NO RISK, NO GAIN?

SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGY OF TOURISTS EXPERIENCE IN RISKY DESTINATIONS

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No Risk, No Gain?

Socio-Psychology of Tourists Experience in Risky Destinations

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CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

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Nafiseh Rezaei

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this thesis to two persons:

my brother, whose death was my rebirth and

17-year-old Nafiseh who bravely decided to rebuild

her belief, thought, and life perspective

after this rebirth!

ABSTRACT

Safety, security, and risk are different terms in tourism (Hall, Duval, & Timothy, 2004). Risk has been considered a highly subjective concept. It varies across time and space (Yang, Sharif, & Khoo-Lattimore, 2015). Risk perception is broadly studied in the tourism context because measuring the exact scale and range of actual risk is practically impossible. And many factors influence perceived risk (Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998). Researchers believe that risk-taking provides tourists with many psychological benefits, such as self-challenge, self-development, and a sense of achievement (Myers, 2010). Besides, scholars suppose that there is ample opportunity to learn whilst travelling, including both planned and unplanned opportunities (Van Winkle & Lagay, 2012). So, visiting risky destinations cannot be exceptional.

The Control-Value Theory of Achievement Emotion (CVTAE; Pekrun, 2006) is a comprehensive model to investigate achievement emotions introduced in educational psychology. It provides a big picture of individual learning processes from the antecedents, appraisals, emotions, and outcomes. This theory emphasises that if any variables influence control-value appraisals, they also eventually can affect resulting emotions. So, CVTAE perceives antecedents as a more distal individual and social antecedent for achievement emotions (Pekrun, Frenzel, Goetz, & Perry, 2007). In this study, destination perceived risk (DPR), prior experience with risk (RER), and perceived local people/tour leader support (PLTS) are considered antecedents. These antecedents are mainly related to the specific settings in visiting risky destinations.

Regardless of the type of travel, memorable experiences are sought by tourists through taking their holiday (Hosany, 2012). So, it is one of the significant outcomes for tourists after visiting a destination. As mentioned, travelling provides numerous learning opportunities for tourists; their memorable experience can be perceived as their learning outcome, especially after visiting a risky destination.

This study aims to understand tourists' achievement emotion in visiting risky destinations and its relationships with its antecedents and outcome in tourists' experiences. This study has developed the following objectives to achieve this aim: to assess the tourists' achievement emotions in visiting risky destinations; to investigate the tourists' destination perceived risk (DPR), prior experience with risk (PER), and perceived local people/tour

leader support (PLTS) as three distal antecedents of tourists' achievement emotions in visiting risky destinations; to test the influence of the DPR, PER, and PLTS on tourists' control-value appraisals of visiting risky destinations; to examine the influence of tourists' control-value appraisals on achievement emotions of travelling to risky destinations, and to analyse the influence of tourists' achievement emotions of visiting risky destinations on their MTE as the outcome of their trip.

This study has several significances. The majority of studies on risky destinations, as a type of risk-taking, only focus on future travel intentions to specific destinations, revisit intentions or potential tourists' attitudes about travelling to particular destinations (e.g., Aschauer, 2010; Chew & Jahari, 2014; Desivilya, Teitler-Regev, & Shahrabani, 2015; Lepp & Gibson, 2011). There is no study on analysing the tourists' emotions in visiting risky destinations and antecedents and outcomes of these emotions. Moreover, this study attempts to measure achievement emotions experienced during and after visiting a risky destination. Achievement emotion is introduced in the education field, and researchers believe that it is the main emotion that people experience in achievement setting and learning. It consists of seven emotions: anxiety, anger, enjoyment, boredom, pride, hopelessness, and shame (Pekrun, 2006). Investigating achievement emotion and its antecedents and outcome through this theory, for the first time in the tourism context, can provide comprehensive information about tourists' emotional experiences in a destination, especially within risk context. Such information also helps fill the gaps in the socio-psychology of tourist experiences.

This study develops six hypotheses and twenty-seven sub-hypotheses to achieve research objectives and test the proposed model. In order to verify the hypotheses and proposed model, the research philosophy and paradigm are post-positivism, and the approach is PLS-SEM.

The Middle East is regarded as a risky destination. Current media coverage presents the Middle East as the riskiest destination in the world (Jones, 2019). Therefore, the scope of this research consists of ten countries in the Middle East that are considered risky destinations. These ten countries are Egypt, Jordan, Iran, Israel, Lebanon, Kuwait, Qatar, Oman, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates. The risk profiles of these destinations are more related to their geographical position in relation to conflict, strained international relationships, especially with the USA, and mass media exposure.

The statistical population of this research is all international tourists who have travelled to at least one of the ten Middle Eastern countries before. In the sampling method, a worldwide perspective has been applied. So, the destination is the Middle East Region, and the markets are one or two countries in each continent. Therefore, there are ten countries as destinations and seven countries as target markets. The questionnaire has been scripted through the Qualtrics platform. Dynata, the online survey company, has been asked to help in distributing the survey. Before conducting the main survey, a pilot-test has been completed by 83 participants from Australia, the United States of America, and the United Kingdom. After analysing the pilot-test results, a minor modification has been made to the questionnaire. The final version has been translated into five other languages through the back-translation method. After conducting the main survey, 871 accepted samples have been collected, achieving the rule of thumb. The proposed model has been tested using SmartPLS 3.0 software.

The findings of the present study offer strong support for the proposed structural model. Five out of six hypotheses and twenty out of twenty-seven sub-hypotheses were supported. This study found that DPR, before travelling to a risky destination, negatively influences their self-efficacy and task value during their trip. But their PLTS has a positive effect on their self-efficacy and task value. Their self-efficacy and task value during their trip have negative influences on their negative achievement emotions include anxiety, anger, boredom, hopelessness, and shame –for task value only– and positive effects on tourists' pride and enjoyment during and after travelling there. Three achievement emotions out of seven have influences on tourists' memorable experiences in risky destinations. Pride and enjoyment as positive emotions have positive influences on MTE, and anger has a negative one. The predictive power and predictive relevance of the endogenous variables such as SE (R^2 = 0.473, $p < 0.001$; Q^2 = 0.288), TV (R^2 = 0.414, $p < 0.001$; Q^2 = 0.290), enjoyment (R^2 = 0.450, $p < 0.001$; Q^2 = 0.308), pride (R^2 = 0.480, $p < 0.001$; Q^2 = 0.345), and MTE (R^2 = 0.691, $p < 0.001$; Q^2 = 0.386) demonstrated the substantial capability of the model on prediction and its relevance.

This study has significant theoretical and practical contributions and implications. Although the concept of "sense of achievement" is important in the tourist experience, no study has examined "achievement" through emotion-perspective and investigated the antecedents and outcome of that for tourists. This study has applied and extended the Control-Value Theory of Achievement Emotions from the education field to the tourism

context to have this comprehensive picture. It has been done by introducing new antecedents and outcomes for tourists' achievement emotions based on tourists' learning experiences in the tourism context, especially risk tourism. Besides, there are very few empirical studies on Middle Eastern countries, especially tourists' experiences there. This study could provide a comprehensive picture of tourists' achievement emotions mechanisms, including before, during, and after travelling to the ME region as a risky destination. Tourists' perceptions about local people and tour leader support demonstrated an essential role in tourists' belief about their capabilities to travel to a risky destination and the importance of this trip for them. However, they experienced all seven achievement emotions whilst travelling or afterwards, but mostly their positive emotions, e.g., pride and enjoyment, could influence the memorability of their trip.

It suggests DMOs and marketers in ME countries consider the results of this study as a blueprint in their tourism development plan because it is based on real tourists' experiences in this region. They need to focus on their specific perceived risk –such as terrorism– in their marketing and advertising to clarify their reality. The crucial role of local people in tourists' experiences, either during or after their trip, demonstrates the worth of allocating time and money to educate them. Tourists perceive visiting a ME country as an important, interesting, and useful trip. Therefore, DMOs are required to enrich their experiences by investing more in top attractions, organising different events, building more special hotels that can present the culture and traditions of this country, etc. Concentrating on tourists' negative emotions whilst visiting a ME destination and antecedents of these emotions is highly recommended to DMOs. This study gave them comprehensive insights on some reasons for these negative emotions: high perceived risk before the trip, low perceived local people/tour leader support, low self-belief about their capacities to travel there, and low perceived importance/usefulness of trip. They should not ignore these negative emotions by referring to their insignificant influence on memorable tourist's experiences of travelling there. As tourists still remember their negative emotions, they might be harmful to ME destinations' tourism development.

Keywords: Achievement Emotions, Control-Value Theory of Achievement Emotions, Memorable Tourism Experience, Perceived Risk, Risky Destination, Socio-Psychology of Tourism Experience, the Middle East.

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"Gratitude unlocks the fullness of life. It turns what we have into enough, and more. It turns denial into acceptance, chaos to order, confusion to clarity. It can turn a meal into a feast, a house into a home, a stranger into a friend. Gratitude makes sense of our past, brings peace for today and creates a vision for tomorrow."

—Melody Beattie—

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Dreams Come True!

Nafis, 2021

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Research Background

Tourism has become more and more dependent on image (Tasci & Gartner, 2007). Potential tourists purchase an intangible product which is an experience (Lepp, Gibson, & Lane, 2011). Therefore, tourism products cannot be experienced thoroughly until after the purchase (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Lepp et al., 2011). Tourism products are intangible, inseparable, heterogeneous, and perishable, making the package a part of the risk (Mitchell & Greatorex, 1993). The image significantly contributes to travel decisions, particularly destination choice (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Tasci & Gartner, 2007). One part of the destination's image is perceived risk (Chew & Jahari, 2014). Perception, particularly safety and security, is one of the main determinants in travellers' decisions to visit a place (Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009).

One of the growing concerns amongst travellers is the issue of safety and security related to destinations (Chew & Jahari, 2014). Accordingly, the topic of "risk" is eliciting a growing amount of attention in tourism research (Sarman, Scagnolari, & Maggi, 2016). Researchers emphasise the importance of perceived risk (PR) rather than actual risk circumstances, such as natural disasters, epidemics, wars, political unrest, and terrorism, from which perceived travel risks are derived (Mansfeld, 2006). PR affects tourists' behaviour by way of avoiding or cancelling their trip to a certain destination (Irvine & Anderson, 2006; Mitchell & Vassos, 1997). Previous research has been conducted on risky destinations such as Africa and Uganda (Lepp et al., 2011), Japan (Chew & Jahari, 2014), Iraq, Israel, and Pakistan (Lovelock, 2004). Japan is an example of a risky destination because of a considerable drop in tourist arrivals (50%). This drop was noted after the Fukushima Disaster in 2011 because of the fear of earthquakes, tsunami, and radiation exposure (Chew & Jahari, 2014). The organic image of Uganda is also affected by PR –disease, poverty, civil unrest, and war– which firmly reflects negative images of Africa (Lepp et al., 2011) despite the limited knowledge about this area.

Researchers believe that the degree of familiarity reduces the number of risks people experience during consumption (Chaulagain, Wiitala, & Fu, 2019; Moutinho, 1987). According to previous studies, the Middle East is perceived as the riskiest region in the world for tourism because of unfamiliarity, followed by Africa (Carter, 1998; Lepp & Gibson,

2008; Lepp et al., 2011). This finding indicates people's tendency to apply sweeping generalisations to the whole region without recognising national or regional variability (Carter, 1998; Lawson & Thyne, 2001). Enders et al.'s (1992) idea of the generalisation effect demonstrates people impute risk to a big region rather than a localised area (Lepp et al., 2011).

Tourists make their travel decisions in accordance with perceptions instead of reality (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992). Actual risks might be different than perceived risks. When tourists have no knowledge about a certain destination, the media plays a significant role. Media can form perceived risks about the affected destinations and non-affected ones because of their high credibility and ability to access a huge audience within a short time (Cavlek, 2002). Sometimes, this phenomenon can exaggerate the extent of risks, generate unnecessary fear, and shape the perception that a non-affected destination is unsafe. Several studies show that indirect exposure through media to a traumatic event, for instance, infectious disease and terrorist attack, influences viewers' psychological adjustment, creating high degrees of anxiety and fear in the aftermath. Such fear can increase PR, initiating avoidant and protective behaviours, such as avoiding air travel, that might trigger harmful social and/or economic outcomes (Balzarotti & Ciceri, 2014).

Repeated reports through television and other mass media about terrorist attacks in any destination will exacerbate fear and anxiety amongst potential travellers. They may think that a destination will be the target of an attack, so it is preferred to avoid it (Floyd, Gibson, Pennington-Gray, & Thapa, 2004; Pizam & Fleischer, 2002; Sönmez, 1998; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998), resulting in non-booking and cancellations (Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009). Governments also play a crucial role in giving travellers a warning about the safety and security risks in different countries. The US Government, for instance, in 2005 highlighted the lack of safety in Singapore, Cambodia, and Vietnam. They also took specific precautions to alert travellers of the safety risks involved in travelling to Southeast Asia or Australia (Hugo & Miller, 2017; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005).

Nonetheless, some tourists, particularly experienced travellers, visit destinations despite risks. Owing to their experience, they might be able to distinguish between the real and perceived risks of a destination. Therefore, they are less likely or even unlikely to be affected by media coverage (Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009). Following this line, a few studies, like Pearc (1996) mention that PR differs according to tourists' experiences. Reichel, Fuchs,

and Uriel (2007) state that less experienced tourists worried about health, whereas cultural barriers is the main concern for more experienced tourists.

For tourists who travel to rest and relax, the need for safety is primarily essential (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005). Some tourists intentionally pursue an optimum level of risk that eventually will generate excitement (Cater, 2006). This finding holds especially true to tourists that participate in adventurous activities as their purpose of travel. In other words, excitement seekers are less sensitive to risk (Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005; Yang et al., 2015). They strive to engage in risky activities and visit risky destinations (Fuchs, Uriely, Reichel, & Maoz, 2013a; Mura & Khoo-Lattimore, 2012). Travel risks are considered an added value for novelty seekers, like young backpackers. It entices them to a destination in order to fulfil their travel motivations (Elsrud, 2001; Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009). The experience of adventure is generated when in the participants' minds, risks are merged with uncertainty about having the skills to overcome them (Myers, 2010).

Pomfret (2012) claims the elation of overcoming a challenge causes an emotional attachment—as a type of emotional response—to the place where it occurred. Emotional response actually occurs after overcoming challenges accompanied by risk (Wolf, Stricker, & Hagenloh, 2015). In these situations, tourists view themselves as more confident with a greater degree of self-knowledge (Laing & Frost, 2017). In other words, participating in adventurous activities provides an opportunity for psychological development, emotional fulfilment, self-perception (Myers, 2010), and learning (Stone & Petrick, 2013).

In an experience economy (Ma, Scott, Gao, & Ding, 2017; Pine, Pine, & Gilmore, 1999), travellers seek extraordinary experiences that delight, engage spiritually, stimulate the senses, and create and reinforce identity (Crotts & Magnini, 2011; Ma et al., 2017). Specifically, perceived risks in adventurous activities provide opportunities for personal challenge, ultimate success, a sense of achievement and pride, and increased confidence (Myers, 2010). In any adventure, risk-taking is a significant challenge that is a device to construct a story (Elsrud, 2001). Specifically, the advantages of overcoming personal fears include empowerment, an informal qualification, substantial narratives, a record of accomplishments, and eventually strengthened positive experiences (Myers, 2010).

Another kind of risk-taking tourist travels to risky destinations. Researchers use the term risky for different situations, such as perceived unsafe destination (Aschauer, 2010; Desivilya et al., 2015; Hook, 2012; Lovelock, 2004), a destination with political turmoil (Yang et al., 2015), a destination with post-natural disaster (Chew & Jahari, 2014), Africa as a risky destination (Lepp & Gibson, 2011; Lepp et al., 2011), and life-threatening events (Sarman et al., 2016). However, all of these studies are about perceived image, attitude and perception, decision making, motivation, and management and planning. Research on tourists' experience interpretation and emotional responses after visiting a risky destination is lacking.

The majority of tourism studies only use descriptive approaches to explain the emotional consequences of experience, but they cannot explain how a tourist's experience leads to a particular emotional response (Johnson & Stewart, 2005; Skavronskaya et al., 2017) and what the outcome of these emotions is.

Studies adopt several positive and negative emotional scales, such as loving, amazed, and pleased versus sad, annoyed, and afraid (Ouyang, Gursoy, & Sharma, 2017). Recently, researchers have started to look at these emotional responses precisely. For example, the Control-Value Theory of Achievement Emotions (CVTAE) has been mostly used in education. According to its definition, "achievement emotions are defined as emotions tied directly to achievement activities or achievement outcomes" (Pekrun, 2006). Thus, the theory can also be applied in an adventure/risky context. Scholars believe that the experience may be frightening in adventurous activities, but it can provide participants with a sense of achievement (Morgan, Moore, & Mansell, 2005). Feelings of achievement result from mastering a challenge or overcoming a fear (Knobloch, Robertson, & Aitken, 2017).

Some researchers use achievement interchangeably with accomplishment and mastery (Seligman, 2011). Previous tourism studies view the sense of achievement differently, such as a part of needs (Murray, 1938; Ross, 1997), personal growth (Huta, 2015; Wolf et al., 2015), well-being (Filep & Pearce, 2013; Seligman, 2011; Wolf et al., 2015), adaptive behaviour, positive self-consciousness (Tracy & Robins, 2007), fulfilling experiences, fulfilment (Filep & Pearce, 2013), eudaimonic rewards (Matteucci & Filep, 2017), needs (Murray, 1938), and benefits (Wolf et al., 2015). Achievement is also associated with different concepts such as personal transformation (Filep & Pearce, 2013), pride (especially authentic pride) (Tracy & Robins, 2007), positive psychology (Filep & Laing, 2019), flow

concept (Filep & Pearce, 2013), and memorable experiences (Ryan, Trauer, Kave, Sharma, & Sharma, 2003). Therefore, achievement is a complex concept that requires further study.

The CVTAE measures achievement emotion in the learning setting. This theory consists of four main components: antecedent, appraisal, emotion, and outcome (Pekrun, 2000). The core parts of CVTAE are control-value appraisals and achievement emotions. Control appraisals (i.e., can I do it?) are assessments about one's ability, comprising attributions of success or failure and perceived causality over actions and/or outcomes. These appraisals can be perceived as control or self-efficacy (Frenzel, Thrash, Pekrun, & Goetz, 2007). Value appraisals (i.e., why do I want to do it?) or the term "subjective value" shows the perceived valences of actions and outcomes (Pekrun, 2006; Pekrun, Goetz, Frenzel, Barchfeld, & Perry, 2011). These include two main types: intrinsic value (or task value), which refers to evaluating how interesting, important, and useful the activity is, and extrinsic value, which refers to how interesting, important, and useful the outcome is (Pintrich, Smith, Garcia, & McKeachie, 1991).

Appraisals of control and value are the most important and influential factors in the arousal of achievement emotions. It means that "achievement emotions are induced when the individual feels in control of, or out of control of, activities and outcomes that are subjectively important—implying that appraisals of control and value are the proximal determinants of these emotions" (Pekrun et al., 2007, p. 16). Different studies have also applied diverse variables as antecedents and outcomes. These are factors like feedback, socio-cultural influences, parental expectancy/attitude, teacher support, and mastery approach as the antecedents and motivation, competence gain, engagement, intention to complete, satisfaction, and achievement as the outcome (Buhr, Daniels, & Goegan, 2019; Frenzel et al., 2007; Pekrun, 2006; Pekrun et al., 2007).

Similarly, Falk et al. (2012) believe that the inside world of our prior experiences and the outside world intensely affect learning in tourism. It can show antecedents in CVTAE, which influence control-value appraisals. Based on these backgrounds, the present study has applied three variables as antecedents, namely destination perceived risk (DPR), prior experience with risk (RER), and perceived local people/tour leader support (PLTS). These variables have been mainly selected based on tourists' learning experiences in risk tourism settings.

Morgan and Xu (2009) believe that achievement is one reason for an experience to be memorable for tourists. The ultimate experiences that consumers plan to acquire are memorable experiences (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Knobloch, Robertson, and Aitken (2014) realised that emotions strongly characterise tourists' memorable experiences. Studies emphasise the importance of memorable tourism experiences (MTE) as psychological outcomes of tourists' experiences (Rahmani, Gnoth, & Mather, 2018; Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018). Therefore, it can be a learning outcome in tourist experiences, as researchers believe learning occurs no matter the preliminary reason for undertaking a travel experience (Falk et al., 2012; Stone & Petrick, 2013). Based on CVTAE, the outcome is influenced by achievement emotions in individuals' learning experiences (Pekrun, 2000, 2006).

1.2. Problem Statement

The importance of safety in tourism is high. Destinations perceived as safe are related to a higher likelihood of visitation, whereas it is lower for those regarded as risky (Lepp et al., 2011; Sirakaya, Sheppard, & McLellan, 1997). According to the World Tourism Organization (World Tourism Organization, 2019), the top 10 destinations received 40% of international tourist arrivals in 2018, whereas a country outside of the top 10 experienced a sharp drop. The location of the country also dramatically affects its tourism arrivals. Nowadays, media coverage presents the Middle East as the riskiest destination in the world (Jones, 2019). The World Tourism Organization (2019) provides evidence of the media's negative impacts on the tourism industry in the area: The Middle East only contributed to a 10% market share of international tourist arrivals in 2018. Consequently, the impact of negative news portrayed by mass media about safety in this area cannot be denied (Jones, 2019).

