptions of safety for traveling to popular destinations. Specifically, the hypothesis posited that older individuals would perceive lower feelings of safety traveling to popular destinations. Results were not significant.

A total of four open-ended questions were included in the survey. These questions asked participants (a) how much does the news influence your sense of safety on international travel, (b) how much does the news affect your sense of safety on domestic travel, (c) what factors negatively influence your feelings of safety when making travel decisions, and (d) what factors positively influence your perceptions of safety when making travel decisions? The most common responses provided by participants were noted.

Table 1 shows the degree to which the news influenced participants' sense of safety on international travel. A total of 20% of participants who responded to this item stated that they were much affected by the news, 32% were moderately affected, 21% mildly affected, and 27% not affected by the news.

Table 2 shows the degree to which the news influenced participants' sense of safety on domestic travel. Approximately 46% of participants of participants who responded to this item stated that the news did not affect their sense of safety on domestic travel, followed by 28% who were mildly affected, 15% moderately influenced by the news, and 11% were significantly affected by the news.

Table 3 shows the factors that negatively influenced participants' feelings of safety when making travel decisions.

Approximately 25% of participants who responded to this item stated that previous terrorist attacks were a negative factor, 19% stated that active conflict was a negative factor, 13% stated that poor reputation was a negative factor, 13% stated that unstable government was a negative factor, 11% stated that absent law enforcement was a negative factor, 10% stated that crimes against tourists were a negative factor, and 10% stated that travel advisories were a negative factor.

Table 4 shows which factors positively influenced participants' feelings of safety when making travel decisions. Approximately 19% of participants who responded to this item stated safe reputation was a positive factor, 17% stated that present law enforcement was a positive factor, 13% stated that safety checkpoints were a positive factor, 11% noted that stable government was a positive factor, 11% stated that verified reviews was a positive factor, 10% indicated that group travel was a positive factor, 10% reported that having traveled to the destination before was a positive factor, and 10% stated that TSA regulations were a positive factor.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine: (a) the public's perceptions and travel behaviors of areas that have been involved with terrorism; (b) media influence regarding safety perceptions on both international and domestic travel; and (c) which factors negatively and positively influence perceptions of safety in travel related decision-making. Further, this study utilized a mixed methods approach of research and the self-report survey technique was used for gathering data.

Existing research has shown that when risks, either real or imagined, are associated with tourism, travelers alter their behaviors (Sonmez et al., 1999; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). According to Seabra et al., (2014) a single act of terrorism can create a tourism and destination image crisis due to the appearance of weakened security. Individuals planning to travel may be exposed to this type of negative image because of the constant production of media reports. Researchers Avraham and Ketter (2008) stated that in times of crisis, the media tends to deliver negative reports and focus on the negative aspects. Thus, travelers who view the news are vulnerable to becoming secondary victims of human disasters, including terrorism, due

to the indirect media exposure of such attacks (Shoshani & Slone, 2008).

The present study noted one significant result and subsequently several non-significant results. Specifically, significant results indicated that women perceived lower feelings of safety due to President Trump's travel ban. The results of this study are partially consistent with findings from a study conducted by Xueqing Qi et al. (2009), where females perceived lower safety levels when developing traveling plans. Conversely, no other gender and age differences were noted in perceptions of travel safety due to President Trump's travel ban and to countries impacted by terrorism.

Unlike Sonmez and Graefe (1998b), who stated safety related concerns, including fear, decline among individuals younger in age, the current study found no differences when assessing gender and age differences in perceptions of anxiety and fear when traveling. The results from this study indicated no differences when comparing the likelihood that traveling has decreased among younger and older individuals. Additionally, the present study noted no differences when assessing the likelihood that individuals will no longer travel internationally as a result of not feeling safe among younger and older individuals. These findings contrast previous research findings by Reisinger

and Mavondo (2005), which stated that risk and safety factors are major deterrents for international travelers. Lastly, unlike Elena (2016), who suggested fear and terror can divert potential tourists from traveling to an extremely popular destination, this study found no group differences in age on perceptions of safety for traveling to popular destinations.

The most common participant responses from the four, open-ended questions regarding news influence on safety for both international and domestic travel, and factors that negatively and positively influence safety when making travel decisions yielded similar results with existing research. Responses indicated that the majority of participants' sense of safety on international travel was moderately influenced by the news. These findings are consistent with Kapuscinski's (2014) research where media coverage of a terrorist attack influences audience's cognitive and emotional processes related to international travel. Conversely, the majority of responses for participants' sense of safety on domestic travel was not influenced by the news.

Additionally, responses indicated that participants stated previous terrorist attacks and active conflict were the main factors that negatively influenced their feelings of safety when making travel decisions. These results are consistent with

existing research (Kozak et al., 2007; Sonmez, 1998; Survey Sampling International, 2016), which also discovered that previous terrorist attacks and active conflict among the nation severely, negatively influenced the flow of tourism. Similar to research conducted by Elena (2016) and Sonmez et al. (1999), the results of the current study revealed that destinations with a poor reputation negatively influenced participants' feelings of safety when making travel decisions. Further, previous research (Kapusinski, 2014; Kozak et al., 2007; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a) was consistent with the results of this study, where political instability and absent law enforcement were common factors that negatively influenced participants' feeling of safety when making travel decisions. Lastly, responses indicated that participants stated travel advisories and crimes against tourists were negative factors that influenced their feelings of safety when making travel decisions. These findings are consistent with Elena's (2016) and Sonmez and Graefe 's (1998b) research where individuals are less inclined to travel when there are active travel advisories and to destinations where there is a history of crimes against tourists. As a result, these factors not only impact individuals' feelings of safety, but also impacts destination's economies, the tourism industry, and marketing strategies.

In the final question, the majority of responses indicated that participants stated a safe reputation, present law enforcement, and safety checkpoints were the main factors that positively influenced their feelings of safety when making travel decisions. These results are consistent with previous research (Elena, 2016; Sonmez, 1998; Sonmez & Sirakaya, 2002), which also revealed that destinations with a safe image, police presence, and security points are attractive factors for travelers. Consistent to research conducted by Dowling and Staelin (1994), the results of the present study discovered that conducting informative searches of potential destinations positively influenced participants' feelings of safety when making travel decisions. Lastly, existing research (Sirakaya et al., 1997) was consistent with the results of this study, where group travel and previous travel to the destination were common factors that positively influenced participants' feelings of safety when making travel decisions. As such, the findings of this study confirm several previous studies and push forward the knowledge that individuals' sense of safety when forming travel plans is sensitive to outside factors.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are centered on the results of this study. The tourism industry, specifically potential

destinations, should encourage marketing strategies, such as providing verified reviews from social media sites and recognizing security features in place. These factors would portray the destination and its reputation in a positive and safe manner. Additionally, TSA should continue to enforce the numerous security checkpoints so that travelers cultivate a valid sense of safety. Lastly, news outlets should consider the content and time devoted to international affairs. Such consideration would allow potential travelers to form a more realistic and accurate worldview.

Limitations of the Study

Multiple limitations to the present study require further discussion. First, this study recognizes that the sample was randomly selected, allowing for potential sampling errors. Further, the results from the present study are not generalizable to the general public due to the small sample size. Regarding the specific age classifications as "younger" included ages 18 to 35 years and "older" included ages 35 years and above, are not terms generalizable to the general population. Moreover, these terms were developed for the present study's analyses. Lastly, this study anticipated potential research bias when analyzing participant's responses from the four, open ended question.

Self-Report and Interpretation

The responses provided by the participants on the surveys are only as valid as reported results and not truths.

Implications for Future Research

To conclude, research regarding the trifold relationship between terrorism, tourism, and the media, is complex as a result of the constantly evolving variables. Researchers Yechiam, Barron, and Erev (2005) posited that consistently examining this relationship is an important step in mitigating these challenges. This study explored insights regarding the perceived importance of safety in travel behaviors among age and gender differences. Additional research, however, still needs to be examined. According to Sirakaya et al. (1997) more research is needed to gain a better understanding of tourist decision making in order for destinations to market and provide an attractive location. Future research should address other factors similar to safety, such as a cost benefit analysis, as societies today are required to provide high levels of safety for both citizens and tourists. This study confirmed that gender differences exist between safety levels and President Trump's travel ban and advanced the current literature base by exploring specific factors that negatively and positively influenced participants' feelings of safety when making travel decisions.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
SELF-REPORT SURVEY

Travel and Terrorism Scale

For the following 5 questions, please answer each question with the best option that applies to you.