Although having a negative or unfamiliar image is bad, it may bring about positive outcomes in emotional responses, especially achievement emotions and memorable experiences. Many studies are conducted on tourists' emotional responses in adventure tourism, as seeking the risk and being a risk-taker are the main factors of this type of tourism. However, knowledge about tourist experiences in risky destinations is limited. In general, research largely neglects the significance of the subjective meaning of an experience (Fournier & Mick, 1999; Bengtsson, 2002; Uriely, 2005; Knobloch et al., 2017).

Several studies (Holm, Lugosi, Croes, & Torres, 2017; Morgan et al., 2005; Myers, 2010; Wolf et al., 2015) investigated the psychological benefits of risk-taking in tourism, which includes achievement. But no study examines tourists' achievement through an emotion-perspective. Until now, only educational scholars have attempted to study achievement emotions through the CVTAE. Travelling broadens the mind because people learn from experiences and interpret them. Therefore, scholars believe that all travel is educational (Casella, 1997; LaTorre, 2011; Steves, 2009; Stone & Petrick, 2013). Opportunities for learning while travelling are plentiful. It includes both unplanned and planned ones (Van Winkle & Lagay, 2012). It means sometimes learning through travel is deliberate and premeditated, however, it might be an incidental or unintentional result of the travel experience on other occasions too (Falk et al., 2012; Mitchell, 1998). But we do not have enough knowledge of tourists' emotional responses through this perspective.

Focusing on tourists' emotional experiences in visiting a risky destination can be a good start for expanding knowledge in this area. Its special, challenging context for tourists can highlight the learning experience. Still, as mentioned, these kinds of destinations also require more attention from researchers to find practical solutions to their obstacles in taking more advantages of developing the tourism industry in their regions. Moreover, any empirical information about the relationship between emotions and an important psychological outcome —MTE— is missing in the tourism/hospitality context, especially in risk tourism.

Some research is available about knowledge and learning in tourism, nevertheless, this is supposedly an essential component of the experience (McIntosh & Prentice, 1999; Li, 2000; Ryan, 2003). As an explanation of this phenomenon, Pearce (2005) believes this is caused by the limited commercial interest in how and what tourists learn because learning and adjusting individual world views do not apply to consumer purchases (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010).

CVTAE has been introduced in the education field to measure students' achievement emotions in the learning setting. As travelling in a novel environment can be considered an informal learning setting (Philip & Huan, 2011), we can investigate tourists' achievement emotions in visiting a destination through this theory. For the first time, the present study applies this theory to investigate achievement from an emotion-perspective in the tourism context.

1.3. Research Questions

This study aims to understand tourist's achievement emotion in visiting risky destinations and its relationships with its antecedents and outcome in tourist's experience. So, this research has one main research question and four sub-questions as following:

RQ. What are the relationships between antecedents and learning outcomes with tourists' achievement emotions in visiting risky destinations?

RQ1. What are the achievement emotions which tourists typically experience in visiting risky destinations?

RQ2. What are the relationships between DPR, PER, and PLTS as antecedents and tourist's appraisals in visiting risky destinations?

RQ3. What are the relationships between self-efficacy and task value as appraisals and tourist's achievement emotions in visiting risky destinations?

RQ4. What are the relationships between anger, anxiety, boredom, shame, hopelessness, enjoyment, and pride as achievement emotions and MTE as an outcome in visiting risky destinations?

1.4. Research Objectives

Based on the research aim and questions, seven research objectives have been developed as follows:

1. To examine the tourists' achievement emotions in visiting risky destinations.

2. To investigate the tourist's destination perceived risk (DPR) as antecedents of tourists' achievement emotions in visiting risky destinations.

3. To analyse the tourist's prior experience with risk (PER) as antecedents of tourists' achievement emotions in visiting risky destinations.

4. To examine the tourist's perceived local people/tour leader support (PLTS) as antecedents of tourists' achievement emotions in visiting risky destinations.

5. To test the influence of the DPR, PER, and PLTS as antecedents in visiting risky destinations on tourists' control-value appraisals.

6. To examine the influence of tourists' control-value appraisals on achievement emotions of travelling to risky destinations.

7. To analyse the influence of tourists' achievement emotions of visiting risky destinations on their MTE as the outcome of this trip.

1.5. Significance of the Study

Up until a few years ago, some researchers claimed that the psychology of tourist experiences remains a minimal area in literature (Ma et al., 2017). Fortunately, in the past few years, many valuable articles have been written, and a lot of research has been done in this area (Li, Walters, Packer, & Scott, 2019; Maghrifani, Li, & Liu, 2019; Wearing & Foley, 2017). But still, there is a gap; our knowledge about tourists' emotional responses, which may have emerged because of their learning experiences in visiting a certain destination, is minimal. There are not any empirical studies that investigate the factors that trigger these emotions, as well as their outcomes.

This research attempts to profoundly investigate the achievement emotions, as emotional responses, affected by the socio-psychological context and its influence on tourists' experience interpretation in risky destinations. Previous studies have neglected it. But what is a risky destination? Risky destinations in this research refer to those perceived by tourists as risky to travel to because of weak marketing, geographical position in relation to conflict, strained international relationships, especially with the USA, and mass media exposure.

Their negative media coverage, mostly due to the conflicted relationship between countries, may also increase this perceived risk (Hugo & Miller, 2017). Considering the features of travelling to risky destinations, this kind of travel can be considered as a type of adventure tourism with achievement outcomes.

For the sake of understanding tourists' achievement emotions, it is better to use the CVTAE (Pekrun, 2006), which educational scholars have introduced. This study attempts to

apply this theory in the tourism context for the first time. Researchers believe that a greater comprehension of learning processes might offer fresh insights into "why people are motivated to travel" (Falk et al., 2012; Mitchell, 1998). In addition, Falk et al. (2012) claim that researchers and tourism providers need to understand the fundamentals of human learning as learning presents an essential consequence of the tourist experience. Some scholars also assert that amongst the tourist experience elements, learning and uniqueness have the most significant influence on tourist motivation, satisfaction, and loyalty (Suhartanto, Dean, Chen, & Kusdibyo, 2020).

Kealey (1989) and Ward and Kennedy (1993) found that confusion or even stress when tourists learn about new things, or are confronted with difficulties, whilst travelling to foreign countries is quite frequent. Interestingly, it can happen even after repeated visits. This stress and these difficulties might occur even more frequently when travelling to a risky destination. Shukri (2017) also asserts that it is unclear how tourists traverse their emotions after the learning outcome.

In some adventure tourism studies, tourists claim that such an experience has changed them in many ways and altered their life perspectives (Wolf et al., 2015). These emotional responses will bring out long-term outcomes for tourists, including memorability. Nonetheless, knowledge about the relationship between tourists' emotional responses and MTE is minimal (Farber & Hall, 2007; Kim, 2014; Knobloch et al., 2017). Specifically, knowledge is lacking in the risk tourism memorability context.

The sample of this study has also added more value. Although there are many studies about the Middle East (ME) region, they are mostly theoretical research. Amongst a few empirical studies about this region in the tourism/hospitality context, there is no study with a comprehensive ME country sample like this one. Moreover, it attempts to have a worldwide perspective for target market sampling. Therefore, the present study is unique in providing thorough knowledge about tourists' travel experiences for tourists from all seven continents who have visited the ME region as a risky destination.

Moreover, this study has several practical contributions. Attracting more tourists is one of the most important goals for any destination to improve its tourism status. Destinations with weak or negative images can refer to their tourists' positive experiences in their advertisements. The results of this study can assist risky destinations —particularly the 10 selected ME countries— to invite potential tourists to overcome their unreasonable fear and

experience something different and unexpected. It can be done by highlighting previous tourists' experiences, specifically their risk perception about the destination before travelling, the importance of this trip for them, their achievement emotions, and MTE.

The more information DMOs have about their tourists, the easier and better they can target the market and promote the destination. Almost all 10 risky destinations have numerous assets that can be utilised as tourist attractions and gain a better position in the tourism business throughout the world. This study intends to provide detailed information about the emotional nature of tourism experiences in the Middle East with in-depth data on perceived risk, the significance of local people in their learning experience, and the most important memorable aspect of this experience. The significance of this information should be highlighted because it has been obtained based on real tourists' experiences at the destination, instead of people's stereotypes or perceived images. In other words, this study can be considered a crisis management tool to reform the negative or risky image of the Middle East.

Simonton and Garn (2019) believe that investigating a range of appropriately described and measured emotions can assist with improving the interpretation of experiences. So applying CVTAE as a comprehensive theory to thoroughly investigate emotions, also provides information about the importance of tourists' emotional responses to destinations with similar obstacles to attracting potential tourists effectively. This information might also be important because scholars believe that the tourism industry is responsible for engaging visitors, both during and after their visit, in forceful and transformative learning experiences (Ballantyne & Packer, 2011; Falk et al., 2012). From a marketing perspective, a crucial mechanism for involving customers in service delivery and adding to competitiveness is to facilitate customer learning (Hibbert, Winklhofer, & Temerak, 2012; Liu, Li, McCabe, & Xu, 2019).

1.6. Glossary of the Terms

Safety: In the present study, like tourism researches in general, safety refers to tourists' safety and the safety of their belongings. It includes the safety of shopping and consumer services, people's ability to get adjusted in a foreign environment, and understanding the local system of signs and social conventions (Popescu, 2011; Zou & Meng, 2019).

Security: Security refers to “the freedom from danger, risk, or doubt” (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985, p. 47). In other words, “security is the opposite of risk and danger. It means ‘no risk’ equals to secure” (Yang & Nair, 2014, p. 245).

Risk: In the present research, this term has been considered based on consumer researchers’ definitions. They define risk in terms of four circumstances include 1. uncertainty of purchasing a product or service, 2. unfavorable results of a purchase, 3. expectation of loss, and 4. the amount of loss (Cunningham, 1967; Stone & Winter, 1987). More precisely, if the focus is on probability, risk can be defined as a chance. But if the focus is on negative consequences, it can be described as danger (Bi & Gu, 2019; Dowling & Staelin, 1994; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006).

Risky Destination: In this research risky destinations refer to those perceived by tourists as risky to travel to because of weak marketing, the geographical position with conflict, strained international relationships, especially with the USA, and mass media exposure. Specifically, the Middle East region has been considered a risky destination.

The Middle East: The Middle East is a region that is located between Asia and Europe. The Middle East comprises seventeen countries include Bahrain, Cyprus, Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Turkey, The United Arab Emirates, and Yemen (World Population Review, 2021).

Psychology of Tourism Experience: This term refers to analysing the antecedents, appraisal, emotional responses, and outcome of tourists’ experiences.

Social psychology: It refers to “the scientific field that seeks to understand the nature and causes of individual behaviour in social situations” (Baron, Byrne, & Suls, 1989).

Antecedent: This term refers to a stimulus that affects the tourists’ appraisal of the current destination status.

Proximal antecedents: It refers to control and value appraisals in the control-value theory of achievement emotions (CVTAE). It means appraisals are proximal antecedents of emotions (Artino, Holmboe, & Durning, 2012; Buhr et al., 2019; Burić, 2015; Goetz, Frenzel, Stoeger, & Hall, 2010; Goetz, Keller, Lüdtke, Nett, & Lipnevich, 2019; Goetz et al., 2012; Goetz, Sticca, Pekrun, Murayama, & Elliot, 2016; Hutton, Skues, & Wise, 2019; Jarrell & Lajoie, 2017; King, McInerney, & Watkins, 2012; Pekrun, 2006; Pekrun, Elliot, & Maier,

2006; Pekrun et al., 2007; Pekrun, Goetz, Daniels, Stupnisky, & Perry, 2010; Pekrun et al., 2011; Pekrun, Lichtenfeld, Marsh, Murayama, & Goetz, 2017).

Distal antecedents: It refers to factors, which, based on CVTAE, effect achievement emotions predominantly throughout their impact on control and value appraisals. It means they have an indirect effect on people's emotions via proximal antecedents (Artino & Jones, 2012; Burić, 2015; Goetz et al., 2010, 2019, 2012, 2016; Jarrell & Lajoie, 2017; King et al., 2012; Pekrun, 2006; Pekrun et al., 2007, 2017, 2006). In the present study, distal antecedents are DPR, PER, and PLTS.

Appraisal: Appraisals are considered to "reflect the meaning of an event for the individual and its implications" (Manstead & Fischer, 2001, p. 2).

Self-efficacy: It refers to "people's beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over events that affect their lives." (Bandura, 1989, p. 1175).

Task Value: it refers to "people's evaluation of how interesting, how important, and how useful the task is (what do I think of this task?)" (Pintrich et al., 1991, p. 11).

Risk Perception (RP) or Perceived Risk (PR): This term refers to consumer perception of the total negativity of an action. It is more than an acceptable level and may influence travel behaviour (Mansfeld, 2006; Reichel et al., 2007; Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009).

Destination perceived risk (DPR): In the present study, DPR refers to a tourist's perceived risk about a specific destination before travelling there.

Prior experience with risk (PER): In the present study, it refers to tourist's prior experience in that risky destination or other similar destinations in terms of risk, specifically, the Middle East region.

Perceived local people/tour leader support (PLTS): It refers to tourist's perceptions about local people support, and tour leaders support to know more about that destination during their visit.

Emotional Response: This term refers to an individual's complex reaction occurring from appraisals of self-relevant communications with the environment. It will cause the direction of attention, facial expressions, action tendencies, and behaviour (Jordan, Spencer, & Prayag, 2019; Lazarus, 1991; Levine, 2010).

Achievement Emotions (AE): This term is described as "emotions directly linked to achievement activities or achievement outcomes" (p. 2), including anger, enjoyment, hopelessness, anxiety, boredom, pride, and shame (Pekrun et al., 2007).

Learning outcome: It refers to the outcome of achievement emotions in CVTAE (Pekrun, 2006).

Memorable Tourism Experience (MTE): This term refers to "a tourism experience remembered and recalled after the event has occurred" (Kim, Ritchie, & McCormick, 2012, p. 13).

1.7. Dissertation Outline

This thesis is composed of seven chapters. The first chapter consists of the background, statement of the problem, research objectives, and the significance of this study. Chapter Two provides a review of the literature relevant to this study, from safety and risk-taking in tourism to tourists' emotional responses and MTE. Research hypotheses and proposed conceptual models are also presented in this chapter. Chapter Three explains the method and methodology that has been used in this study. This chapter describes the research design, paradigm, approach, sampling and data collection, and instrument design. Chapter Four discusses the validation process of the questionnaire, which includes content validity and pilot-test analysis. Chapter Five presents the results of the main survey, data analysis, and hypotheses testing. Chapter Six provides the discussion and implication of this study based on its data analysis results. Chapter Seven concludes this study process, and reports findings, contributions, limitations, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Safety, Security & Risk in Tourism

Merriam dictionary provides definitions for the terms, safety, security, and risk. Based on that: safety is "the condition of being safe from undergoing or causing hurt, injury, or loss," Security is "the quality or state of being secure: such as freedom from danger, freedom from fear or anxiety, or freedom from the prospect of being laid off," and risk is "the possibility of loss or injury" (Merriam-Webster, n.d.). But what are the tourism scholars' definitions for these terms? In the following, an overview of researchers' opinions about safety, security, and risk will be discussed, and finally, the complete definitions will be presented.

A preliminary literature review implies that the definitions of safety, security, and risk are overlapping and confusing. For example, Sönmez and Graefe (1998), as pioneer researchers in this area, claim that tourists' safety concern is a parallel concept to risk. Or some researches have used safety and security terms interchangeably, too (George, 2003; Wichasin & Doungphummes, 2012). So, we need to look at these terms more deeply.

Maslow (1954) believed that the necessity for ***safety*** is an innate feature of human nature. On the other hand, perception of safety has been formerly conceptualized as an affective image. It can involve emotion (Lepp et al., 2011). The safety concern is an element of emotion, "which includes a complex set of subjective and objective factors, mediated by neural and hormonal stimuli that provoke affective experience and are more intense in nature than moods" (Rittichainuwat, 2011, p. 200). The safety concern is an mixed emotion of worry, anxiety, and fear experienced during an anxiety-producing situation (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010; Richins, 1997). Besides, safety concerns are tightly linked with uncertainty avoidance, and safety dominates throughout other needs where uncertainty avoidance is robust (Hofstede, 2001). In the tourism context, we can define safety as tourists' safety and the safety of their belongings. It may include individuals' ability to adapt to a foreign environment, grasp the local system of signs and social gatherings, and ensure the safety of purchase and consumer services (Popescu, 2011; Zou & Meng, 2019). Safety tends more

towards natural disaster, health, accident, and other non-human caused incidents (Mansfeld & Pizam, 2006).

With the failure of the Cold War divisions, the concept of ***security*** has progressed from warfare and defence-focused to global- and people-centred (Hall et al., 2004; Johnston, 1992). Scholars believe that security is the inverse of risk and danger. It means 'no risk' is equivalent to secure (Yang & Nair, 2014). A precise definition of ***security*** can be "the freedom from danger, risk, or doubt" (Parasuraman et al., 1985, p.47). According to Hall et al. (2004), tourism security is traditionally involved with to national security and political stability issues. They asserted, "for the tourism industry at least; security is now seen as more than just the safety of tourists" (p. 3), and "the term security resonates with deep-seated longings to be safe" (p. 12). These statements indicate that *safety and security* are two distinct but interrelated concepts. Pizam and Mansfeld (2006) recognized four types of malevolent security occasions to the tourism industry include crime, terrorism, war, and civil or political turmoil (Yang et al., 2015). The character of tourism security has considerably altered. Hall et al. (2004) suggested to embrace health, social, and environmental issues, ahead of crime, terrorism, and national security, in the glossary of tourism security and even sustainable tourism (Yang & Nair, 2014).

Risk is an essential element of human activity and even everyday life. It effects various human activities such as choices on food, work, or travel. However, the risk is supposed to differ based on perspective. In consumer behaviour research area, the uncertainty perception and the importance of potential negative outcomes are described as risk (Bi & Gu, 2019; Dowling & Staelin, 1994). One of the most encyclopaedic definitions for risk has been introduced by consumer researchers. They describe risk with regard to first, the uncertainty of purchasing a product/service; second, unfavourable outcomes of a purchase; third, expectation of loss/damage; and fourth, the extent of loss (Cunningham, 1967; Stone & Winter, 1987). In other words, risk can be explained as a *chance* if the emphasis is on possibility and *danger* if the attention is on negative outcomes (Bi & Gu, 2019; Dowling & Staelin, 1994; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006). In leisure literature, Lupton (1999) proposed that sometimes risk is related to undesirable consequences despite the fact that results can be favourable or unfavourable (Adeloye & Brown, 2018). Rosa (2003) explains risk as uncertainty about a situation or incident wherein some parts of human value is in danger of loss. Reisinger and Mavondo (2005) characterize risk as the likelihood of financial,

psychological, physical, or social detriment because of a particular perceived threat. Morakabati (2007) defines risk as “a perception of the future, a perception of how threatening a scenario may be.” And Park and Reisinger (2010) refer to risk as “the uncertainty that consumers face when they cannot foresee the consequences of their purchase decisions.”

To sum up, these investigations illustrate that safety and security are conceptually different. Safety is an affective-involved concept, but security is a cognitive-involved concept. Safety is about micro-level concerns; however, security is about macro-level concerns. Safety is more related to intangible risks, while security is more related to tangible risks. In other words, safety relates to non-human caused incidents, whereas security relates to human-caused incidents. And in the big picture, the risk is about uncertainty, either safety-related uncertainty or security-related uncertainty.

Based on these explanations and investigation in literature, it is not surprising that some researchers recognize safety and security as the subsections of risk (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005). For instance, Mäser & Weiermair (1998) ascertained a group of travel-related risks such as natural disasters, hygiene, diseases, transportation, culture/language barriers, crime, the uncertainty of destination laws, and regulation. They claim that crime can be categorized as a security-related risk from the above list, however, natural disasters and hygiene are related to safety risks. Referring to these definitions, SARS and the tsunami in Phuket could be recognized as safety incidents, nevertheless, the 9/11 incident and the Bali bombings could be viewed as security-related incidents. As an impact of globalization, human and tourist mobility around national and regional borders has attained an exceptional level. Consequently, the diseases epidemic can be simply raised from personal safety risk into global biosecurity risk (Hall et al., 2004; Yang & Nair, 2014).

Traditionally, tourism scholars believe that risk pertains to tourists’ perception and experience while purchasing and consuming travel services (Tsaur, Tzeng, & Wang, 1997). Therefore, the risk is an essential factor for international tourism (Qi, Gibson, & Zhang, 2009). Because travel products are basically experiential because tourist’s perception and experience can only be assessed after and/or during these products are purchased and consumed. The purchase of travel products creates huge uncertainty regarding their consequences (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006).