1. What is your age in years? Please write.

2. What is your gender?
 Male
 Female
3. What is your religion?
 Christian
 Roman Catholic
 Muslim
 Jewish
 Atheism
 Other, please specify _____
4. What is your ethnicity?
 White
 Hispanic or Latino
 Asian or Pacific Islander
 Native American or American Indian
 Black or African American
 Other, please specify _____
5. What is your highest degree or level of education completed?
 Did not finish high school
 High school graduate, GED
 Some college education
 Bachelor degree
 Master degree
 Doctorate degree

For the following 8 statements, please answer each based on how much you personally agree or disagree with the statement.

1. In the last 5 years my traveling has decreased because I do not feel safe.

- Yes
- No
- Not applicable

2. I no longer travel internationally because I do not feel safe.

- Yes
- No
- Not applicable

3. I no longer travel domestically because I do not feel safe.

- Yes
- No
- Not applicable

4. I am more anxious to travel today because I do not feel safe.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

5. I fear for my safety when traveling.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

6. I do not feel safe traveling to a country that has been affected by terrorist activity.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

7. I do not feel safe traveling because of the President's travel ban.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

8. I do not feel safe traveling to popular destinations.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

For the following 4 statements, please answer each based on how much you personally feel.

1. How much does the news influence your sense of safety on international travel?
2. How much does the news influence your sense of safety on domestic travel?
3. What factors negatively influence your feelings of safety when making travel decisions?
4. What factors positively influence your feelings of safety when making travel decisions?

APPENDIX B

AFFIRMATION OF SAFETY AND PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS OF CONDUCT

Safety Affirmation

I, _____ (student name) have received instruction from _____ (Thesis Chair name), Thesis Chairperson on safety issues that may arise during the course of the completion of my thesis, including ways to disengage from situations that may be potentially unsafe. Also, I will only collect data in areas that are public and only during the hours of 8am-4pm. While conducting this research, I will not fraternize with potential research participants, or the public, meaning, that I will not engage in socializing practices with potential research participants.

I have also received instructions on standards for professional conduct and have reviewed Section 1 of the Standard of Student Conduct of the CBU Student Handbook. I understand that as a student of California Baptist University, I represent the institution and must maintain a professional demeanor, presentation, and articulation at all times when interacting with the public at the institution and outside of the institution. For example, this includes being respectful of others, maintain professional conduct and behavior, having professional attire and grooming, and maintaining a professional attitude.

If I have questions or concerns, I will immediately discuss them with my thesis chairperson.

Date _____ Student Name _____

Date _____ Thesis Chairperson _____

APPENDIX C
DISENGAGEMENT SCRIPT

Disengagement during Recruitment

Recruitment Disengagement: The action or process of withdrawing from involvement in a recruitment situation.

There are several reasons why a research would opt not to engage or select to disengage an already engaged potential research participant. Some of the reasons for not engaging and/or disengaging include:

A. **Safety concerns:** A researcher who based on their judgment and decision-making believes that engaging a potential participant may pose a threat or danger to their own safety or the safety of others.

a. **Selecting NOT to engage at all.** This is based on researcher judgment and decision-making. If you believe that engaging a potential participant would pose a threat to your safety or the safety of others, do not engage that individual, at all (even if your research protocol indicates that you should make contact).

1. Recommendations

1. Be aware of your surroundings
2. Recruit participants during regular business hours
3. Do not make eye contact
4. Do not read the recruitment script

b. **Selecting to disengage after initial engagement.** This is based on researcher judgment and decision-making. If you believe that continued engagement with this individual would create safety concerns, you need to disengage from the conversation

1. Recommendations

1. Maintain professionalism and firm boundaries
2. Do not personalize the interaction
3. Maintain a positive perspective and attitude

2. Disengagement Script

- I only have 20 more seconds but thank you for your time.
- I have to move on now but I appreciate your time.
- Thank you for dropping by.
- I'm sorry, but I wasn't clear about what I needed for the study. I actually have enough information. Thank you for your time.

c. Disengaging when engaged by the individual:

Potential research participants may attempt to engage the researcher in conversation. They may inquire about the type of study, topic, or simply ask personal questions of the researcher. Some of these questions include your name, age, city where you live, or name of the school you attend.

1. Recommendations

1. Do not provide personal information to individuals you do not know.
2. Remember that the only content you should be sharing is the recruitment script.
3. Maintain professionalism and firm boundaries.
4. Keep the conversation brief but professional.

2. Disengagement Script

- I must stick to research protocol and cannot answer personal questions.
- I only have 30 more seconds but thank you for your time.
- I have to move on but I appreciate your time.
- Thank you for dropping by.
- I cannot comment on that.

B. Potential participant does not meet the requirements for the study: This is specific to the individual. For example, a researcher who is not recruiting police officers, women, children, should not engage these individuals.

a. **Selecting NOT to engage at all:** As the researcher, you know what participants may qualify for the study. Be aware of potential participants. IF they clearly do not meet your criteria, do not engage.

1. **Recommendations**

1. Be aware of your surroundings.
2. Do not make eye contact.
3. Do not read the recruitment script.

b. **Disengaging when engaged by the individual:** In some cases, members of the community may want to engage with you and ask you what you are doing, and/or ask what your study is about.

1. **Disengagement Script**

- Thank you for dropping by. I actually have the information I need.
- I have to move on now but I appreciate your time.

c. **Selecting to disengage after initial engagement:** Sometimes it is not obvious whether or not a potential research participant meets or does not meet the criteria for the study. If after engaging a participant, you realize that they are not suitable for the study, you will want to disengage from the conversation.

1. Disengagement Script

- Thank you for dropping by. I actually have the information I need.
- I have to move on now but I appreciate your time.
- I'm sorry, I was not clear. But I have the information I need.

C. Hijacking of time: Occurs when a potential research participant begins to engage the researcher in a lengthy conversation that is detracting from the recruitment of other participants.

a. Selecting to disengage after initial engagement

1. Disengagement Script

- Thank you for dropping by. I actually have the information I need.
- I have to move on now but I appreciate your time.
- I only have 30 more seconds but thank you for your time.
- Let me interrupt you, I only have 30 more seconds because I have to move on, but I want to thank you for your time.

D. Individual becomes upset at the research or the research topic: An individual may become upset for several reasons. Some of these include feeling or believing that they are being "targeted" for the study. They may also have their own views and perspectives on the topic of your study. IF an individual becomes upset with you or takes offense to the topic of the research, the following is recommended.

a. Recommendations

1. Maintain professionalism
2. Do not personalize the interaction
3. Maintain a positive perspective and attitude
4. Minimize the agitation of the other person
5. Disengage

b. Selecting to disengage after initial engagement**1. Disengagement Script**

- I appreciate your concern and will bring it up to my thesis supervisor. Thank you for dropping by.
- I'm sorry, that was upsetting to you. Here is a blank consent form with the name, telephone number, and email for the thesis chair who is supervising this research.
- I have to move on, but thank you for taking the time to stop by.
-

APPENDIX D
RECRUITMENT SCRIPT

"Hi. My name is Shannon Brown and I'm a forensic psychology graduate student at California Baptist University. I am conducting a research study that examines the public's perceptions of traveling to destinations that have been involved with terrorist activity. If you decide to participate, you will be required to sign a consent form and fill out a survey. The study will take an estimate of ten minutes of your time. Your participation is completely voluntary. The decision to participate, or not, will not affect your relationship with California Baptist University. At any point in the study you are allowed to discontinue your participation without penalty. Additionally, your participation in this study will be confidential at all times. Would you like to participate in my study?"

APPENDIX E
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

**CONSENT TO ACT AS A HUMAN RESEARCH PARTICIPANT**

My name is Shannon Brown and I am a forensic psychology graduate student at California Baptist University. I am conducting a study on the perceptions of traveling to destinations where terrorist activity has occurred. You can participate if you are at least 18 years of age.