Therefore, risk effects individual perceptions and decision processes if the decision consequences are uncertain (Cheron & Ritchie, 1982; MacCrimmon & Wehrung, 1986; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006). The literature constantly demonstrates that tourists' perception of a destination's safe level is significantly influenced their destination choices (Hasan, Ismail, & Islam, 2017; Lenggogeni, Ritchie, & Slaughter, 2019; Sharifpour, Walters, & Ritchie, 2014). Safety concern has been presented to prevent travel to certain destinations (Crotts, 2003; Kozak, Crotts, & Law, 2007). The importance of safety in tourism is so high that scholars claim destinations perceived as safe are related to a greater visitation likelihood and those regarded as unsafe, lower (Batra, 2008; Law, 2006; Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009; Sirakaya et al., 1997). Thus, safety, peace, and calm are fundamentals to attracting tourists to any destination (Qi et al., 2009; Shin, 2005; Sönmez, 1998). Safety risks are robust predictors that are more probable to discourage repeat visitors from travelling back to an area that is supposed risky (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998). The reason is that it can re-form individual's perceived image of a destination that is affected by post-disaster risk (Chew & Jahari, 2014; Lehto, Douglas, & Park, 2008).

In the tourism industry, tourists' perceptions of safety and security risks are the most critical concerns (Hugo & Miller, 2017; Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Yang et al., 2015). In this regard, war and political instability can prevent tourists from a trip. For instance, Tiananmen Square incident in China, 1989, convinced 11,500 tourists to withdraw their travels to Beijing (Gartner & Shen, 1992). Similarly, the Persian Gulf War, 1991, triggered an enormous travel avoidance to the Middle East (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006).

Nyskiel (2005) classifies risk in two main groups of internal, such as health, and external risks, like terrorism. Another categorization of risk introduced two groups of human-made and natural disasters. The former includes the commonly known cases for terrorism (Ayesha & Raj, 2018; Lenggogeni et al., 2019). Accordingly, terrorism poses the extreme threat for the tourism industry (Adeloye & Brown, 2018; Kozak et al., 2007; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006). In a broader picture, the five significant risks related to tourism are health, terrorism, war, political instability, crime, and cultural, and language difficulties (Dimanche & Lepetic, 1999; Basala & Klenosky, 2001; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006; Richter, 2003). Other forms of risk include satisfaction, time, equipment, and result in risks (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006; Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Wichasin, 2011).

There are some complexities in addressing the subject of risk. A conceptualistic opinion on risk debates that risk cannot be studied separately without considering the subjective variables, like human perceptions and experiences. The majority of risk perception literature have the same opinion with this view (Adeloye & Brown, 2018; Ben-Ari & Or-Chen, 2009; Morakabati, 2007; Slovic & Weber, 2002). In this regard, Reisinger and Mavondo (2006) categorize risk into two sub-group of absolute (real) and perceived (subjective) risks. They mention that absolute risk is evaluated by commercial providers employing safety procedures. In contrast, Morakabati (2007) describes a human creation in realizing and managing life's uncertainties which is an individual assess. In tourism studies, some researchers used "risk perception" to address "perceived risk" too (Cahyanto, Wiblishauser, Pennington-Gray, & Schroeder, 2016; Dickson & Dolnicar, 2004; Huang, Dai, & Xu, 2020).

2.2. Risk Perception in Tourism

Risk has developed as an essential factor, over the last few years, when considering international travel (Kozak et al., 2007; Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005, 2006; Sönmez, 1998; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998). According to Haddock's (1993) definition, perceived risk is an individual's subjective evaluation of the real risk. He supposes that the real risk is the level of risk that in reality exists because of the function of safety-control tools (Dickson & Dolnicar, 2004; Yang & Liu, 2014). Perceived risk is defined as one's overview of a possible outcome's uncertainty and negative consequences (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005).

Based on the nature of tourism, tourists' experiences can merely be evaluated while or after the purchase or consumption of the product. This phenomenon primarily explains why travel products create high level of uncertainty (Adeloye & Brown, 2018; Tsaur et al., 1997). Tourists select travel products according to their images. A negative assessment of a region – negative destination image– associated with insecurity feelings, which called risk perception, can procedure to high avoidance of intercultural communications (Aschauer, 2010); therefore, perceived risk is essentially an inhibitor to travel (Chew & Jahari, 2014). An evolving negative image is a significant problem for non-crisis destinations (Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009). Bigne, Sanchez, and Sanchez (2001) believe that image is considered a "subjective interpretation of reality" that a person has. Travel decisions are likely to be on

the basis of perceptions instead of reality (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Chew & Jahari, 2014; Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992).

Dissimilar to typical products, potential tourists who are customers in tourism will purchase an intangible product, an experience. The product could not be experienced well until after purchase, so image highly contributes in travel decisions and destination choice (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991; Lepp et al., 2011; Tasci & Gartner, 2007). Gunn (1972) mention that images are shaped in two styles. First, organic images originate from general presentations to such resources as schoolbooks, television programs, and similar media. Second, induced images which are produced by promotional materials in tourism industry. The images of risk sound to be enhanced in tourists' perceptions of distinct destinations (Lepp et al., 2011). Chew and Jahari (2014) demonstrate the significant associations between two perceived travel risks –socio-psychological and financial risks– and destination image.

Risk is a highly subjective concept that differs across space and time (Green & Singleton, 2006; Yang et al., 2015). Risk in tourism can be generally classified into four groups, namely, absolute, actual, desired, and perceived risks (Dickson & Dolnicar, 2004). The last one is more broadly studied in tourism because measuring the exact scale and range of actual risk is practically impossible (Yang et al., 2015). Perceived risk is defined by a person's opinion about the uncertainty and negative consequences of a potential outcome (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005).

Reisinger and Mavondo (2006) believe that the focus of tourism studies should be on the perceived risk because, first, individuals are typically concerned about perceived risk; second, they have narrow information and engagement in various risks; third, they are merely concerned about a few potential consequences instead of their total decision results; fourth, there is no real world or objective risk; and if it exists, then fifth, objective risk is challenging to attain, so all could be certainly calculated is the perceived risk (Budescu & Wallstein, 1985; Bauer, 1967; Stone & Winter, 1987).

Haddock (1993) defines perceived risk as to the subjective assessment of potential hazards and dangers with safety controls. Basing on this definition, researchers differentiate risk from perceived risk. Risk is the possibility of an undesirable happening that results in the potential negative consequences of a consumer's behaviour (Glaesser, 2003). By contrast, perceived risk describes the consumer perception of the general negativity of an incident that,

if above an acceptable level, may impact travel behaviour (Mansfeld, 2006; Reichel et al., 2007).

Until now, many empirical research in the tourism context has been done on RP (Adeloye & Brown, 2018; Fuchs & Reichel, 2011). Travel RP is defined as the negative valence of likelihood estimation that an unfavourable incident will happen during a specific time period. It should be a function of the number and type of risk experiences accessible in memory (Menon, Raghubir, & Agrawal, 2008; Ritchie, Chien, & Bernadette, 2014).

The works of Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992b) and Sönmez and Graefe (1998) are amongst the initial researches on RP in tourism context. They focus on the relation between tourists' travel decision-making and risk perception. Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992b) by focusing on tourist market segmentation, conducted a research on RP and travel. Their results highlight how RP varies amongst tourists because of various demographic characteristics, travel motivation, and experience (Adeloye & Brown, 2018).

Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992b) find out seven perceived risk factors influence tourism: equipment, financial, physical, health, satisfaction, social, and time. Satisfaction risk is the possibility that the trip could not provide personal satisfaction. Equipment risk is the possibility of equipment, mechanical, or organizational problems while traveling. Physical risk is the possibility of physical sickness, danger, or injury during travel. Financial risk is the possibility that trip would not have the value for the money. Time risk is the possibility that the trip will take too much time or even be a waste of time. And Social risk is the probability that the trip will impact others' opinion of the person (Qi et al., 2009). After that, Sönmez and Graefe (1998) characterized nine types of risks related to international travel: health, physical, financial, psychological, social, satisfaction, time, political instability, and terrorism.

Lepp and Gibson (2003) examined US-born young individuals' risk perceptions related to international travel. They assert that perceptions of risk are related to seven factors: political instability, terrorism, health, strange food, cultural differences, the political and religious dogma of a country, and crime. Similarly, Fuchs and Reichel (2006) examine the RP of international tourists to a risky destination (Israel). They identify six risk factors: natural disasters, weather, food safety problems, human-induced, car accidents, socio-psychological, financial, and service quality.

Socio-psychological risk is described as the possibility that the purchase will not reflect self-image and might impact others' view about a consumer (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992). Reichel, Fuchs, and Uriely (2009) claim that socio-psychological risk, in a tourism context, is about personal travel satisfaction in which risk might increase from the incompatibility of the vacation destination with self-image and criticism of reference groups toward the choice of destination. Chew and Jahari (2014) mention that perceived socio-psychological and financial risks effect cognitive and affective destination images.

Simpson and Siguaw (2008) recognize ten types of travel-specific risks: health and well-being, generalized fears, criminal harm, travel service performance, transportation performance, travel and destination environment, monetary concerns, property crime, and concern for and concern about others. Qi et al. (2009), similarly with Fuchs and Reichel (2006), found four perceived risk factors in their study: violence risk, socio-psychological risk, personal safety, and cultural risk.

Pennington-gray and Schroeder (2013) studied international tourists' perception of safety and security. They suggest seven categories of travel risks: disease, weather, physical, equipment failure, cultural barriers, crime, and political crises. Cultural risk requires to be managed carefully. Researches show that a specific level of cultural dissimilarity attracts a number of tourists because they perceive that destination as interesting and novel, nevertheless, too much cultural risk might drive away other tourists (Cohen, 1972; Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Qi et al., 2009). Studies show that RP amongst tourists is subjective and varies from one tourist to another. To the extent that what is considered risky for one may be viewed as an adventure for another (Dickson & Dolnicar, 2004; Fuchs et al., 2013; Seabra, Dolnicar, Abrantes, & Kastenholz, 2013).

2.3. Factors influence on Risk Perception

As mentioned before, studies debate that RP is subjective amongst tourists and not the same for all of them. Some destinations might be reflected as risky for one group of tourists but viewed as an adventure for another group (Dickson & Dolnicar, 2004; Fuchs et al., 2013; Seabra et al., 2013). In this regard, previous studies introduce several factors that affect RP (Table 2.1), explained in the following.

Socio-demographic factors have been considered as a group of most essential factors which effect on tourists' RP, they include age as a personal/internal factor, life stage as a personal characteristic, gender as an internal factor, education as an indicator of social class, marital status as a personal factor, income and social status as a socio-demographic/personal factor (Adeloye & Brown, 2018; Aschauer, 2010; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Desivilya et al., 2015; Fuchs & Reichel, 2011; Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002; Glaesser, 2003; Isaac & Velden, 2018; Kozak et al., 2007; Lepp & Gibson, 2003, 2008; Pizam, Fleischer, & Mansfeld, 2002; Pizam et al., 2004; Qi et al., 2009; Reichel et al., 2007; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005, 2006; Rittichainuwat, 2006; Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Seabra et al., 2013; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998; Tremblay, 1989; Williams & Baláž, 2013).

Some researchers mention travel accompanies as one of the travel characteristics that influence the formation of tourists' risk perception (Adeloye & Brown, 2018; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006; Williams & Baláž, 2013). Moreover, some scholars proposed psychological values as another factor that forms RP (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Fuchs & Reichel, 2011).

Travel motivation is another most common personal/internal/psychological factor suggested by previous studies which perceived risk depends on that (Adeloye & Brown, 2018; Aschauer, 2010; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Fuchs & Reichel, 2011; Glaesser, 2003; Isaac & Velden, 2018; Kozak et al., 2007; Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Lepp et al., 2011; Plog, 1974; Reichel et al., 2007; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005, 2006; Rittichainuwat, 2006; Seabra et al., 2013; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998; A. M. Williams & Baláž, 2013). After that, Plog (2002) introduced a new concept of 'venturesomeness' as a group of people who more adventure in their vacations.

Therefore, personality as a psychographic factor is another important element which affects tourist's RP (Adeloye & Brown, 2018; Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002; Isaac & Velden, 2018; Lepp & Gibson, 2003, 2008; Lepp et al., 2011; B. Liu, Schroeder, Pennington-Gray, & Farajat, 2016; Pizam et al., 2002, 2004; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006, 2005; Tremblay, 1989; Williams & Baláž, 2013). In this regard, tourist type has a significant influence on tourists' risk perception (Qi et al., 2009; Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992b). Specifically, preference for novelty as an internal determinant influence of tourist's perceived risk (Aschauer, 2010; Kozak et al., 2007; Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998).

As Priest (1992) stated, perceptions of risk and competence can be changed through experiences because recreationists can learn from their failures, mistakes, and successes. Therefore, travel experience is another principal factor to form tourists' RP which is introduced as stimulus/internal factors (Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002; Isaac & Velden, 2018; Jones & Ellis, 1996; Kozak et al., 2007; Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Pearce, 1996; Pizam et al., 2002, 2004; Qi et al., 2009; Reichel et al., 2007; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005, 2006; Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Seabra et al., 2013; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998; Tremblay, 1989; Yang & Nair, 2014). In this regard, RP is significantly impacted by the request for familiarity as a stimulus factor (Aschauer, 2010; Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Fuchs & Reichel, 2011).

Some researchers claim that prior experience with risk as an internal/contextual factor has a significant influence on the formation of tourist's RP (Aschauer, 2010; Bargh, Chen, & Burrows, 1996; Desivilya et al., 2015; Fuchs & Reichel, 2011; George, 2003, 2010; Glaesser, 2003; Kozak et al., 2007; Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Reichel et al., 2007; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005; Rittichainuwat, 2006; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998; Yang et al., 2015).

Various researchers have also demonstrated the differences of RP between first-time and repeat travellers (Chew & Jahari, 2014; Fuchs & Reichel, 2011; Sarman et al., 2016; Sharifpour et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2015). In this regard, Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty (2009) also mention that first-time visitors perceive higher risks of disease than repeat travellers. Repeat travellers see higher risks with raised travel costs and travel inconvenience than first-time travellers. Lehto et al. (2008) also believe natural disasters are among the main factors that intensify the perceived travel risk.

Several researchers identify the effect of national backgrounds on RP too (Aschauer, 2010; Desivilya et al., 2015; Fuchs & Reichel, 2011; Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002; Glaesser, 2003; Isaac & Velden, 2018; Kozak et al., 2007; Lepp & Gibson, 2003, 2008; Pizam et al., 2002, 2004; Qi et al., 2009; Reichel et al., 2007; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005, 2006; Rittichainuwat, 2006; Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Seabra et al., 2013; Seddighi, Nutall, & Theocharous, 2001; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998; Yang & Nair, 2014). For instance, Hurley (1988) and Tremblay (1989) found that European tourists are not as vulnerable to international terrorism as American tourists.

Similarly, scholars believe that tourists from distinctive national-culture background might have different degrees of the perceived risk (Adeloye & Brown, 2018; Fuchs & Reichel, 2011; Glaesser, 2003; Hoppe, 1993; Isaac & Velden, 2018; Jaeger, 1986; Kozak et al., 2007; Lepp et al., 2011; Nugraha, Hamin, & Elliott, 2016; Reichel et al., 2007; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005, 2006; Riefler, Diamantopoulos, & Siguaw, 2012; Rittichainuwat, 2006; Seabra et al., 2013; Somkiat, Michael, & Sameer, 1999; Tse, Pan, & Au, 1997; Williams & Baláž, 2013). For example, Kozak et al. (2007) concluded that individuals from high uncertainty avoidance (UAI) national cultures usually would not be comfortable with situations characterized as unstructured, ambiguous, or risky. Conversely, individuals from low-UAI cultures (risk-tolerant) are typically more satisfied with situations containing uncertainty and risk.

One of the critical external factors in influencing tourists' RP is information recaptured from different sources like travel advisory, travelogue, and word of mouth (WOM) (Heung, Qu, & Chu, 2001; Kozak et al., 2007; Pizam et al., 2004; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998). Some researchers believe one of the risk-reducing activities is information search (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005; Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Tsaur et al., 1997; Yang & Nair, 2014).

Another source of information is mass media include TV, newspaper, other types of electronic tools, and social media networks. Researchers believe in the significant influence of this external factor on forming tourists' RP (Chew & Jahari, 2014; Fuchs, Uriely, Reichel, & Maoz, 2013b; Heung et al., 2001; Hugo & Miller, 2017; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005; Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Sarman et al., 2016; Tsaur et al., 1997; Yang & Nair, 2014; Yang et al., 2015). Fuchs et al. (2013a), for instance, concluded in their study that the Israeli media deliver the Israeli public a wrong and excessively negative impression concerning the level of risk in Sinai, Egypt. Moreover, they said tourists used numerous rationalisations to justify their apparently illogical behaviour, like blaming the media for overexposure to terror risks. Hugo & Miller (2017) believe that plus mass media, government warnings, and stereotyping within society are other main tools that affect tourist's RP. In this regard, Fuchs et al. (2013a) introduce political orientation as a factor in which a person's RP depends.

Table 2.1. Factors influence on risk perception

Main category	**Factor**	**Author**
Experience-related factors	*Travel experience*	Priest (1992); Pearce (1996); Jones & Ellis (1996); Aschauer (2010); Kozak et al. (2007); Lepp & Gibson (2003); Sönmez & Graefe (1998); Baloglu & McCleary (1999); Beerli & Martin (2004); Fuchs & Reichel (2011); Yang et al. (2015); Kozak et al. (2007); Pearce (2011); Reichel et al. (2007); Glaesser

		(2003); Reisinger & Mavondo (2005); Rittichainuwat (2006); Sharifpour et al. (2014)
	prior experience with risk	Aschauer (2010); Kozak et al. (2007); Lepp & Gibson (2003); Sönmez & Graefe (1998); Yang et al. (2015); Desivilya et al. (2015); Yang & Nair (2014)
	First-time vs repeat visitor	Tideswell & Faulkner (1999); Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty (2009); Chew & Jahari (2014)
Behaviour-related factors	*travel motivation*	Aschauer (2010); Kozak et al. (2007); Lepp & Gibson (2003); Sönmez & Graefe (1998); Baloglu & McCleary (1999); Beerli & Martin (2004); Fuchs & Reichel (2011); Yang et al. (2015); Glaesser (2003); Reisinger & Mavondo (2005); Rittichainuwat (2006); Adeloye & Brown (2018)
	risk reduction strategy	Glaesser (2003); Reisinger & Mavondo (2005); Rittichainuwat (2006); Reichel et al. (2007); Fuchs & Reichel (2011)
Psychological-related factors	*Personality*	Plog (1974) ; Roehl & Fesenmaier (1992); Lepp & Gibson (2003); Reisinger & Mavondo (2006); Adeloye & Brown (2018); Qi et al. (2009); Yang et al. (2015); Yang & Nair (2014)
	psychological values	Baloglu & McCleary (1999); Beerli & Martin (2004); Fuchs & Reichel (2011)
	preference for novelty	Aschauer (2010); Kozak et al. (2007); Lepp & Gibson (2003); Sönmez & Graefe (1998); Yang et al. (2015)
Cognitive-related factors	*Loyalty and personal engagement*	Glaesser (2003); Reisinger & Mavondo (2005); Rittichainuwat (2006); Reichel et al. (2007); Fuchs & Reichel (2011)
	Stereotype	Hugo & Miller (2017)
	Culture	Glaesser (2003); Reisinger & Mavondo (2005); Rittichainuwat (2006); Reichel et al. (2007); Fuchs & Reichel (2011); Reisinger & Mavondo (2006); Adeloye & Brown (2018); Sarman et al. (2016)
	Political orientation	Fuchs et al. (2013)
	Type of risk and its importance to a person	Reisinger & Mavondo (2006); Williams & Baláz (2013)
Information-related factors	*Government warnings*	Hugo & Miller (2017)
	Information from travel advisory, travelogue, and word of mouth (WOM)	Yang et al. (2015); Heung et al. (2001)
	Information from mass media & social media network	Yang et al. (2015); Heung et al. (2001); Hugo & Miller (2017); Mansfeld (2006); Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty (2009); Fuchs et al. (2013); Chew & Jahari (2014); Sarman et al. (2016)
	Familiarity	Baloglu & McCleary (1999); Beerli & Martin (2004); Fuchs & Reichel (2011); Aschauer (2010)
Demographic-related factors	*Geographical region*	Bargh et al. (1996); Kozak et al. (2007)
	Nationality	Hurley (1988); Tremblay (1989); Aschauer (2010); Kozak et al. (2007); Lepp & Gibson (2003); Sönmez & Graefe (1998); Yang et al. (2015); George (2010); George (2003); Pizam et al. (2004); Desivilya et al. (2015); Money & Crotts (2003); Reisinger & Mavondo (2006); Glaesser (2003); Adeloye & Brown (2018); Yang & Nair (2014); Hoppe (1993); Jaeger (1986); Riefler et al. (2012); Somkiat et al. (1999); Tse et al. (1997); Nugraha (2016)
	Age	Aschauer (2010); Kozak et al. (2007); Lepp & Gibson (2003); Sönmez & Graefe (1998); Baloglu & McCleary (1999); Beerli & Martin (2004); Fuchs &

		Reichel (2011); Yang et al. (2015); Glaesser (2003); Reisinger & Mavondo (2006); Williams & Baláz (2013)
	Gender	Aschauer (2010); Kozak et al. (2007); Lepp & Gibson (2003); Sönmez & Graefe (1998); Yang et al. (2015); Reisinger & Mavondo (2006); Williams & Baláz (2013)
	Marital status	Baloglu & McCleary (1999); Beerli & Martin (2004); Fuchs & Reichel (2011)
	Social status	Reisinger & Mavondo (2006); Williams & Baláz (2013)
	Life stage	Tremblay (1989); Roehl & Fesenmaier (1992); Sönmez & Graefe (1998a, 1998b); Gibson & Yiannakis (2002); Pizam et al. (2002, 2004); Lepp & Gibson (2003, 2008); Reisinger & Mavondo (2005, 2006)
	Travel accompany	Reisinger & Mavondo (2006); Adeloye & Brown (2018)

2.4. Risk-Taking in Tourism

As mentioned before, risk can be argued as an inherent element of every tourism experience (Elsrud, 2001; Larsen & Brun, 2011). Though, risk-taking is a central aspect of the tourist experience and a crucial reason for participating in extreme forms of tourism. These group of tourism activities also refers to as risk tourism which involving thrill-seeking, physical exertion, and the likelihood for physical damage (Allman, Mittelstaedt, Martin, & Goldenberg, 2009; Lipscombe, 1999). However, even in this type of tourism, researchers believe that tourists pursue thrills rather than risk (Cater, 2006).

Researchers believe that who takes risks should be identified. RP is an unsolidified concept and depends on tourist's roles (Cohen, 1972) and personalities (Plog, 1974). Travel motivation or purpose of the visit also strongly contributes in tourists' RP (Fuchs & Reichel, 2011; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005). People express that safety is significant for them, but it does not affect their decisions about visiting a specific destination all the time (Shoemaker, 1994). Certain tourists still travel despite risks, such as repeat travellers and backpackers. Backpackers, for example, perceive a lower degree of risk compare with mass tourists (Lepp & Gibson, 2003), and independent travellers likely take a risk in making travel decisions (Yang et al., 2015).

Besides, young people are more likely to be risk-takers and more short-term oriented, possibly because of psychological value and motivation lenses (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Tourists prefer to evade destinations with higher level of PR, however, researches disclose that various tourists still visit these destinations (Parkinson & Heyden, 2015). In this regard, some studies claim that RP is subjective amongst tourists and varies from one tourist to another one. In fact, what is perceived as risky by an individual might be considered as an

adventure for another one (Adeloye & Brown, 2018; Dickson & Dolnicar, 2004; Fuchs et al., 2013; Seabra et al., 2013).

There is a relationship between tourists' RP and travel decision making (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006). Based on that, tourists prefer to evade destinations with a higher PR. However, this point is not generalizable as several tourists keep traveling to even destinations perceived as unsafe (Adeloye & Brown, 2018; Dickson & Dolnicar, 2004; Fuchs et al., 2013). A literature review reveals that the risk concept is abstract and extensively used in tourism studies. Even more essentially, the reviewed literature highlights that current connections between tourism and risk-taking is still under-conceptualized regardless of a rising interest in the common features between these two areas. In some studies, a *risk tourist* is a person who participates in extreme or high-consequence risky activities during his vacation (Elsrud, 2001; Holm et al., 2017).

Researchers believe that why risk-takers travel to a risky place or back again is worth studying. Although, for most tourists who travel for rest and relax, safety need is the most importance (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005) but there are some tourists who intentionally pursue the optimal level of risk that generates excitement (Cater, 2006; Dickson & Dolnicar, 2004). According to the definition of risky activity, these tourists are designated as stimulus addicts, sensation seekers, thrill-seekers, action seekers, and edge workers (Holm et al., 2017).

2.4.1. Sensation-Seeking

Sensation seeking is another term to explain the risk dimensions of tourism and leisure activities. Pizam et al. (2004) adopted this term "to describe the trait that includes a variety of risk-taking and sensation-seeking behaviours and the expressed intolerance for boredom" (p. 253). Lepp and Gibson (2008) claim that higher sensation-seeking scores are related to the willingness to travel to specific destinations. Specifically, travellers with higher score on a sensation-seeking scale are more likely to travel internationally and more expected to explore destinations with riskier image for most people (Holm et al., 2017; Lepp & Gibson, 2008). Moreover, hedonism and an achievement orientation direct to a higher significance of

sensation seeking for some tourists (Aschauer, 2010). Similarly, Lepp and Gibson (2008) posit that sensation seeking is strongly connected with novelty-seeking behaviours.

Previous studies designate that tourists tend to have specific needs for each vacation. An optimal level of perceived risk is vital for some individuals as it shapes the exciting part of travel (Cater, 2006; Dickson & Dolnicar, 2004; Quintal, Lee, & Soutar, 2010; Yang & Nair, 2014). In Lepp and Gibson's (2008) research, there was no significant associations between sensation seeking and RP in different destinations. They conclude that these two constructs, sensation-seeking as willingness to take risks and RP regarding destinations, have to be varied. Similarly, Aschauer (2010) also justifies the separation between two concepts, sensation seeking and safety feelings while traveling. He said younger tourists are excited to experience risks and more prefer sensation-seeking, however, feel more insecure at destinations challenged with criminality or threatened by terrorism. Conversely, elder tourists will feel more secure at terrorism-threatened destinations. He also claims that hedonism and an achievement preference will cause greater significance of sensation seeking.

2.4.2. Novelty-Seeking

Prior studies (Costa, Tran, Turchi, and Averbeck, 2014) propose that individuals prefer to explore novel and unfamiliar environments. To acquire these experiences, they are keen on taking risks in physical, social, legal, and financial aspects (Reed, Mitchell, & Nokes, 1996; Wilson & Goldman-Rakic, 1994). In fact, this type of tendency is described as novelty seeking. In behavioural sciences, it is also named as sensation seeking, curiosity drive, or variety seeking (Faison, 1977; Finger & Mook, 1971; Fowler, 1967; Litman & Spielberger, 2003; Zuckerman, Kolin, Price, & Zoob, 1964; Faison, 1977; Litman & Spielberger, 2003; Bi & Gu, 2019).

In tourism context, novelty-seeking is judged as traveller’s innate quality. This quality is supposed to apply crucial impacts on tourists’ decision-making process. Typically, individuals prefer to visit destinations that can provide something new or diverse for them. The more novel a destination is, the more attractive it (Assaker, Vinzi, & O’Connor, 2011; Bi & Gu, 2019). Thus, the preference for novelty has traditionally been perceived as an essential psychological element in the tourists’ decision-making process (Bello & Etzel, 1985). As

identified by Lee and Crompton (1992), the four aspects of novelty-seeking behaviours are a boredom alleviation, change from routine, thrill, and surprise (Lepp & Gibson, 2008).

Researchers realize that individuals could be classified into low novelty seekers to high novelty seekers (Assaker & Hallak, 2014). In accordance with this opinion, the novelty-seeking level has been applied to describe individuals' distinct exploratory behaviours, such as risk preference (Wang et al., 2015). Despite the fact that, novelty is believed as fundamental in tourist experience, a certain degree of familiarity is essential for majority of tourists (Bi & Gu, 2019; Cohen, 1972). Liu et al. (2019) found that tourists who usually motivated by novelty-seeking, are nearly unavoidably faced with new experiences and smoothing the *learning* process (Stone & Petrick, 2013).

Lepp and Gibson (2003) also realize that the tourist role can be considered as an indicator of novelty degree pursued in a destination. Distinctions amongst tourists concerning novelty-seeking transform into variations in the risk level they perceive for an international travel. Consequently, higher levels of risk may be accepted by novelty seekers. Lepp and Gibson (2008) also studied the combination of tourist role preference and Zuckerman's (1979, 1994) Sensation Seeking Theory. They conclude that preference for the novelty-seeking roles –include explorer and drifter– was connected to greater levels of sensation seeking. They believe it supports Cohen's propositions that individuals are different in terms of being repelled by or attracted to novelty and strangeness in their travels (Lepp & Gibson, 2008; Qi et al., 2009).

As mentioned, people can be categorized into low and high novelty seekers (Assaker & Hallak, 2014). So the novelty-seeking level is employed to describe peoples' distinct exploratory behaviours, such as brand switching (Meixner & Knoll, 2015), creativity (Gillebaart, Förster, Rotteveel, & Jehle, 2013), risk preference (Wang, French, & Clay, 2015), and abuse behaviours like drug addiction (Bi & Gu, 2019). The need for novelty is related to tourists' role (Cohen, 1972), individual lifestyle (Bello & Etzel, 1985), and personality (Plog, 1974). In the tourism context, as Elsrud (2001) and Lepp and Gibson (2003) and indicate in their study, novelty seekers like young backpackers consider travel risks as an added value, thus the destination fascinates them to achieve their travel motivations.

Researchers show that in research on tourists' perception in Africa; jungle, dangerous animals, snakes and bugs, cultural differences, strange food, primitive people, and vulnerability to terrorism describe the types of perceived risks that are usually attractive to novelty-seeking tourists (Lepp & Gibson, 2008; Lepp et al., 2011). Novelty-seekers prefer to evade returning to the same destinations. They are more expected to visit destinations with higher risk (Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Yang et al., 2015).

2.4.3. Adventure Tourism

Research in adventure tourism is relatively modest, particularly in comparison with numerous studies on other special interests in tourism (Buckley, 2010). Cheng, Edwards, Darcy, and Redfern (2018) believe that the current literature on adventure tourism is still largely underdeveloped. In Myers's (2010) study, adventure tourism means testing one's strength, ability, and power against nature in any way. Walle (1997) debate that it is the seek for insight and knowledge (rather than risk) that causes adventure tourism. Muller and Cleaver, (2000, p. 55) believe that "adventure tourism characterized by its ability to provide the tourist with relatively high levels of sensory stimulation, usually achieved by including physical challenging experiential components."

Adventure tourism definitions usually centre on outdoor and adventure recreation (Myers, 2010). Scholars believe that a straightforward and common method to conceptualize adventure tourism is to explain it as soft or hard. The former involves less risk, like trekking. Conversely, the latter is more challenging and contains higher risks, like white-water rafting (Cheng et al., 2018). The study of Morgan et al. (2005) supports Hall and McArthur (1994) claim that a major concern for adventure participants is safety.

Tourists may have diverse expectations for adventure activities based on several influences such as attitudes, cognitive style, personality, memories, past experience, and external information, (Moore, 1995; Morgan et al., 2005). According to goal and motivation in adventure tourism, Hall and McArthur (1994) suggest that adventure tourists search for an adventure harmonized with other motivations, like enjoyment of the natural environment or socialization. In adventure tourism, the search for authenticity is the ultimate goal (Myers, 2010). Scholars believe that authenticity is an essential point in the adventure. As the issue of

authentic experience in tourism has long been debated, Boorstin (1964) criticizes mass tourism as pseudo-events, and MacCannell (1973) describes it as staged authenticity (Hung, Lee, & Huang, 2016).

Researchers try to answer how is the experience of adventure travel. They argue that previous experience provides adventure tourists with a deeper insightful evaluation of the risks built-in the activity and the actual level of competence to be confront with. The meaning of the adventure experience to the individual depends on two things, their interpretation of that experience and how they construct the stories to deliver that experience to others. When risks are joined with individual's uncertainty about having the skills to overcome, the experience of adventure will be created (Myers, 2010).

The model of Adventure Experience Paradigm (AEP) designates participants' perceptions of an adventure experience. Martin and Priest (1986) originally proposed this paradigm. Following this, Floyd (1997) suggests a model for assessing the adventure tourism experience (Morgan et al., 2005). Experiencing adventure and adventurous activities leads tourists to feel they are distinct from those back home. They acquire adventure capital, which they can employ in the future through storytelling (Deforges, 2000).

Moreover, scholars seek to investigate the role of storytelling in adventure experience. They believe that "telling stories is a central part of conveying the meaning of travel" (Deforges, 2000). These adventure stories will be retold, repeated, and utilized as a means to construct a fresh adventurous identity both for the self and for others getting the story. Myers's (2010) research focus on the prominence of the travel stories' value and how stories are meaningful to the individual tourist. In other words, he tries to understand how the fun of telling the story itself, the relived excitement, and the listeners' reactions are all essential features to female travellers. In adventure, risk-taking is a significant challenge that serves as a device to construct a story (Elsrud, 2001). If respondents recollect their experiences by the means of storytelling to family and friends, they effect the individual's expectations who might be in the planning stage. Likewise, when tourists revisit a destination with others, they might perform as on-site mediators who can directly influence everyone's inclusive experience (Tung & Ritchie, 2011).

Researchers claim that tourists' perception of the level of risk and challenge in adventurous activities is critical in evaluating their experiences. In this regard, the AEP

visualizes the adventurers' level of challenge through an adventure experience. It is on the basis of the discrepancy or lack of discrepancy between their risk perceptions and competence perceptions (Morgan et al., 2005). This study demonstrates three categories of predictive validity levels in adventure tourism settings. The first group experienced a low challenge adventure. Participants in this group evaluate their own competence as high related to the risk they encounter, experience less intense feelings of fear and concentration, and perceive themselves to be typically in control. Conversely, participants categorized as having a high challenge adventure, their perceptions of risk and competence are quite closer, feel they are in danger and are often anxious. They are less likely to be bored than adventure participants with low challenge level.

The third group comprises individuals experiencing a moderate challenge level. It is located between the high and low challenge on the experiential measures of anxiousness, fear, concentration, danger, control, and boredom. Participants who perceive a challenge below average in terms of adventure might not achieve peak psychological experiences. Experienced participants shift to higher challenge levels throughout a higher evaluation of risk in the activity and a lower assessment of their own competence. The testing of competence is the participants' key motivator who has high challenge level. They hope to apply their own skills to overpower any uncertainty in the adventure. This uncertainty is mainly generated because of the fear of physical injury. Morgan et al. (2005) and Walle (1997) claim that sometimes risk is not a principle motivator of tourists when picking adventurous activities. Perceived risks in adventurous activities provide opportunities for personal challenge and, with ultimate success, the sense of achievement and pride and increased confidence (Myers, 2010).

Scholars believe these different levels of challenge influence tourists' arousal. Morgan et al. (2005) compare different levels of adventure to understand how the experience of visiting a risky destination can be. Participants with a high challenge level possess less confidence in their own competence. They consider uncertainty as an adventure outcome both before and during the activity. This uncertainty presents excessive arousal and several unpleasant emotions like feelings of being tense or threatened. Therefore, individuals will finish the adventure with memories of this high arousal as a significant source of enjoyment. Their successful outcomes, such as not being injured, are beneficial in their feeling of high achievement. Morgan et al. (2005) believe that the adventurous performances of these

participants request the label of daring thrill-seekers. Participants with high challenge level participants a sense of achievement by learning how to defeat inherent risks. For example, tourists who travel to Iran as a risky destination with a high challenge level and less confidence in their competence may feel high achievement after finishing their trip successfully because of exaggerated negative news.

Some participants also experience a low challenge because they believe in balancing their competence and perceived risk. The attraction of the adventure for them is to apply their competence successfully through further control and enjoy features apparent in the setting. These participants receive pleasant high levels of arousal through this type of adventure. Morgan et al. (2005) demonstrate that achievement is concluded from the features of the setting. Participants claim that despite the rise in their arousal levels because of stimulation, the experience is not as pleasant as a low challenge level. Participants with high challenge level experience a sense of achievement by learning how to defeat inherent risks. High adventure tourists are also inspired, aroused, experience achievement, and obtain enjoyment by contesting between their skills and the challenge; low challenge tourists, by searching the extrinsic benefits.

Williams, Yuan, and Williams (2019) believe another group of adventure tourism can be Gastro-tourists. Gastro-tourists are food enthusiasts and risk-takers. The key attraction for gastro-tourists is unusual, interesting, exotic food or drink. They are adventurous eaters with continuously enthusiastic to taste unique, out-of-the-ordinary food and drinks. Gastro-tourists take risks and spend discretionary money on ever-escalating food adventures.

The adventure experience usually stimulates powerful emotions in visitors. These emotions embrace but not limited to a sense of risk, fear, and thrill, flow, and rush (Buckley, 2012; Pomfret, 2012). Risk is connected to the physical danger presented by adventure activities. Fear is associated to real or perceived risks and can change to a ‘thrill’ if safely managed by adventure tourism operators (Walter, 2016). adventure tourists’ expectations show tourists do not seek for risk, but rather for thrilling modes of experiencing pleasure and fun and learning about themselves (Cater, 2006; Rantala, Hallikainen, Ilola, & Tuulentie, 2018).

Walle (1997) presented a developed and redefined from of adventure tourism by suggesting the insight model as its foundation. He debates that it is the search for insight and

knowledge, instead of risk, that caused adventure tourism (Myers, 2010). In this regard, Chen, Mak, and Kankhuni (2020) report in their studies that a variety of novel tourist experiences were indicated in the collected adventures' stories. Novel encounters are multifaceted, ranging from the appreciation of pure nature to *learning* about exotic cultures to meeting/making friends with new people. Similarly, Taylor, Varley, and Johnston (2013) identify recreation, experience, natural environment, motivation, risk, and *learning* as principal elements that usually describe tourist's perception of adventure travel.

2.4.4. Risky Destinations

According to the International Tourism Highlights, as reported by the World Tourism Organization (2019), 1.4 billion international journeys took place in 2018. This is the total number of travels, though not the number of tourists. In fact, these journeys may have been done by a smaller number of tourists, as some may have repeatedly travelled to the same destination instead of seeking new ones. Some tourists are not interested in risky or unknown destinations, as they may intend to complete their travel bucket list first.

Trauer (2006) believes that an ambiguous term is difficult to define, and the same holds true for defining what exactly a 'risky' destination is. Risk tourism is considered to be a sub-segment of adventure tourism (Holm et al., 2017). Lepp and Gibson (2003) attempt to explain perceptions of risk based on Cohen's (1972) typology, and they find that familiarity seekers (Cohen's independent and organised mass tourists) ascribe less risk to international travel than novelty seekers (Cohen's explorers and drifters). Interestingly, their findings show that novelty seekers are fascinated by and had already travelled to destinations they perceived as risky. Unsurprisingly, they also found that families with children are more drawn to familiar destinations (Aschauer, 2010).

Adongo et al. (2017) argue that fear is common when an individual is on the verge of or encounters the unknown such as an unfamiliar destination. They refer to prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979) that fear results when perceived losses associated with an event outweigh the benefits. For the tourists, fear correlates negatively with tourism demand. This idea is also reflected in discrete choice modelling. Sarman et al. (2016) found that the decision to travel to risky destinations tends to be reinforced or weakened by the personal evaluation of the risk of the individual travellers. Empirically speaking, Desivilya et al.

(2015) found that young tourists with an intense distaste for health hazards show low intentions of travelling to India. Those avoiding economic crisis are unwilling to visit Egypt. Intentions of travelling to Japan and India decline as the perception of destination risk rises. As safety and security are significant concerns when selecting a travel destination (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005), a risky place might become undesirable (Crompton, 1992) and most people would remove it from their list of possible destinations (Bi & Gu, 2019).

The affective elements of a destination (e.g., individuals' emotions and feelings) might more significantly affect the creation of a perception of a destination image, rather than their cognitive assessment of it. On hearing that a region is risky to visit, a person's anxiety might be greater than the strength of their original beliefs and opinions without this information (Hugo & Miller, 2017).

Several factors contribute to making a destination 'risky'. Familiarity and repetition, as well as premature cognitive commitments – e.g. stereotypes – demonstrate mindlessness and obstruct individuals from concentrating on their experiences. A mindless person does not experience their environment as a fresh information source (Tung & Ritchie, 2011); they mainly fall back on their stereotypes.

Lovelock (2004) studied the RP of travel agencies. In this study, participants were asked to choose the ten riskiest countries from a list. Amongst the countries, they decided on several which had received extensive media coverage, such as Israel, Iraq, Iran, and Pakistan. Their perceptions of a destination's safety were not reflected in their behaviour regarding selling travel products. This can be ascribed to two reasons: Firstly, though travel agents would not travel to these possibly dangerous destinations themselves, their personal risk factor does not reflect that of their clients. Secondly, several external, environmental, and workplace factors play roles alongside these individual elements. Although travel agencies rated Israel, Pakistan, and Zimbabwe as the second, third, and fourth riskiest destinations, significant sales of travel products were recorded. No complete evidence confirms that these countries pose risks to travellers, despite the participants of the study perceiving them to be risky.

When assessing the relative safety of destinations (Lovelock, 2004), agents will typically rely on resources from travel insurance companies, travel advisories and foreign embassies, who provide lists based on regularity of use. Governments also warn travellers of

the safety and security risks of certain tourist zones. In 2005, the US Government took special precautions by warning travellers of the overall safety risks of travelling to Southeast Asia and Australia, emphasising the absence of safety in Cambodia, Singapore, and Vietnam (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005). In general, US residents' international attitude, RP level, and income impacted their choice of international destinations to which they had already or were intending to travel to (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998). The contextual feature comprising local dangers and risks affects intentions to travel to risky destinations (Desivilya et al., 2015).

Another aspect of considering a destination as risky is intergroup conflicts. The severe consequences of continued intergroup conflicts with the attitudes and perceptions of those inhabiting regions known for repeat conflict, such as the Middle East – Israel in particular (Desivilya et al., 2015). This intergroup conflict may influence the RP in lesser-known destinations. For instance, Israelis are less likely than Poles to select travel destinations they consider as adversary or dangerous. Israeli and Polish students with solid perceptions of destination risks are less likely to choose India and Japan as travel destinations. These two countries are remote destinations, and a potential tourist has little knowledge about them. Therefore, this determines more risk for both Israelis and Poles (Desivilya et al., 2015).