If you are eligible and decide to participate, with the understanding of this consent form, this survey will take approximately 10 minutes. The survey will include items regarding perceptions of tourism, terrorism, and media, in which you will be asked to what degree you agree or disagree. Once the survey is completed, the data will be collected and later statistically analyzed.

The purpose of this research study is to examine the public's perceptions of traveling to destinations where terrorist activity occurred. The survey will examine factors associated with traveling behavior, including frequency, location, safety, and media influence.

Potential risks are minimal. However, a list of community resources will be provided with this form if you experience any discomfort or stress as a result of your participation in this research study. Your participation will benefit the research study because it will enhance our understanding of perceptions of tourism and terrorism among the public.

All information collected will be confidential. This research study will not ask for identifying details and all information used in this study will be coded to protect participants' privacy. No survey questions will be connected to identifying information. All collected data will be kept in a safe and secure, locked location.

Your participation is completely voluntary. Your decision to participate, or not, will not affect your relationship with California Baptist University. At any time in the study you are allowed to discontinue your participation without penalty.

If you have any questions regarding the research study, please feel free to contact my advising professor, Dr. Ana Gamez, Associate Professor of Psychology, Practicum Director of Forensic Psychology, at agamez@calbaptist.edu. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact the IRB, at IRB@calbaptist.edu.

Your signature below indicates that you have read and understand the information written above, you willingly agree to participate, you may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty, you will receive a copy of this form, and you are not waiving any legal rights or future claims. Your signature also acknowledges that you had an opportunity to ask questions at any time.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

APPENDIX F
COMMUNITY RESOURCES

Community Resources**Olive Counseling Center**

4041 Brockton Ave., Riverside, 92501
(951) 369-8534

Family Service Association of Western Riverside County

8172 Magnolia Ave., Riverside, 92504
(951) 509-8733

Antonius Brandon- Riverside Psychiatric Medical Group

5887 Brockton Ave., Suite A, Riverside, 92506
(951) 275-8500

Central Counseling Services

6840 Indiana Ave., Suite 275, Riverside, 92506
(951) 778-0230

Magnolia Center for Counseling

4192 Brockton Ave., #202, Riverside, 92501
(951) 778-1624

Inland Psychotherapy Group

5790 Magnolia Ave., Suite 202, Riverside, 92506
(951) 682-7240

Marie Comstock

3745 McCray St., Riverside, 92504
(951) 205-8997

Deanne Edwards, MFT

5055 Canyon Crest, Suite 202, Riverside, 92507
(951) 210-3400

Magnolia Counseling and Therapy

3523 McKinley St., Riverside, 92506
(951) 210-3400

California Baptist University Counseling & Testing Center

3510 Adams St., Riverside, 92504
(951) 689-1120

APPENDIX G
RESULTS TABLES

Table 1

How much does the news influence your sense of safety on international travel?

<i>Response</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	
Greatly Influenced	20%	(n = 27)
Moderately Influenced	32%	(n = 43)
Mildly Influenced	21%	(n = 29)
Not Influenced	27%	(n = 36)

Table 2

How much does the news influence your sense of safety on domestic travel?

<i>Response</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	
Greatly Influenced	11%	(n = 15)
Moderately Influenced	15%	(n = 20)
Mildly Influenced	28%	(n = 38)
Not Influenced	46%	(n = 62)

Table 3

What factors negatively influence your feelings of safety when making travel decisions?

<i>Response</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	
Previous Terrorist Attacks	25%	(n = 53)
Active Conflict	19%	(n = 41)
Poor Reputation	13%	(n = 29)
Unstable Government	13%	(n = 27)
Absent Law Enforcement	11%	(n = 23)
Crimes Against Tourists	10%	(n = 22)
Travel Advisories	10%	(n = 20)

Table 4

What factors positively influence your feelings of safety when making travel decisions?

<i>Response</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	
Safe Reputation	19%	(n = 30)
Present Law Enforcement	17%	(n = 27)
Safety Checkpoints	13%	(n = 20)
Stable Government	11%	(n = 18)
Verified Reviews	11%	(n = 17)
Group Travel	10%	(n = 16)
Traveled to Destination Before	10%	(n = 16)
TSA Regulations	10%	(n = 16)