Some destinations in the world are unfamiliar amongst tourists and have a weak place image. Potential visitors have no information or have never heard of these places and the type of attractions on offer (Avraham & Ketter, 2015). Persuading tourists to travel to these destinations is challenging. Destinations with weak images are mostly located on the margins or the periphery. Their location may create a hurdle for receiving national media coverage (Lahav, Mansfeld, & Avraham, 2013), which would help considerably in building public image and familiarity. Some of these destinations also struggle with negative destination image due to various factors (Hugo & Miller, 2017). Here, the concept of social distance should be further considered. Social distance is a sociological concept that explains how individuals perceive others as similar or distinct from themselves. Difference, such as greater social distance, is commonly demonstrated via stereotypes, prejudices, and negative attitudes about *the other* (Lepp et al., 2011).

In the case of a risky destination, a person's past travel experience is an effective indicator of future travel intention (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998). Past travel experience at a specific destination also intensifies feelings of safety (Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009). Personal and object-specific engagement also leads to repeat visitation (Glaesser, 2003).

According to Rittichainuwat (2006), a tsunami does not dissuade loyal tourists and repeat-visitors from returning to a tsunami-hit tourist destination, due to personal relationships shared with the place. Some researchers believe that repeat-tourists revisit destinations in spite of the risks (Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009).

Moreover, researchers claim that repeat-visitors have distinct cognitive processes in their image formation and travel behaviour than first-time visitors (Chew & Jahari, 2014; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). Repeat tourists may refer to past travel experiences to form an inclusive destination image of that country (Fuchs & Reichel, 2011). Repeat tourists are also significant for a destination. They act as a reference group or informal channel of advertising through word of mouth and are very effective in disseminating information. Therefore, understanding the behaviour of this group of tourists is essential for risky destinations to better their image (Chew & Jahari, 2014).

Another point to consider is the difference between developed and developing countries. Characteristics of modern countries include a stable government and economy, as well as health care infrastructure. If a country does not have these, it may contribute to risk related to tourism there (Lepp et al., 2011). The public may have a negative perception of developing countries. This may be brought about by being less familiar with what these countries offer, furthering the idea that developing destinations are dangerous or risky to travel to. Moreover, developing countries may have strong competitors from more popular developed countries. The public's perception is that these modern countries are already established as substantial tourist destinations. Therefore, any country without these facilities may be negatively perceived by tourists (Hugo & Miller, 2017).

Lepp and Gibson (2003) proposed that terrorism and political turmoil in a destination can influence the tourism industry in the region and neighbouring countries (Yang et al., 2015). This is one of the problems that some countries in the Middle East struggle with. Risk-takers were concerned for friends and relatives who are not there and the role of political opinions. The former reflects the great concern for those who travel to risky destination or under travel alert (Fuchs et al., 2013; Klar, Zakay, & Sharvit, 2002; Noy & Kohn, 2010).

Table 2.2 provides a review of sixteen studies, which are mostly empirical investigations of risky destinations. This table attempts to provide a risk profile of this kind of destination along with its research methodology. Lovelock (2004) mentions examples of

risky destinations in his study. Colombia, Nigeria, and North Korea do not attract a lot of press coverage on violence, yet they are all connected with significant political issues. Colombia is associated with corruption and drugs, while Nigeria is associated with ethnic violence and corruption, and North Korea is a totalitarian state. Sudan is another risky destination listed in his study, as it is associated with Islamic fundamentalism and is a suspected refuge for terrorists. He also cites the Solomon Islands and Zimbabwe as risky to travellers.

Hugo and Miller (2017) mention Jamaica as a risky destination. They believe that the flow in media coverage concerning the Zika virus endangers its destination image and has led to a drop in tourism revenue and foreign travellers. They also refer to international reports of its high rates of violent crime and harassment. Media coverage has given Jamaica a reputation as an unsafe country, creating the perception of Jamaica as a dangerous destination. This has led to its tourism industry suffering from bad publicity. Yang et al.'s (2015) study is about tourists' RP toward Sabah's eastern coast of Malaysia, which has only recently been recognised for its risky status. In previous studies, Japan is another example of a risky destination. Although Japan has commonly been perceived as safe, this view has altered since the Fukushima Disaster of 2011. This change occurred due to the spread of a prevalent negative image resulting from related risky incidents. Therefore, tourist arrivals experienced a major drop of 50% after the disaster. Tourists were afraid of earthquakes, tsunamis, and radiation exposure (Chew & Jahari, 2014).

Some studies mention Africa as an example of having a negative image, limiting its tourism (Kozak et al., 2007; Lepp et al., 2011). Aspects associated with perceived risks in Africa's tourism include political and social instability, poor governance, war, terrorism, crime, health, unfriendly hosts, cultural and language barriers, primitive conditions, economic concerns (e.g., currency instability), and continuous and baseless rumours, such as the myth of Africa as being a single wild jungle (Carter, 1998; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998).

Lawson and Thyne (2001) believe that these risks construct a generally accepted negative image that is applied to the entire African continent without any consideration for national or regional variability. This prevalent negative image discourages many types of tourists from travelling there. Africa faces competitive disadvantages related to a risky image (Lepp et al., 2011). These images of Africa may be organic, derived from popular media

sources, which portray Africa in a negative light. Most westerners' images of Africa are fundamentally based on risk factors (Carter, 1998).

In this regard, Lepp et al.'s (2011) study demonstrates that participants perceived Uganda to be risky, too, in spite of knowing very little about it. Its organic image is affected by RP (poverty, disease, war, and civil unrest) that closely simulates negative images of Africa. This indicates people's tendency to apply sweeping generalisations to the whole African continent without any identification of national or regional variability (Carter, 1998; Lawson & Thyne, 2001). This exemplifies Enders, Sandler, and Parise's (1992) idea of generalisation influence, whereby individuals ascribe risk to a wide region instead of a localised area.

In order to implement successful strategies to attract tourists to risky destinations, an understanding of these perceived risks and their influences on the destination's image is required (Chew & Jahari, 2014). Destinations regarded as risky, such as those in Africa, should understand and manage these perceptions. Because these perceptions will discourage numerous tourists from travelling there (Lepp et al., 2011). Risky destinations should be marketed or promoted during and after crises. For example, when Salford in the UK took its first steps to becoming a tourism destination, its initial goal was to kick-start tourist awareness of this unfamiliar destination.

During the 1990s, for instance, Colombia suffered from its negative image as an international centre for drugs and crime. To stamp out these perceptions, Colombia applied the strategy of "ridicule the stereotype," launching a YouTube marketing campaign in the early 2000s. The video persuades its viewers to "take the risk to enjoy its people's kindness and hospitality, their customs, their food, their passion, and their beautiful women; after all of these risks, you will know that everything you heard about Colombia must be happening in the Columbia [of the movies]" (Avraham & Ketter, 2015, p. 343).

Destinations may be perceived as risky due of crime, natural disasters, and terrorism (Chew & Jahari, 2014; Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009; S. Wang, Wang, Li, & Zhou, 2020), war, political instability, and violence. The presence of terrorist threats in one country is even likely to make tourists assume that an entire region is risky (Seabra, Reis, & Abrantes, 2020; Sönmez, 1998) (Table 2.2).

Table 2.2. Previous Studies on Risky Destination

Author (year) Journal	Country/ region	Type of Risk	Why Risky Destination	Type of Tourist	Purpose of research	Sample size	Methodology
1- Carter (1998)	Africa and Asia	Crime (robbery, drugs, commercial sex or poverty), illness (esp. infectious diseases), lack of social stability	1.unfamiliarity: Social construction of geographical regions 2. historical and economic context 3. cultural artefacts and travellers own meanings and behaviours 4. a sense of place vs travellers 'home' 5. travellers' alienation feelings which is a source of excitement or fear and evasion 6. type of risk based on the formation of groups	international leisure and business travellers	Study Tourists' belief and ideas	24 persons	in-depth semi-structured interviews and travel advice in guidebooks (include: Lonely Planet (to Africa and East Africa); Rough Guide (to Thailand) and Lets Go (to Southeast Asia).
2- Lovelock (2004)	Iraq, Israel, Pakistan, Zimbabwe, Sudan, Iran, Colombia, Nigeria, Solomon Islands, North Korea	potentially dangerous destinations, unsafe, corruption, drugs, ethnic violence, totalitarian leadership, non-democratically elected governments, bad reputation in media, long history of terrorism and/or war	politically unsustainable destinations	-	attitudes and behaviours of travel agents in New Zealand	136 staff in travel agencies	Chi-Square
3- Fuchs & Reichel (2006)	Israel	human-induced risk, financial, service quality, socio-psychological, natural disaster and car accidents, and	long history of geopolitical and tourist crises, unpleasant and distressing image, adverse developments,	international tourists to Israel	tourist destination risk perception	760 questionnaires	Content analysis and EFA

		food safety problems and weather					
4- Kozak et al. (2007)	North America and Asia, South America, Africa, the Middle East	natural disaster (North America and Asia), infection disease (South America, Africa, the Middle East), terrorist attack (North America)	natural disaster	international travellers from 14 different countries visiting Hong Kong	tendency to travel internationally, Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance index (UAI)	1180 tourists	Chi-square and ANOVA
5- Qi et al. (2009)	China	Personal Safety, Cultural Risk, Socio-psychological Risk and Violence Risk.	Destinations that tourists perceived as risky.	students below 30 years of age, US-born and raised, and enrolled at a university in the US.	relationship between risk perceptions and travel intentions	350 participants	Factor analysis, regression analysis, T-test, ANOVA
6-Aschauer (2010)	Bali, Indonesia; Sinai, Egypt, and Catalonia, Spain	terrorist attacks	crises destinations, unsafe destination	German-speaking countries, Italy, Anglo-American states (i.e. the UK and Australia)	Introduce a model to measure the travellers' characteristics in a perceived unsafe destination. Model includes values, holiday preference, attitudes, perception, and holiday activities	930 tourists	Linear multiple regressions
7- Fuchs & Reichel (2011)	Israel	susceptible destinations inflicted with epidemics like SARS or Swine Flu, natural disasters like Tsunami and earthquakes as well as man-induced threats such as wars, crime, and terror	a highly volatile destination with long history of Tourist crises	international tourists who visited Israel	**Perception and motivation** relationships between first-time vs. repeat visitors in terms of destination risk perceptions, risk reduction strategies, and motivation for a visit.	760 tourists	Discriminant analysis, Cross-tabulations, ANOVA, Chi-square test,
8- Lepp et al. (2011)	Uganda	cultural differences, strange food, primitive people, jungle, dangerous animals, snakes and bugs and vulnerability to terrorism	Lack of a stable economy, good governance, healthy people, good health care facilities, political stability, lack of chaos and modern cities	students at a large US university	**Destination image** images and risks associated with Uganda, the influence of Uganda's official tourism website to induce image change.	278 participants	Experimental design
9- Fuchs et al.	Egypt	Terror attacks	an officially declared	Israeli tourists	Tourists' perceptions,	489 questionnaires	Factor analysis,

(2013)			"dangerous region."		rationalizations, and risk reduction process		ANOVA
10- Chew & Jahari (2014)	Japan	Natural disaster	a significant drop of 50% after the Fukushima Disaster in 2011, for fear of earthquakes, tsunami, and radiation exposure	Malaysian tourists	destination image, perceived risks, revisit intention	255 respondents	CFA, two-stage structural equation modelling (SEM)
11- Yang et al. (2015)	Malaysia (Sabah coast)	Risks of piracy, terrorism, and kidnapping	Has Risk image covered in numerous travel advisories and mass media,	Adventure tourists	Perception, factors influence risk perception	399 participants	PLS-SEM
12- Nugraha et al. (2016)	Indonesia	Natural and man-made disaster	Has an unfavourable country image, high-risk country destination because of various incidents – such as the Bali bombings, aeroplane crashes, and the Aceh tsunami	leisure and medical Australian tourists	Visit intention, decision-making, prior experience	511 respondents	ANOVA, t-test
13- Sarman et al. (2016)	Southeast Asia	Physical risk includes terrorist attacks, outbreaks of diseases/ epidemics, natural disasters, and political unrest.	life-threatening events	university students currently living and studying in Switzerland	Decision making	298 participants	Experiment design
14- Hugo & Miller (2017)	Jamaica	Health risk	Zika virus threat	Potential tourists	recovers from negative destination image	-	Literature review
15- Isaac & Velden (2018)	Turkey	political instability, terrorism, unsafe,	destination in crisis	German tourists	Travel Intention to a risky destination	305 participants	Descriptive analysis
16- Syafganti & Walrave (2019)	Indonesia	disease, terrorism, and natural disaster	perceived as dangerous and unsafe because of location, Asia is perceived as an exotic but risky	Tourists who visited Indonesia before	impact of the official tourism website of Indonesia, on image, risk, and intention to visit.	37 participants	quasi-experimental method

To sum, based on previous studies, present research indicates that risky destinations are those which are perceived by tourists as being risky to travel due to the following reasons: weak marketing, a geographical proximity to conflict, strained international relationships – especially with the USA – and mass media exposure. Risky countries that fit this definition are the Middle East region, Pakistan, and North Korea.

2.5. Psychology of Tourist Experience

Coelho, Gosling, and Almeida (2018, p. 11) believe that "experiences are subjective, highly personal, and intangible phenomena." The tourist experience is a complicated construct and is inherently personal (Urry, 1990). It comprises everything a tourist will experience at a destination include cognition, emotions, perception, and behaviour (Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018). Thus, comprehending the tourists' viewpoint is essential and "could potentially completely change the way marketers view the consumer and what assumptions they make about them when designing tourism offerings" (Knobloch et al., 2017, p. 653).

Researchers believed that it requires to review and assess the diverse characteristics of tourist experience in order to interpret this phenomenon. The tourist experience developed as a main research issue in the 1960s (Uriely, 2005) and getting popular in the social science literature by the 1970s (Quan & Wang, 2004). Two key researchers at that time were MacCannell (1973) who discussed the tourist experience related to authenticity and Cohen (1979) who explored experience regarding to phenomenology. In the 1990s, researchers commenced applying experience-based research approaches to be able to enhance understanding of the tourist experience. These approaches include tourists' thoughts and feelings expressed in their diaries or by answering the questions. Although, results had a tendency to highlight the dynamic nature of experiences, they provided more insight into the meanings involved (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010).

The tourist experience is considered as a complex psychological process. Providing a concise definition is an arduous task as it can involve a complicated diversity of elements (Selstad, 2007). Tourist experiences are debatably distinctive from everyday experiences

(Cohen, 1979; Vogt, 1976). The act of tourism proposes convoluted emotions, memories, and experiences associated with places (Noy, 2007). This experience of place or self that the individual look for is arguable (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010).

Stamboulis and Skayannis (2003), in their research about on-site experiences, explain the tourist experience as an interplay between tourists and destinations. In this way, destinations are the site of the experience and tourists are the actors of the experience. According to Larsen's (2007) opinion, the tourist experience ought to be considered as a prior travel-related event that was noteworthy sufficient to be stored in long-term memory. O'Dell (2007) conclude some of the arguments that experiences engage more in the tourist experience researches than the tourist.

Tourism industry is part of generating, staging, and consuming of experiences by manipulating place and presenting the culture. Selstad (2007) describes the tourist experience as a combination of novelty and familiarity. He believes it involves the individual detection of identity and self-realization. Although, individuals experience similar activities and situations in distinctive ways (Pine & Gilmore, 1998) the common thing for all descriptions of tourist experience is that it is substantial for the individual (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010; Li, 2000).

Tourism experiences are distinctive from everyday experiences because they can be pure, extraordinary, peak, or cathartic. These robust pleasures are supposed to develop from destination environments, tourism attractions, and activities. They also contain particular meanings related to personal growth and development and are very special, extremely memorable, emotionally charged, and potentially life-altering' (Abrahams, 1986; Jefferies & Lepp, 2012; Kirillova, Lehto, & Cai, 2017; Kirillova & Lehto, 2015; Quan & Wang, 2004).

Theoretically, interest among tourism scholars to examine the psychology behind tourist experiences is growing (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2015). The literature historically highlights the significant psychological benefits of leisure activities. Although, the psychology of tourist experience is only a minor theme in the literature (Ma et al., 2017; Pearce & Packer, 2013). The significance of the subjective meaning of an experience were largely disregarded by previous researches (Knobloch et al., 2017; Uriely, 2005).

Experiences are characterize as distinctive, intangible, continuous, and enormously individual phenomena (O'Dell, 2007). It can be elucidated from two perspectives: the

moment-by-moment lived experiences and the estimated experience. Most tourism research has focused on the interpreted experience, due to the dilemma of assessing the moment-by-moment lived experiences (Kim & Chen, 2019).

Several theories emerge in the psychology of experience. The model of flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975) is one of them. The positive psychology's literature constantly proposes that the flow concept is an optimal physical state linked to high achievement and positive experiences (Filep & Pearce, 2013). Adventure tourists' appeals for a flow experience are a dominant motivation for performing the activity. It is also an example of peak psychological experiences that may affect participants' enjoyment of adventure tourism (Morgan et al., 2005). Tinsley and Tinsley (1986) introduce the theory of attributes. According to this theory, positive and negative leisure experiences offer participants the intense emotion and sensitivity (Morgan et al., 2005). Sthapit (2019) also studies positive psychology to examine the positive emotions enjoyed by tourists according to a broaden-and-build theory.

Consumers' emotions extensively impact the interpretation of their experience (Hosany, Prayag, Deesilatham, Cauševic, & Odeh, 2015). The fact that tourists have dissimilar experiences even when they take part in the same activities, highlights the prominence of meaning and emotions. In the context of tourist experiences, emotions are complex (Knobloch et al., 2017; Robinson, 2012). A substantial body of studies examine the relations between emotions and tourism experiences (Hosany, 2012; Hosany & Gilbert, 2010; Mackenzie & Kerr, 2013; Nawijn, Mitas, Lin, & Kerstetter, 2013; Nicoletta & Servidio, 2012), underlining how "emotional tourist reactions are fundamental determinants of post-consumption behaviours" (Servidio & Ruffolo, 2016, p. 151).

In addition, Morgan et al. (2005) attempt to speak about the "affective quality of the experience." Russell and Pratt (1980, p. 311) describe affect as "emotion expressed in language." They propose a bipolar framework in which all sentimental descriptions are characterized through combinations of the arousal-sleepy and unpleasant-pleasant dimensions. Excitement, for instance, is showed by the mixture of arousing and pleasant. Or tense is illustrated by grouping the arousing with unpleasant. The mixture of sleepy and pleasant presents relaxation.

Some psychological concepts that effect the experience of emotion (e.g., power and identity) are investigated in the tourism literature, however, the concept of emotion receives minimal attention (Jordan et al., 2019). The common approaches used to examine emotions in tourism, for instance, the Consumption Emotion Scale and pleasure-arousal-dominant model (Richins, 1997), cannot elucidate how a tourist's consumption experience result in one special emotional response instead of another (Johnson & Stewart, 2005).

In the tourism context, although tourists take part in the same activity, people have unalike experiences. Several shared elements contribute to customers' experiences, but the personal outcomes of these experiences enormously differ, especially regarding to emotions and personal meaning (Knobloch et al., 2017). Even though, it is obvious that tourist emotional responses to certain tourism experiences vary (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999), the reason why tourists feel a particular emotion is clarified by neither Consumption Emotion Scale and nor the Pleasure-Arousal-Dominant model (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010; Ma, Gao, Scott, & Ding, 2013).

Pearce and Lu (2011) said tourists who travel outside of their own countries could be affected in several ways. On returning home, they might simply be healthier, happier, and more satisfied with their lives and their relationships (Pearce, Filep, & Ross, 2011). A further type of international travel outcome can be recognized as: tourists might obtain new skills and learn about other places, also probably learn about themselves throughout their travel experiences. Several preliminary evidence for traveller learning has been made in researches about Western tourists in various destinations or contexts (Falk & Storksdieck, 2005; Pearce & Foster, 2007; Roggenbuck, Loomis, & Dagostino, 1991)

In adventurous activities, perceived risk provides opportunities for personal challenge and ultimate success, a sense of achievement and pride, and increased confidence (Myers, 2010). Renner and Schwarzer (2005) conclude that RP has a significant influence on outcome expectancy.

2.5.1. Psychological Benefits of Risk-Taking

Risk-taking is a robust story about the self that can take on more value when contrasted to its opposite: the non-adventurer (Elsrud, 2001). Risk-taking touches the inner spirit and is

about self-challenge and self-development. It permits individuals to achieve self-actualisation (Elias & Dunning, 1986; Myers, 2010).

The sentimental quality of the adventure experience is probably a more critical source of assessment for participants than experienced recreationists who join similar activities (Morgan et al., 2005). For example, Berno, Moore, Simmons, and Hart (1996) claim that short-term activities deliver arousal by means of excitement and stimulation (Morgan et al., 2005). An indicator of the nature of adventure in tourist activities are dimensional categories of sentiment. This means that reasons for enjoying an adventure can be due to arousal, the challenge, the physical setting, and a sense of fun. Tourists evaluate their adventure experiences according to features such as the desire for the unknown, for a challenge, risk, nervousness, excitement, pride, new sensations, apprehension, a sense of the surreal, feelings of amazement, and fun (Myers, 2010).

Some researchers propose that risk-inclined persons feel that their lives are boring and limited without risk (Holm et al., 2017). Han and Patterson (2007) provide evidence that risk activity reduces stress, thereby positively impacting an individual's well-being. Allman et al. (2009) recognised three origins for risk-averse portrayal, including self-improvement, emotional engagement, and control. It explains why risk-inclined people see risk as positive and also helps one understand how partaking in those activities lead to subjective well-being.

Holm et al. (2017) claim, based on the literature, that a risk-inclined person might progress through a cyclical process of both positive and negative emotions before, during, and after the activity. Although their research links risk to happiness through positive emotion, such as positivist approaches, it does not connect risk to happiness by negative emotion. The risk-inclined individual might experience happiness through negative emotions after participating in the activity, however, there is no study which has explored how the individual overcomes negative emotion experienced after the activity. This highlights the importance of understanding how negative emotions lead to positive experiences (Knobloch et al., 2017).

A risk tourist might experience negative emotion because the societal perceptions of risky activities are negative. However, they still participate in the risky activity since it makes them happy and adds value to their life. Moreover, greater exposure to risk can lead to illness, injury and other negative outcomes, which eventually detracts from the person's well-being.

Similarly, negative emotions such as fear might be alleviated by a positive emotion, such as excitement, experienced before embarking on the activity (Holm et al., 2017).

Ryan (1995) argues that participants' satisfaction with an adventure tourism experience is partly based on whether their expectations are fulfilled are not. Researchers also mention other influences, which include the outcome of the activity, as well as the participants' recall of affective parts of the experience (Morgan et al., 2005). The satisfaction of overcoming self-doubt leads to self-expression and an inner feeling of intensified happiness, plus emotional fulfilment (Myers, 2010). In their study about nature-based tourism, Wolf et al. (2015) demonstrate that an emotional response occurs after overcoming challenges that are accompanied by risk. Both challenge and struggle are required for healthy development at both the individual and the societal level (Vittersø, Søholt, Hetland, Thoresen, & Røysamb, 2010).

Some tourists even purposely seek out risky activities and destinations (Dickson & Dolnicar, 2004). This is primarily found in tourists whose travel purpose is to partake in adventurous tourist activities. These excitement seekers can be less sensitive to risk (Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005). Lipscombe (1999) found that "participants [who partake in risk activities] have been described as stimulus addicts, sensation seekers, thrill-seekers, action seekers, and edge workers" (p. 268), all of which can generate emotional responses (Holm et al., 2017).

Participating in adventurous activities offers an opportunity for emotional fulfilment, self-perception, and psychological development (Myers, 2010). Risk-taking is an especially robust story about the *self*, which can only be strongly valued when contrasted to something on the opposite end of the scale: the non-adventurer (Elsrud, 2001). Risk-taking touches the inner spirit; it is about self-challenge, self-development, self-actualisation (Myers, 2010), self-discovery, and spiritual enlightenment (Henderson, 1992).

In this regard, researchers have been interested in the experiences of adventurous women, whose construction of risk in risk-taking activities is complex and subjective (Myers, 2010). Green and Singleton (2006) mention that "it is clear that taking a risk can be fun and a desirable aspect of leisure activity, 'risky' behaviour providing a way for young women to negotiate and contest dominant discourses around feminine, cultural identities" (p. 853). Myers (2010) adds that one difference between men and women is that women commonly do

not seek mastery over the outdoor environment. Instead, the inner journey of self-awareness and competence is emphasised (Loeffler, 1997).

Myers (2010) demonstrates that women's confidence improves significantly through risky activities, possibly because many doubt their ability before the activity and believe they will not succeed. She posits that women describe themselves based on their personal adventure experiences, and reports that sometimes women overcome an inner fear, as well as the external fear caused by assumptions or expectations from family, friends and relatives back home. Their doubt in the woman's abilities in turn leads to more self-doubt. The woman considers the advantages of overcoming her personal fears, which include feeling empowered, giving them an informal qualification, a record of achievement, and a wealth of narrative to be retold to others, which therefore reinforces positive experiences and achievements.

Similarly, Morgan et al. (2005) claim that in adventurous activities, if the challenge and inherent risks seem beyond the participant's skills, a successful outcome leads to satisfaction. Here, the experience may be terrifying, but it can offer a sense of achievement for participants. Personal transformation occurs in unknown, awe-inspiring, or challenging places and situations that considerably deviate from people's regular lives (Wolf et al., 2015). Saunders, Laing, and Weiler (2013) conducted interviews and found that the most ordinary transformative themes and feelings of achievement develop when finishing a long-distance walk. In these cases, previous experience, risk perceptions, expectations, levels of competence, affective feelings, sources of enjoyment and achievement are all related to the type of adventure experienced by tourists (Morgan et al., 2005).

The literature also indicates that voluntary risk-taking results in more control over oneself and that risk-takers can feel a sense of accomplishment by participating in this kind of activity (Holm et al., 2017). Similarly, Myers (2010) claims that perceived risks in adventurous activities provide opportunities for personal challenge and, ultimately, success, as well as a sense of achievement and pride, and increased confidence. However, no study in risky destination contexts has investigated the sense of achievement in tourists' experiences.

Wolf et al. (2015) also claim that the sense of achievement amongst interviewees creates a positive effect. They feel happy, satisfied (Gill Pomfret, 2012), and proud to have achieved something they value. Participants are also proud to share their achievements with

others and then try to encourage them to engage in the same experience. In addition, many participants share that they became role models for others, even their families. Therefore, Ross (1997) believes that satisfying a need for achievement is essential in assessing experience (Ryan et al., 2003) (Table 2.3).

Table 2.3. Psychological benefits of risk-taking

Main category	Benefits	Author (year)
Emotional-related benefits	reduces stress	Han & Patterson (2007)
	emotional engagement	Allman et al. (2009)
	Make person happy	Knobloch et al. (2017); Myers (2010); Pomfret (2012)
	affective feelings	Morgan et al. (2005)
	emotional fulfilment	Myers (2010)
	emotional response	Wolf et al. (2015); Holm et al. (2017)
	psychological development	Myers (2010)
	spiritual enlightenment	Henderson (1992)
	Fun	Green & Singleton (2006)
	touch the inner spirit	Myers (2010)
Well-being related benefits	adds value to the overall quality of life	Holm et al. (2017)
	Impact the well-being	Han & Patterson (2007)
	personal transformation	Wolf et al. (2015)
Behaviour-related benefits	control	Allman et al. (2009)
	satisfaction	Ryan (1995), Morgan et al. (2005)
Self-related benefits	a strong story about the self	Elsrud (2001)
	self-perception	Myers (2010);
	self-expression	Myers (2010)
	self-improvement	Allman et al. (2009)
	self-challenge	Myers (2010);
	self-development	Myers (2010);
	self-actualized	Myers (2010);
	self-discovery	Henderson (1992)
	self-awareness	Loeffler (1997); Myers (2010)
	overcome self-doubt	Myers (2010)
	Improve confidence	Myers (2010)
Relational benefits	negotiate and contest dominant discourses overcome an inner fear of others doubt	Green & Singleton (2006) Myers (2010)
	empowered the person	Myers (2010)
	give a person an informal qualification	Myers (2010)
	a wealth of narrative to be retold to others	Myers (2010)
	become role models for others	Ryan et al. (2003)
Achievement-related benefits	reinforce positive experiences and achievements	Myers (2010)
	Sense of achievement	Morgan et al. (2005); Myers (2010); Saunders et al. (2003); Holm et al. (2017); Wolf et al. (2015)
	mastery	Loeffler (1997); Myers (2010)

Based on Table 2.3, one of the psychological benefits of risk-taking is having an achievement. Tourism and hospitality researchers usually use the term “sense of achievement” in their studies. In the next section, an overview of their opinions related to its definitions and functions has been provided.

2.5.2. Sense of Achievement

Although happiness is not without its pitfalls, every tiny achievement is an inspiration, which keeps people on track and affirms that life is worth living. Therefore, many people may believe that fulfilling experiences can make life worth living. These experiences are characterised by feelings of joy and pleasure, positive relationships, and a sense of meaning, engagement, and achievement. Here, a sense of achievement can be considered as one of the main feelings in life (Filep & Pearce, 2013). In different studies, “achievement” is used interchangeably with accomplishment, mastery, or autonomy (Seligman, 2011; Wolf et al., 2015).

Prayag, Khoo-Lattimore, and Sitruk (2015) warn that tourism researchers should avoid relying on oversimplified categorisations of emotions as negative versus positive (Knobloch et al., 2017). Munt (1994) asserts that travelling has developed into an informal qualification, where one’s passport acts as a kind of professional qualification and a record of achievement and experience. Sirgy, Kruger, Lee, and Yu (2011) claim that leisure activities involve a sense of mastery. Ross (1997) believes that satisfying a need for achievement is an essential component in assessing experience. Wolf et al. (2015) claim that obtaining a sense of achievement from mastering a challenge which has positive implications for the person’s life beyond the journey, is beneficial for the value of tourist experiences at Australian national parks.

Ryan et al. (2003) also interpreted the answers they recorded of “never thought I could do it” or “overcoming a fear” as a sense of achievement. In their study, participants believed that regular practice helped them master a challenge, leading them to experience a stronger sense of achievement. Moreover, they named mastering a challenge as a major incentive for tourists to participate in adventurous activities. When they complete an activity, they experience the greatest sense of achievement.

Knobloch et al. (2017) also conclude that overcoming difficulties in adventurous activities resulted in a sense of achievement upon completion. In their research, tourists frequently stated feelings of achievement and awe. The former was caused by having mastered a challenge or overcoming a fear, and the latter happened at a more profound emotional level than simple hedonistic enjoyment. They believe it will leave lasting impressions for tourists. Morgan et al.'s (2005) study on the experiences of adventure tourists explores how expectations and experiences of adventure activities connect to risk perceptions and competence. They also investigated how these perceptions link to achievement and enjoyment. They concluded that no matter how tourists perceived risk and competence, they had feelings of enjoyment and achievement.

In sum, tourism studies examine the sense of achievement from different perspectives, such as need (Murray, 1938), benefits and motivation (Pearce, 1991; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000; Wolf et al., 2015), well-being (Filep & Pearce, 2013; Seligman, 2011; Wolf et al., 2015), fulfilment, personal development (Wolf et al., 2015), eudaimonic rewards/orientation (Matteucci & Filep, 2017), and pride (Tracy & Robins, 2007). Researchers in the field of education also point to the CVTAE (Pekrun, 2000) to examine achievement as an important emotion in achievement settings.

Laing and Frost (2017) claim that adventure experiences involve learning new skills or more fully understanding something. Wolf et al. (2015) also believe that a sense of achievement is a component of personal growth, in order to find more profound meaning in life and personal growth, as well as learning about, reconnecting, and doing something for oneself. As mentioned in the previous section, different studies used "achievement" interchangeably with accomplishment and mastery or autonomy (Seligman, 2011; Wolf et al., 2015). It may involve learning new skills or understanding something more comprehensively (Laing & Frost, 2017). In the field of tourism, scholars have emphasised the connection between learning and achievement implicitly.

2.5.3. Tourism & Learning

Travelling is recognised as a form of non-vocational learning in a cumulative way (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000; Kim & Chen, 2019; Werry, 2008). However, researchers have emphasised that learning is a fundamental yet neglected area of travel

research. They claim that holidaymakers will mainly explore for personal development, transformative experiences, and cultural engagement (Lichy & McLeay, 2018). Learning is a highly complicated process, containing numerous counter-intuitive components and activities (Falk et al., 2012). Falk (2005) describes learning as a cumulative, joint process of knowledge attainment and construction within social and cultural contexts (Kachel & Jennings, 2010). Regardless of a focus on learning through formal education systems, learning is a continuous process that happens in varied contexts throughout an individual's life (Falk & Dierking, 2000; Van Winkle & Lagay, 2012). For this reason, it has been discussed as a lifelong process (Mitchell, 1998; Stone & Petrick, 2013).

Lifelong learning refers to all activities throughout a person's life. It is typically divided into three components: informal, formal, and non-formal learning. Travel offers one of the most observable contexts in which lifelong learning frameworks may be employed (Falk et al., 2012). Learning throughout the lifespan happens in distinct contexts, and travel represents a unique learning environment, enabling both planned and unplanned opportunities (Van Winkle & Lagay, 2012).

The majority of the average person's education is the unplanned, unorganised learning in our daily lives (Arsenault & Anderson, 1998). Learning, education, and schooling do not represent similar processes, however they are commonly used synonymously. Learning is a biological process with profound evolutionary bases. All animals are actively involved in learning, particularly primates such as humans. Education is the process by which other individuals assist in learning. A growing number of research shows that nowadays the majority of learning happens outside of schools, universities, and other places of formal education (Falk & Dierking, 2000). Over the past three decades, the proportion of the public's learning arising from self-directed experiences – on the internet or leisure experiences – has grown exponentially. The vast majority of this non-school-based learning belongs to free-choice learning (Falk et al., 2012; Falk & Dierking, 2000).

Taking into account cross-cultural variability, Roggenbuck et al. (1991) identified key influences shaping leisure learning. In their work, they defined an individual's personality, social expectations, and physical learning setting, and the amount of interpretation in the setting as influencing the likely amount of learning. Roggenbuck et al. then suggested that seven outcomes result from leisure involvements: information (factual) learning, concept learning, schemata learning, metacognition learning, behaviour change and skill learning,

direct visual memory, and attitude and value learning. This approach offers a wide framework that enables researchers to take into account the types of learning that might also be possible in tourism settings. There is a newer approach to learning in several tourism locations, especially those described by the term 'free-choice settings.' Fundamentally, they are environments in which the participant is not forced to focus on or be tested on their learning (Pearce & Lu, 2011).

The opportunities for travel and leisure to advance free-choice learning were mentioned more than two thousand years ago by Cicero, who wrote: "If the soul has food for study and learning, nothing is more delightful than an old age of leisure. Leisure consists of all those virtuous activities by which a man grows morally, intellectually, and spiritually" (Falk et al., 2012, p. 915). Like informal learning, leisure is fundamental to human existence (Arsenault & Anderson, 1998).

Thus, learning is a complicated phenomenon that can be examined from a variety of angles. Definitions of learning are as diverse as the perspectives from which the concept can be investigated, and includes descriptions of learning as a consequence or as an experience (Packer, 2006; Van Winkle & Lagay, 2012). Therefore, looking at the bigger picture, we can divide tourism studies into two main groups: studies that examine learning as *motivation,* and secondly as *experience*.

2.5.3.1. Learning as Tourism Motivation

The origin of travel as education back to the Grand Tour of the 17th to 19th centuries (Ritchie, 2003). In that time, young upper-class British males ventured throughout continental Europe as a form of education. Stone and Petrick (2013) believe that the connection between learning and travel began centuries earlier. Before reviewing the educative advantages of the Grand Tour in detail, Brodsky-Porges (1981) mentioned ancient Chinese and Western philosophers, who stated the benefits of learning from travel. So, learning from places – in particular by appreciating the value of environments for contemplation and spiritual restoration – has been a long-standing theme in the development of Western tourism (Pearce & Lu, 2011).

Understanding different cultures and lifestyles intellectually enrich a traveller. Experiencing customs and traditions was essential in broadening a learner's intellectual

horizon (Pawaskar, Mekoth, & Thomson, 2020). Pearce and Lu (2011) emphasise that travel acted as an educational rite of passage, and usually is referenced in tourism sources as a historical influence on both modern education and travel.

Learning about other places is a major non-material benefit (Pearce & Lu, 2011; Prentice, Witt, & Wydenbach, 1994). Furthermore, as well as being a consequence of travelling, education can also motivate travel. Crompton (1979) and Shoemaker (1994) recognised education and learning as being motivators to travel. However, learning and education are implicit in other travel motivations (Stone & Petrick, 2013). Tourists pursue opportunities for fun learning experiences that develop their involvement with what they are learning about (Van Winkle & Lagay, 2012).

Tourists are not persuaded to travel in order to achieve 'satisfaction', but rather to escape, learn, relax, etc. (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010). Similarly, McKercher and Du Cros (2003) believe that having a pleasant experience improves visitor satisfaction and, similarly significant, generates direct or indirect chances for learning. So, motives for travel were classified into escape motive, exploration motive, and learning motive (Pawaskar et al., 2020). Learning is a well-documented motivation for tourism (Crompton, 1979). A desire to learn influences where individuals go and what they do during their trip (Huang & Liu, 2018; Kolb, 1984; Lichy & McLeay, 2018; Pawaskar et al., 2020; Prentice, Guerin, & McGugan, 1998; Stone & Petrick, 2013; Van Winkle & Lagay, 2012).

Learning and experiencing cultural aspects of a destination is one motive for travelling (Backman, Backman, Uysal, & Sunshine, 1995). Many people travel to understand lifestyles of people from different cultures. Goeldner, Ritchie, and MacIntosh (2000) highlighted its importance by showing that tourists are mostly motivated by the desire to learn and be educated about their destination through festivals and events (Pawaskar et al., 2020). This is not limited to any one type of tourism; Crompton (1979) claims that learning has long been identified as a motivation for pleasure travel. This means that tourists desire to learn from their travel experiences by communicating with local people, experiencing diverse landscapes or learning a new language (Liu et al., 2019; Tung & Ritchie, 2011).

Tourists desire distinctive experiences or new activities from their daily life, which include learning and having exciting experiences (Shukri, 2017; Quan & Wang, 2004). Previous studies have proposed that tourists pursue experiences that allow them to engage with and learn from nature, referred to as agritourism attractions. In agritourism, tourists visit

an agricultural area, such as a ranch or farm, for recreation, leisure and educational activities (Liu, Lin, & Wang, 2012; Suhartanto et al., 2020).

Pearce and Lu (2011) believe it is up for debate whether incidental learning – partially or not – is a key procedure in international travel. It might be amongst a number of other motives, such as sightseeing and interacting with locals. The discussion of incidental learning also allows for the possibility that tourists may acquire new insights without intentionally setting out to do so. Therefore, a lot of research on tourist motivation offers a beneficial basic principle for investigating the significance of learning as part of travel experience (Falk et al., 2012).

In contrast to other typologies, learning is a prime motivation for experiential learners. They have some similarities with theories developed in the literature of travel and tourism. These theories include Stebbins' (1982) concept of "serious leisure" activities that provide advancement of knowledge and skill, Pine and Gilmore's (1998) education experience realm, and Pearce & Lee's (2005) notion of self-development. Main aspects of learning related to travel – such as Techné (Skill and crafts), Episteme (Scientific knowledge), and Phronesis (Wisdom) – empower personal development (Lichy & McLeay, 2018; Falk et al., 2012).

The motivations of experiential learners can be elucidated by experiential learning theory. This theory illustrates the active and passive elements of how cognition, perception, experience, and behaviour merge to generate learning (Kolb, 1984). It can offer a framework for comprehending and assessing bleisure travel learning due to the crucial aspect of reflection, which is a requirement for experiential learning. Experiential learners possess a life-long desire to learn from "doing" or experiencing, otherwise states learning with and from others (Lichy & McLeay, 2018).

Experiential learning offers a model that shows how people learn by travelling. Dewey (1938), a pioneer in learning through experience, suggested that the knowledge and skill that a person acquires in one place can help them realise and respond to future experiences. In this regard, Shukri (2017) provides an example: they believe that having a novel cuisine experience during a trip can generate learning opportunities amongst tourists who have the 'cultural capital' to investigate different cuisines and try them in the same way as a local would. It is something their family or friends may not experience back home, therefore it becomes a status or prestige motivator for tourists.

Boydell (1976) described experiential learning as “meaningful discovery” (p. 19). It occurs when learners reveal knowledge on their own, by means of perceptual experiences and insight, typically from personal experience (Stone & Petrick, 2013). Kolb’s (1984) experiential learning model for travel indicates that travel might lead to learning, and this learning might inspire more travel. Interestingly, researchers assert that the primary reason for embarking on a travel experience had no effect on whether learning occurs or not (Falk et al., 2012; Stone & Petrick, 2013, 2017).

2.5.3.2. Learning as Tourism Experience

Learning is both a process and a product (Falk et al., 2012), and it can be fun. Researchers believe that broadening our concept of what comprises learning is not enough to re-conceptualise the role of learning in tourism. It needs to overcome the deep-rooted supposition that entertainment and education are contradictory. Werry (2008) believes that one reason could be that “learning is popularly coded as inherent displeasure: it is experienced as a labour, as opposed to leisure, as a discipline rather than liberation” (p. 15). For the tourism provider, delivering services can be a paradox: “How can an attraction conceal its touristic nature and heighten its pedagogical qualities, even while catering to tourist desires (for fun, service, value, ease, predictability, and so on)? How can it be (in that peculiarly autonomous catch-cry) entertaining and informative?” (p. 15).

Vogt (1976) assumes that travel permits a deeper satisfaction of needs by experiencing various environments (physical settings), the competence to develop intense yet transient relationships (social aspects), and the capacity to learn about oneself (self-identity) and the world (knowledge) (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010). It has also been suggested that all travel is educational since it broadens the mind, as people interpret and learn from experiences (Casella, 1997; LaTorre, 2011; Steves, 2009; Stone & Petrick, 2013). In this regard, Van Winkle and Lagay (2012) begin their article with a quote from Pico Iyer (2006), a famous travel writer: “In some ways; I think travel is about learning how to see, learning how to pay attention.”

Travelling is perceived as a type of non-vocational learning in a cumulative way (Bransford et al., 2000; Kim & Chen, 2019; Werry, 2008). Travel itself can be observed as an educational experience, which offers people travelling to other countries the chance to learn

about their cultures, and maybe perform and use skills learned in a distinct environment (Sie, Phelan, & Pegg, 2018). Clearly, learning opportunities can be created from experiences (McKercher & Du Cros, 2003).

Learning via travel is sometimes deliberate and premeditated, however occasionally, it might be an unintentional consequence of a travel experience (Falk et al., 2012; Mitchell, 1998). In some leisure and tourism situations, individuals involve in learning experiences, not for any instrumental purpose, but rather because they enjoy and value the process of learning itself. Thus, learning experiences can be perceived as inherently worthwhile, as the experience itself is its own recompense (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Falk et al., 2012; Packer, 2006).

Werry (2008) discussed that travel proposes one of the limited modern opportunities outside of the education setting where a selected, non-vocational learning about other places, people, and times explicitly takes place (Falk et al., 2012). Opportunities to learn while travelling are abundant and comprise both unplanned and planned ones. Travel experiences range from communicating with locals at a restaurant, to participating in an interpretive tour of a historic site, which offers countless and unmatched learning opportunities for tourists (McKercher & Du Cros, 2003; Van Winkle & Lagay, 2012). Consumer learning comes in the form of newly obtained practical skills and wisdom, knowledge, and self-consciousness (Ballantyne, Packer, & Falk, 2011; Chen, Bao, & Huang, 2014).

Learning is highly affected by our internal interpretation of prior experiences, but also by the outside world. The outside world includes two significant elements: the outside world as dictated and interpreted by other people in our lives (Gutiérrez & Rogoff, 2003); and secondly that of the sights, sounds, tastes and sensation of the world as perceived directly by our senses, formed by the process of evolution (Barkow, Cosmides, & Tooby, 1995) as well as our personal-social history. Tourism experiences provide a huge variety of new and distinct sights, sounds, tastes; they provide sensations and revelations of diverse human cultures. It is not unexpected that learning has be developed as a fundamental and fulfilling part of the tourist experience (Falk et al., 2012).

Past research that explores the experience of learning while travelling has mostly assessed learning in specific contexts such as museums and other interpretive sites (e.g., zoos, historical sites), or in particular tourist activities, such as backpacking. They explored the experience of learning, instead of inputs or consequences. Therefore, they usually placed

emphasis either on a special learning sites (e.g., museum, heritage site, zoo) (Falk & Dierking, 2000; Packer, 2006; Prentice et al., 1998) or type of tourist (e.g., backpackers, cultural tourists, seniors) (McKercher, 2002; Pearce & Foster, 2007). They seldom examined the learning experience in the larger context of tourism, regardless of settings or tourist types. Van Winkle and Lagay (2012) explored the experience of learning in the broader context of tourism. They pointed out that past tourism research conceptualised "learning" as a result of learning something rather than as an experience (Ballantyne et al., 2011; Packer, 2006; Van Winkle & Lagay, 2012).

Experiences provide tourists with the benefits of escapism, entertainment, socialising, fantasies, feelings, fun, and learning in a destination (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982). Knowledge is the cognitive side of the tourist experience, which comprises education and learning. Some researchers believe that all types of tourism contain experiential learning, as it broadens our understanding of people and places (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010; Li, 2000; Smith & Jenner, 1997). Suhartanto et al. (2020) report in their study that amongst the elements of tourist experience, learning and uniqueness have the greatest influence on tourist motivation, satisfaction, and loyalty.

Cutler and Carmichael (2010) claim that most research related to learning in tourism are studies on field trips and their educational value (Ritchie, Carr, & Cooper, 2003). Numerous studies have recognised the particular skill and learning consequences associated with fieldwork and travel experience. By integrating the results from the literature sources, four principal groups of learning and skill development in tourist experiences arise:

- Cognitive Development: discovery of knowledge and mental skills.
- Affective Development: discovery of feelings or emotional responses.
- Psychomotor Development: discovery of manual or physical skills.
- Personal Development: discovery of self.

One can conclude from this that it is unclear whether these features are particularly pursued by tourists or are merely a result of experiences – or even a combination of both (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010). The cognitive dimension of experience comprises thinking, reflection, understanding or sense-making, knowledge acquisition, and learning (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997; Volo, 2009). Cognitive dimension has been proven to be essential for all

tourist experiences, since they all engage in experiential learning (Ballantyne et al., 2011; Cutler & Carmichael, 2010; Richards, King, & Yeung, 2020).

Van Winkle and Lagay (2012) introduce six qualities of the tourism learning experience. These include contrast, freedom and flexibility, fun and engagement, authentication, reflection, and exploration. They emphasise freedom as a vital quality of learning while in tourist mode. Learning from travelling was explained as exploring oneself, relationships, places, and the lifestyles and value of others. In the tourism context, learning through experience is beneficial for self-improvement (Liu et al., 2019). Holiday travel was categorised as a type of learning about the self, a journey of self-discovery instead of self-recovery. Travel influences are primarily self-centred, generating changes that offer opportunities for personal growth. Interactions with the 'other' mainly influence experiences leading to these changes (Alexander, Bakir, & Wickens, 2010). Travellers have also been found to gain life skills and substantial knowledge from independent travel (Stone & Petrick, 2017).

Therefore, tourism literature highlights that learning is important; it happens more often than we realize. However, it may not necessarily apply to all tourist experiences. Some studies discuss the role of a learning experience in adventure or risk tourism. Stone and Petrick (2013) assert that outdoor touristic and adventure activities have also led to learning experiences. Learning skills and safety competence is a well-integrated element of adventure tourism. Tourists perceive learning during an adventure tour to be valuable (Arnould & Price, 1993). Thus, research has shown that learning was an essential part of generating value on both backcountry skiing and mountain biking tours (Rokenes, Schumann, & Rose, 2015). There are also segments of adventure tourism where the key goal is learning, for instance: mountaineering, climbing, or rafting (Curtin, 2009; Lugosi & Bray, 2008; Pomfret, 2006). Another learning goal can be associated with tourists' identity construction, where they learn about language, cultural codes, and behaviour within subcultures like mountaineering (Celsi, Rose, & Leigh, 1993; Pomfret, 2006). Pearce and Foster (2007) used the term "learning achievements" for the experience of backpackers.

As mentioned before, risky destinations can be considered risk-taking in tourism and a sub-segment of adventure tourism (Holm et al., 2017). This study conceptualizes risky destinations that tourists perceive as being risky to travel to due to the following reasons: weak marketing, geographical proximity to conflict, strained international relationships –

especially with the USA – and mass media exposure. As discussed, different factors can form a destination as risky such as level of culture's knowledge (Marinelli, 1993), degree of familiarity (Chaulagain et al., 2019), social distance and stereotypes (Lepp et al., 2011), media (Floyd et al., 2004), etc. Therefore, learning is likely to happen in visiting risky destinations.

Based on prior research on various sites and tourist groups, Cutler and Carmichael (2010) claim that the tourist experience contains numerous elements, yet few researchers have made an effort to analyse these elements as a whole (Ryan, 2003). One element is emotional responses that arise from the learning experience. In Van Winkle and Lagay's (2012) study, tourists mentioned a diversity of learning outcomes. Some pointed out their knowledge acquisition (as a cognitive element of learning), whereas others highlighted the affective qualities of learning. The study concluded that emotional reflection after a tourism experience played an essential role in the general learning experience. Ballantyne et al. (2011) also understood that reflective engagement (including both emotional and cognitive processing) was involved in both short-term and long-term learning consequences.

Similarly, Falk et al. (2012) claim that neuroscientific research has verified that extensive learning happens passively and unconsciously, besides it is frequently affected by emotion. Alongside the other researchers mentioned, Simonton and Garn (2019) claim that the interpretation of experiences can be enriched by exploring a variety of appropriately described and assessed emotions. For all travel experiences, being open to new things and learning from them can have a substantial mental and emotional influence (Liu et al., 2019; Roberson, 2018). Appraisal theories can help understand what arouses emotion and its influence on consequence behaviour.

2.5.4. Cognitive Appraisal Theory

The term emotion refers to the particular and short-lived affective reactions in the human mind, body, and behaviour with respect to certain stimuli (Li, Scott, & Walters, 2015). Emotions are commonly differentiated from other affective concepts, such as moods or trait affect, in that emotions essentially concern a special stimulus. Otherwise stated, emotions are constantly about something instead of coming and going and lacking an apparent logic (Bergs et al., 2020). There are many theoretical viewpoints on emotions in the literature, each of

which has specific notions about how emotions arise (Gross & Barrett, 2011). However, an appraisal perspective is a primary approach that describes the variability in peoples' emotional responses in undistinguishable situations caused by different assessments of the situation.

The origins of appraisal theories can be traced back to the 1960s (Hosany 2012). Cognitive Appraisal Theory (CAT, Arnold, 1960; Lazarus, 1991; Bagozzi et al., 1999) suggests that an individual's reaction to an event follows a set cognition-emotion-behaviour sequence (Breitsohl & Garrod, 2016) (Figure 2.1). In explaining the causes of feelings, CAT has been most dominantly discussed in the literature. According to CAT, the derivation of emotion is the outcome of a subjective rather than an objective evaluation (Ma et al., 2017). Emotions are determined by how individuals interpret an event, instead of the event itself arousing affective responses (Roseman et al., 1990; Wang et al., 2018). CAT suggests that customers' emotional and behavioural responses are linked to an appraisal of the event eliciting emotional responses (Hosany, 2012; Shuqair et al., 2019). Then, appraisals of stimuli cause emotions, which further lead to action tendencies (Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, 1991; Yih et al., 2018; Sudhir et al., 2019).

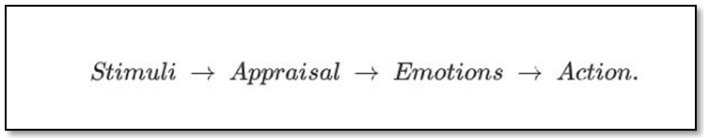


Figure 2.1. Cognitive Appraisal Theory (Arnold, 1960)

CAT emphasizes that specific events or physical circumstances do not produce emotions; instead, the unique psychological appraisal by the individual will evaluate and interpret the situations and events (Bagozzi et al., 1999). Therefore, CAT can differentiate emotions and provide more information, for instance, why two persons with dissimilar appraisals of the same circumstance will have distinctive emotional experiences (Roseman, 1991). It shows that appraisal aspects are fundamental parts of emotions. Moreover, appraisal theories determine appraisal dimensions that differentiate discrete emotions and demonstrate their variance through dimensions and related appraisal patterns (Scherer, 1997; Skavronskaya et al., 2017).

According to CAT, individuals appraise (evaluate) a stimulus, resulting in the elicitation of negative or positive emotions (Lazarus, 1991; Kang et al., 2010). Several appraisals are

introduced by researchers to be applied in CAT. The following are some of them. Goal congruence refers to a situation's consistency with desire (Lazarus, 1991). Goal relevance is concerned with whether the encountered event is relevant to the individual and if they have any personal stake in the outcome. In other words, it includes goal importance and goal interest (Lazarus, 1991). Goal significance includes the level of goal realization, goal relevance, and aspects of novelty (Scherer et al., 2001). Novelty determinant argues that how individuals feel is determined by whether the event experienced deviated from their expectations. Probability refers to the certainty of an event's occurrence (Roseman, 1991). Outcome desirability refers to the evaluation of the relationship between a person and environment (Lazarus, 1991) of whether an outcome is positive or negative. Fairness represents the degree to which individuals perceive the event to be morally appropriate (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Certainty represents how certain individuals perceive a specific event to occur (Roseman, 1984). Pleasantness refers to the individual's appraisal of the event's consequence to see whether it is positive or negative (good or bad) concerning personal outcomes. Coping potential refers to an individual's perceived ability to manage or change a situation (Watson & Spence, 2007).

Scholars provide some examples of association between appraisals and emotions. For example, for goal congruent and emotions, if a circumstance is in line with personal desires, it is congruent; therefore, it is likely to cause positive emotions. Alternatively, if a situation is inconsistent with personal desires, it is incongruent and typically yields negative emotions (Kang et al., 2010). Or about fairness and emotions, studies showed that positive rather than negative feelings are aroused when the event is perceived to be fair. In contrast, negative emotions are elicited when the event is considered unfair (Wang et al., 2018, Zheng et al., 2019a). To be more precise on emotions, empirical research in customer and tourist contexts confirms that emotions such as happiness and anger may be elicited by a high degree of certainty, whereas emotions such as anxiety or surprise are associated with a low degree of certainty (Ruth et al., 2002; Zheng et al., 2019a). Or hope and fear are evoked when the level of certainty concerning future events is low (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985).

2.5.5. Development of Appraisal Theories in Tourism Literature

Previous consumer behaviour research suggests that CAT is the predominant theory in recognizing the antecedents of consumer's emotions and their impacts on post-consumption

assessments and interpretations (Bagozzi et al., 1999; Johnson & Stewart 2005; Choi & Choi 2019; Watson & Spence 2007). During recent years, several tourism studies applied CAT theory to investigate tourists' emotions (Table 2.4). They demonstrate the flexibility of the CAT theory. A wide range of variables was used for each component—stimuli, appraisal, emotion, and behaviour. Usually, according to the nature of each component, researchers consider the appropriate variables. For instance, Chen & Phou's (2013) study is about destination branding. They consider destination image and destination personality as appraisals, satisfaction, trust, and attachment as emotions, and destination loyalty as behaviour. In the following, some of these researches are reviewed:

Hosany (2012), as the initial tourism study on CAT theory, extends the Destination Emotion Scale (DES) developed by Hosany and Gilbert (2010) and recognizes the elements of tourists' emotional responses utilizing CAT. He specifically studied joy because he believes joy is an intrinsic determinant of peak experiences, and it is a significant aspect of tourists' emotional experiences. He found that appraisals of internal self-compatibility, goal congruence, and pleasantness are the dominant contributing factors of joy, love, and positive surprise. This study is the first known attempt to apply appraisal theories in the tourism context to explore the determining factors of tourists' emotional responses to destinations.

Chen and Phou (2013) examine the effects of destination image, destination personality, and destination relationship on tourist behaviours. They utilize Bagozzi's (1992) reformulation of attitude theory to build up their conceptual model. Grounded in a CAT (Lazarus, 1991) and Bagozzi's attitude theory posits that appraisal precipitates emotions that influence an individual's behaviours because it depicts cognitive, appraisal, emotional response, and behaviour as occurring in a sequential process. Then, they consider destination image and destination personality as cognitive knowledge; destination satisfaction, destination trust, and destination attachment as affective outcomes (destination relationship); and destination loyalty as behavioural outcomes.

Ma et al. (2013) test the ability of CAT to explain the antecedents of emotions from tourism experiences in a theme park. Their study's appraisal dimensions include appetitive goal congruence, goal importance, goal interest, and unexpectedness. In addition, they consider delight as an emotion related to hedonic consumption, as the main emotion.

Su and Hsu (2013) employed the CAT and the justice theory from the marketing and tourism perspectives. They attempt to illumine the enclosed impact of tourist experiences on

overall satisfaction and behavioural intentions in a cognitive-affective-behavioural framework. They conclude that service fairness (a cognitive judgment) is an important antecedent to consumption emotions (an affective feeling) and behaviour intentions in the widely recognized cognitive-affective behavioural framework. They also claim that emotions are deemed outcomes of service fairness also antecedents of customer satisfaction and intentions. Based on their findings, positive emotions are more likely to induce loyal customers.

Breitsohl and Garrod (2016) examine individuals' reactions to hypothetic unethical behaviour in a tourism destination using the CAT theory. They used the cognitive dimension of crisis severity, crisis responsibility, and destination image. They specifically consider hostility emotions as emotional responses. Their results show that if the incident is more serious and the ascription of responsibility to agencies is more remarkable, it will be more likely for an individual to evolve hostile emotions about the destination.

Ma et al. (2017) use CAT theory to elucidate why some tourists feel delighted, and others just satisfied, however, they attended the same experiences. Moreover, they clarify the relevant influences of these two consequences on their revisit intentions. According to results, different interpretations of their experience based on specific appraisal dimensions (like the level of goal realization, goal relevance, and novelty) resulted in either delight or satisfaction. The following study was done by Ouyang et al. (2017) addresses the effects of residents' emotional responses on their support toward tourism from a more tacit perspective by targeting the internal appraisal procedure where cognition and emotion interactively establish behaviours.

Skavronskaya et al. (2017) review previous studies in cognitive psychology and claim that the group of appraisal dimensions includes agency, certainty, goal congruence, intensity, and novelty conceptualise the emotion of delight. They also found that these appraisals are predictive in a theme park context. This review touches upon some fundamental concepts in tourism research such as consciousness, prospection and retrospection, attention and schema, memory, feeling, and emotions. They claim that these concepts are crucial in comprehending how can promote tourism destinations or hotels, persuade using narrative, enhance and shape experiences, develop more mindful experiences, and increase memorability.

Choi and Choi (2019) use the CAT theory to explore the elements of consumer's emotional responses toward tourism sites and identify how induced emotions will influence

behaviour in the tourism setting. More precisely, this study supposes that experiential value can perform as a stimulus, and consumers' interpretation of this stimulus positively can result in an emotion of fun which consequently will lead to distinctive on-site behaviour. The proposed scale for fun has four dimensions include emotional spark, flow, psychological zest, and social vigour, in order to measure a comprehensive range of tourist's emotional responses to travel experiences.

Otoo et al. (2019) introduce CAT as their theoretical framework into the tourist harassment discourse to explore the nature and effects of incidents. The theory is set upon the assumption that human emotions are built from appraisals or evaluations of unpleasant events, resulting in specific reactions among different people. In fact, it is a qualitative study that is based on CAT.

Zheng et al.'s (2019a) study is about resident perceptions toward tourism performing art development by means of cognitive appraisal. They study five emotions: happiness, anger, love, gratefulness, and worry. The four appraisals applied are outcome desirability, fairness, certainty, and coping potential. The following study by Zheng et al. (2019b) integrates the CAT and affect theory of social exchange to explore the residents' behaviours toward tourism performing arts development in China. In this study, appraisals include outcome desirability, fairness, and coping potential. Emotions are grouped into positive emotions (happiness, love, gratefulness) and negative emotions (sadness, anger, worry), and their proposed outcome of these emotions was commitment and intention to support or passively object (Table 2.4).

Table 2.4. Previous Studies on Cognitive Appraisal Theory in Tourism Context

Author (year)	Study Setting	Complementary Theory/s	appraisals	emotions	outcome	methodology
Hosany (2012)	British tourists (retrospective evaluation of their experience in a destination)	Destination Emotion Scale (Hosany & Gilbert, 2010)	pleasantness, goal congruence, certainty, novelty, and self-compatibility	joy, love, and positive surprise	n.a.	Canonical correlation analysis
Chen and Phou (2013)	Angkor temple in Colombia	reformulation of attitude theory (Bagozzi, 1992)	Destination image, destination personality	destination satisfaction, destination trust, and destination attachment	destination loyalty	EFA, CFA, structural equational modelling (SEM)
Ma, Gao, Scott, & Ding (2013)	Chinese tourists in theme park	n.a.	appetitive goal congruence, goal importance, goal interest, and unexpectedness	delight	n.a.	SEM
Su and Hsu (2013)	Chinese natural heritage tourism	justice theory	service fairness	Positive emotions (e.g., excited, happy, relaxed)	satisfaction, revisit intention, WOM, search	SEM

				and negative emotions (e.g., angry, bored, annoyed)	for alternatives	
Breitsohl and Garrod (2016)	unethical destination incident	Attribution theory (Weiner, (1985), cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957), self-regulation theory (Higgins, 1997)	crisis severity, crisis responsibility, and destination image	hostility emotions (anger, disgust	negative WOM, avoidance, destination loyalty	SEM
Ma, Scott, Gao, & Ding. (2017)	Theme Park, China	n.a.	appetitive goal congruence, goal importance, goal interest, and, high degree of goal realization, unexpectedness	delight, satisfied	Revisit intention, recommendation	EFA, CFA, Wilcoxon rank-sum analysis method, SEM
Ouyang, Gursoy, & Sharma (2017)	Local Residents in Brazil (2014 FIFA World Cup)	social exchange theory	Perceived benefits, perceived costs	positive emotions (e.g., loving, amazed etc.) negative emotions (e.g., sad, annoyed etc.)	support	multiple regression analysis
Choi and Choi (2019)	Chinese tourists	n.a.	Relevance, congruence,	fun: social vigour, psychological zest, emotional spark, flow	On-the-spot behaviour	SEM
Otoo et al. (2019)	Tourist harassment, Ghana	attribution theory (Weiner, 1985)	Attributes of harassment, attribution of harassment	Emotional response (apathy, anxiety, surprise, frustration, and annoyance)	Coping strategy, destination image, intention to recommend	Qualitative study
Zheng et al. (2019a)	Residents and Tourism Performing Arts Development in China	n.a.	outcome desirability, fairness, certainty, and coping potential	happy, love, grateful, worry	Behavioural Intentions: embrace, tolerance, displacement, withdraw	t-test, ANOVA, canonical correlation analysis
Zheng et al. (2019b)	Residents and Tourism Performing Arts Development in China	affect theory of social exchange (Lawler, 2001)	outcome desirability, fairness, and coping potential	Positive emotions (happiness, hope, gratefulness), negative emotions (sadness, anger, worry)	Commitment, intention to support, intention to passively object	SEM
Shuqair et al. (2019)	Accommodation (Airbnb & hotel)	n.a.	Accommodation provider type, social interaction	positive emotions (happy, delight, joyful, pleased), negative emotions (angry, stressed, upset, furious, nervous, irritated)	Post-failure loyalty	ANCOVA, PROCESS
Jiang (2020)	tourism destinations in Australia	place identity theory	authenticity and employee helpfulness	delight	Positive WOM intention	CFA, SEM

Jiang et al. (2020)	Flight delay	n.a.	goal incongruence, certainty, self-agency, other agency, circumstance agency	negative emotions (worry and anger)	Switching intentions, complaining behaviours, negative WOM	PLS-SEM
Demeter et al. (2021)	Service recovery during natural disaster	n.a.	Service recovery strategies	Negative emotions (disappointed, anger, displeasure, hostility)	Negative WOM, blame attribution	experimental design experiment, ANOVA
Ding & Hung (2021)	Music festival, China	n.a.	skill performance, ambiance, self-congruence, other consumers' passion, consumer-to-consumer interaction	Flow experience	visitors' memory, and behavioural intentions	CFA, SEM
Khoi et al. (2021)	International tourists in Vietnam	n.a.	Tourism inspiration (inspired-by state, and inspired-to state)	Delight, transcendence	Intention to revisit	PLS-SEM
Lee & Lee (2021)	Family tourists in South Korea	n.a.	n.a.	Memorable tourism experiences' emotional factors	Family cohesion	PLS-SEM

As the above tourism studies illustrate, CAT has been well established conceptually and has provided a fundamental understanding of the emotion elicitation process. This process includes the antecedents (e.g., culture, individual beliefs, and experience), appraisals (e.g., pleasantness, goal congruence, certainty, novelty, and self-compatibility), and consequences (e.g., behaviour) of an individual's appraisal. However, later on, educational psychologists applied CAT theory to their field and developed the Control-Value Theory of Achievement Emotions (CVTAE: Pekrun, 2000) to focus on achievement emotions and their main appraisals specifically.

2.6. Control-Value Theory of Achievement Emotions

The control-value theory of achievement emotions (CVTAE: Pekrun, 2000; Pekrun, Frenzel, Goetz, & Perry, 2007; Pekrun, Goetz, Titz, & Perry, 2002a, b) provides a collective framework for examining the antecedents and consequences of emotions experienced in achievement and academic contexts (Pekrun, 2006). This theory demonstrates that a person's subjective estimations of control and value affect their subsequent emotions. Based on cognitive appraisal theory, psychologists define "achievement" as the act of reaching a goal

(American Psychological Association, 2020). In the context of this study, the "goal" is visiting, and consequently, learning about risky destinations.

CVTAE, as an application of CAT theory from psychology in educational psychology, is based on prior theories such as the expectancy-value theories of emotions (Pekrun, 1984, 1992; Turner & Schallert, 2001), theories of perceived control (Patrick et al., 1993; Perry, 1991), transactional theories of stress appraisals and related emotions (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985), attributional theories of achievement emotions (Weiner, 1985), and models about the influences of emotions on performance and learning (Pekrun et al., 2002, 2007; Pekrun, 2006).

It is surprising that emotions in achievement contexts have been overlooked for a long time as an increasing number of researches clearly confirms their significance in learning, academic achievement (e.g., Pekrun et al., 2002), career choices (e.g., Wigfield, Battle, Keller, & Eccles, 2002), and lifelong learning (e.g., Goetz, Zirngibl, Pekrun, & Hall, 2003). Despite these conclusions, research on academic emotions did not obtain ample empirical attention until the early 1990s, not including test anxiety and attributional theory of academic emotions (Weiner, 1985; Bieg et al., 2013).

Nevertheless, achievement emotions have attracted great attention in psychology and education in the past 20 years (Shao et al., 2019). To this end, CVTAE illustrated that two types of appraisals are closely related for achievement emotions: 1. subjective control of achievement activities and their outcomes (e.g., anticipations of being able to study hard and meet with success), and 2. the subjective values of these activities and outcomes (e.g., the perception of success's usefulness) (Pekrun, 2006). CVTAE has four main constructs include learning environment/antecedents, control-value appraisals, discrete achievement emotions, and achievement-related outcomes (Simonton & Garn, 2019).

The heart of the theory is in the suppositions related to the stimulation of achievement emotions. The appraisals of ongoing achievement activities along with their past and future outcomes, are the most important part. In a concise way, when individuals sense being in control of, or out of control of, subjective important achievement activities and their outcomes, they will experience certain achievement emotions. Due to this, the proximal determinants of achievement emotions are the best label for control and value appraisals (Pekrun et al., 2007).

Most studies on achievement emotions focus on emotions associating with achievement outcomes (e.g., emotions are a result of success or failure, Weiner, 1985 or test anxiety, Zeidner, 2007), but CVTAE suggests that emotions around achievement-related activities are likewise recognised to be achievement emotions. More specifically, this theory relates to the diversity and domain of achievement emotions; to distal individual and social antecedents for them, to their influences on engagement and achievement, and the reciprocal connections between emotions, antecedents, and outcomes; to the regulation and advancement of these emotions; and their relative common among cultures and genders (Pekrun, 2006, Pekrun et al., 2007, 2011).

The CVTAE states that "achievement emotions are defined as emotions tied directly to achievement activities or achievement outcomes" (Pekrun, 2006, p. 317). A simple definition for achievement can be the quality of activities or their outcomes which evaluated by some standard of excellence (Heckhausen, 1991). Practically, the majority of emotions relating to students' academic learning and achievement are considered achievement emotions because they associate with behaviours and consequences that are usually assessed by quality standards which are solely defined by students and others (Pekrun et al., 2007).

Emotions present a model for comprehending students' experiences before, during, and after classroom activities (Pekrun, 2006). Achievement emotions are multi-layered procedures that influence students' learning, motivational behaviour, achievement, and connections between their personal experiences and the content they are learning (Frenzel et al., 2007; Linnenbrink-Garcia, Patall & Pekrun, 2016; Simonton & Garn, 2019).

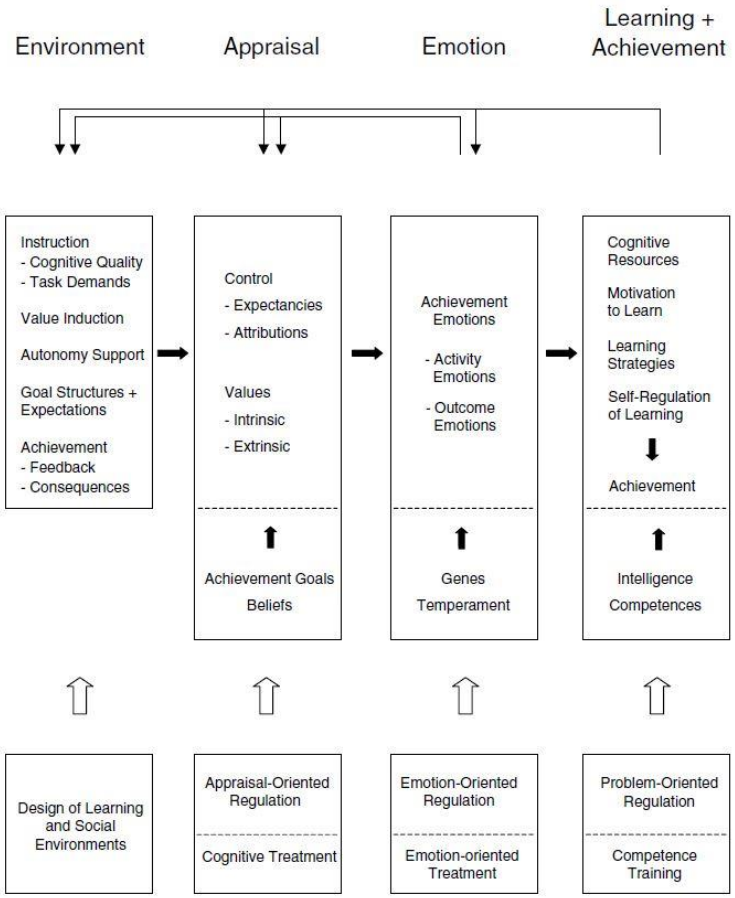
Learning is supposed to be affected by emotions. However, learning and achievement outcomes are amongst the antecedents of students' emotions and appraisals. This suggests that emotions' influences and antecedents are connected by a reciprocal relationship across time and within individuals. Moreover, the association between appraisals and emotions is also perceived to be bi-directional. Appraisals provoke emotions and emotions act upon appraisals through mechanisms of emotion-matching activation of memory networks (Pekrun et al., 2007). Bieg et al.'s (2013) study shows that the relationship between appraisal and emotion are quite comparable in state and trait settings.

Based on CVTAE (Figure 2.2), the learning environment plays a distal antecedent's role in predicting student emotions and represents a proximal influence on control and value appraisals (Pekrun, 2006, 2017; Simonton & Garn, 2019). Control and value appraisals are

suggested to be antecedents of emotions, but emotions can reciprocally influence these appraisals. Likewise, the social environment is presumed to form emotions, but the emotions presented by students affect the social environment inside the classroom. Moreover, emotions are supposed to influence learning and achievement, but successful learning also impacts students' appraisals and emotions. Their individual and social antecedents and their impacts are implicitly connected by reciprocal causation in the long run (Figure 2.2).

Reciprocal causation can be comprised of positive feedback loops (e.g., enjoyment of learning and mastery of learning strengthening each other). Nevertheless, negative feedback loops might also be quite mainstream (e.g., test anxiety-inducing motivation to evade failure on a test followed by success in diminishing test anxiety). The dynamics of feedback loops can happen in a very short time (e.g., reciprocal loops among appraisals and emotions as a performance of multi-directional pathways amongst cortical and subcortical neuronal structures), surrounded by learning episodes over days, weeks, and years (Pekrun, 2006).

Figure 2.2. The control-value theory of achievement emotions (Pekrun, 2006)



The CVTAE offers a consolidative approach for examining different emotions experienced in achievement contexts, comprising academic settings and achievement situations in other life settings (e.g., sports, professional activities) (Pekrun et al., 2011). Achievement emotional experiences can be classified according to numerous theoretical criteria. These categorisation systems signify certain research domains, for example, in areas relating clinical practice, learning and achievement environments, the workplace, and leisure time (Kleine, Goetz, Pekrun, & Hall, 2005).

Several current empirical studies have assessed and presented evidence supporting the theoretical tenets of Pekrun's CVTAE pertaining to the suggested associations between achievement-related appraisals and emotions. As evaluated in situations involving learning activities and achievement outcomes, substantial positive relationships have constantly been noted between perceptions of control and value and positive emotional experiences, on the other hand (e.g., Frenzel et al., 2007; Goetz et al., 2006, 2008; Goetz et al., 2010; Pekrun et al., 2011; Peixoto et al., 2015, 2017; Heckel & Ringeisen, 2019).

The CVTAE is put forward on the basis that the common functional mechanisms of human emotions are particular to worldwide, species-specific features of human mind. On the contrary, specific contents of emotions and certain values of process parameters (e.g., the strength of emotions) might be special to various individuals, genders, and cultures. This presumption indicates that the fundamental structures and causal mechanisms of emotions have typical nomothetic principles though contents, intensity, and duration of emotions may vary (Pekrun et al., 2007).

Different studies on CVTAE have applied numerous variables as learning environment or distal antecedents of achievement emotions such as feedback/prior achievement, task characteristics, instructional resources, treatment, cognitive elaboration, perception of quality, achievement goal orientation, cognitive abilities, effort beliefs, competence belief, autonomy and relatedness satisfaction, gender, social setting, perceived social class, self-construal, parents' attitude, parental expectancy, parental involvement, conditional parental regard, teacher's support and challenge, socio-cultural influences (Frenzel et al., 2007; Artino, 2009, 2010; Artino et al., 2010; Tempelaar et al., 2012; Burić, 2015; Buil et al., 2016; Luo et al., 2016; Hall et al., 2016; Hamm et al., 2017; Peixoto et al., 2017; Yadav & Mishra, 2017; Van

der Beek et al., 2017; Buhr et al., 2019; Goetz et al., 2019; Otterpohl, 2019; Zaccoletti et al., 2020),

They have also tested various variables as outcomes in CVTAE such as intrinsic/extrinsic/continuing motivation, intention to complete, perceived learning, use of learning strategies, effort, distraction, achievement, performance, engagement, exploration of knowledge, competence gain, satisfaction, self-satisfaction (Artino, 2009, 2010; Artino et al., 2010, 2012; Tempelaar et al., 2012; Buil et al., 2016; Luo et al., 2016; Hamm et al., 2017; Yadav & Mishra, 2017; Heckel & Ringeisen, 2019; Hutton et al., 2019; Otterpohl, 2019; Gong & Bergey, 2020; Vogl et al., 2020; Zaccoletti et al., 2020).

Falk and his colleagues assert in their article that learning is represented through a fair number of choice and control over when, where, what, with whom and why one learns (Falk & Dierking, 2000; Falk et al., 2012). They also note that the role of the individual in meaning-making is an essential component of free-choice learning in tourism/leisure. This personal context consists of motivation, expectation, prior knowledge and experience, interest, choice, and control (Van Winkle & Lagay, 2012). Therefore, tourism scholars also implicitly refer to control and value in tourist's learning experience.

Moreover, this study investigates "achievement" in the tourism context through an emotional perspective. The core appraisals for achievement emotions have been introduced and profoundly investigated by CVTAE. Moreover, educational psychologists confirm that control and value appraisals are the fundamental arousals of achievement emotions. Therefore, the goal of studying achievement emotions in the tourism setting and analysing how they aroused and their relationship with the trip outcome, the CVTAE fits more.

There are some theoretical developments from CAT to CVTAE. Firstly, the CVTAE introduced the approved measurement scales for 7 emotions (anger, anxiety, boredom, hopelessness, enjoyment, pride, and shame) as the main achievement emotions in achievement activities or outcomes. Secondly, CVTAE specifically introduces two appraisals as the core arousals for these seven achievement emotions: perceived control and perceived value. Thirdly, CAT mostly talks about whether an appraisal leads to positive or negative emotion but not specifically about the relationship between a certain emotion and a certain appraisal. In other words, there is not a confirmed agreement in the literature with the specific arousal for a specific emotion. In contrast, this is the main argument in CVTAE. Lastly, CVTAE is about achievement setting, which is close to the context of this study, visiting

risky destinations. It is a sub-section of risk-taking in tourism and adventure tourism, as discussed before. One of the psychological benefits of risk-taking is the sense of achievement. Due to the factors which make a destination risky, learning is likely to happen in visiting risky destinations. Thus, this study applies and extends CVTAE from education to tourism context.

2.7. Achievement Emotion

Pekrun (2006, p. 317) define achievement emotions as "emotions tied directly to achievement activities or achievement outcomes." These achievement emotions are critical because of their impact on success and failure in important domains such as learning (Harley et al., 2019). Scholars conceptualise emotions, especially achievement emotions, as state achievement emotions versus trait achievement emotions. The former is related to transient incidents within a specific situation at a particular point of time (e.g., test anxiety before an oral exam) while the latter is defined as habitual, repeated emotions which an individual habitually experienced about achievement activities and outcomes (e.g., trait test anxiety; Pekrun, 2006; Spielberger, Anton, & Bedell, 1976).

In accordance with dynamic systems of the emotions component (Damasio, 2004; Scherer, 1984), CVTAE considers emotions as multi-component, harmonised procedures of psychological subsystems comprising cognitive, motivational, affective, and physiological processes (e.g., feeling tense and uneasy, worrying, wanting to escape in anxiety, and being activated physiologically). Affective processes are supposed to be primary for emotions and physiologically bound to the limbic system's subsystems (Fellous & LeDoux, 2005; Pekrun, 2006).

Pekrun (2006) classify achievement emotions by certain characteristics such as object focus, valence, and activation. *Object* focus refers to the idea that emotions are associated with the result of an educational activity and the process of education itself. For instance, an emotion such as anger after failing an exam is reflected outcome-focused, whereas excitement whilst doing a science research is considered activity-focused. *Valence*, by contrast, refers to whether emotions are positive or negative in which case enjoyment is an instance of positive emotion and anger is an instance of negative emotion. Lastly, *activation* refers to the level of physiological arousal emotions bring about (Pekrun et al., 2004).

Highly activating emotions, such as excitement, increase physical arousal levels, whereas deactivating emotions, such as boredom, tend to decrease arousal (Buhr, Daniels, & Goegan, 2019). There are four main classifications for achievement emotions which are referred to through two dimensions: *positive activating emotions*, like pride and enjoyment; *negative activating emotions*, such as anxiety and anger; *positive deactivating emotions*, like relaxation and relief; and *negative deactivating emotions*, such as hopelessness or boredom (Table 2.5).

Table 2.5. Three-Dimensional Taxonomy of Achievement Emotions

	Positive		**Negative**	
Object focus	**Activating**	**Deactivating**	**Activating**	**Deactivating**
Activity Focus	Enjoyment	Relaxation	Anger Frustration	Boredom
Outcome Focus	Joy Hope Pride Gratitude	Contentment Relief	Anxiety Shame Anger	Sadness Disappointment Hopelessness

Source: Pekrun (2000, 2006)

There are two scales that measure achievement emotions. The first comprehensive instrument for measuring achievement emotion is an achievement emotion questionnaire (AEQ) introduced by Pekrun et al. (2005a). The AEQ has been validated throughout diverse situations, domains, ages, and cultures (Goetz et al., 2007; Frenzel, Thrash, Pekrun, & Goetz, 2007; Pekrun et al., 2002, 2011; Lichtenfeld, Pekrun, Stupnisky, Reiss, & Murayama, 2012; Lee, 2014; Peixoto, Mata1, Monteiro, Sanches, & Pekrun, 2015; Shao et al., 2019).

This instrument contains 24 scales measuring nine different emotions such as enjoyment, hope, pride, relief, anger, anxiety, shame, hopelessness, and boredom across three distinctive academic achievement settings namely attending class, doing homework and studying, and taking tests and exams. The class-related emotion scales include 80 items. In it, it asks students to report how they feel about class-related enjoyment, pride, relief, anger, anxiety, shame, hopelessness, and boredom. The learning-related emotion scales include 75 items where students must report how they feel about studying in terms of the same nine emotions. Lastly, the test-related emotion scales include 77 items. In the same fashion as the

previous settings, students have to tell how they feel about test-related emotions in terms of the aforementioned nine emotions (Pekrun et al., 2005a; Pekrun et al., 2011).

In each section of the AEQ, the items are arranged as three time-blocks to evaluate emotional experiences before, during, and after confronting the particular academic setting. These time blocks include prospective outcome emotions (before), activity emotions (during), and retrospective outcome emotions (after) associated with the target setting. Additionally, items are arranged in line with principles of situation-reaction inventories as it helps respondents access their emotional memories more effectively (Endler & Okada, 1975). Furthermore, this questionnaire uses a 5-point Likert scale (1=completely disagree, 5=completely agree) for each item and participants can complete the entire survey in one session (Pekrun et al., 2005a; Pekrun et al., 2011).

Pekrun and his colleagues included these nine emotions in achievement emotion scale on the basis of the two following criteria. First, they chose emotions that were most reported by students in academic domains. It's important to note that, except for anxiety, these emotions were largely ignored by researchers (Titz, 2001; Pekrun et al., 2002). Second, they selected these emotions to expound the main emotion classifications defined by the three-dimensional taxonomy: activity emotions such as anger, boredom, and enjoyment; prospective outcome emotions such as anxiety and hopelessness; and retrospective outcome emotions such as pride, and shame (Pekrun et al., 2005a, 2011; Shao et al., 2019).

After the AEQ, Pekrun and his colleagues developed a shorter instrument called Achievement Emotion Mathematics (AEQ-M) in which the items were derived from the original Achievement Emotions Questionnaire (AEQ; Pekrun et al., 2005a, 2002). AEQ-M has 60 items assessing seven distinct emotions: anger, anxiety, boredom, enjoyment, hopelessness, pride, and shame. Similar with AEQ, items within AEQ-M scale are related to emotional experiences in three mathematics-setting: attending class, doing homework and studying, and taking tests and exams. Pekrun et al. (2005b) verified the reliability and validity of AEQ-M scale through their results which indicate a sufficient item score variation as well as a robust item-total correlation. Their results also showed a sufficient variation of scale scores for each scale. Additionally, their alpha coefficients implied good reliabilities (Alpha = .84 to .92) (Pekrun et al., 2005b). AEQ-M has also been tested for different subjects in many studies until now (Frenzel et al., 2007; Lichtenfeld et al., 2012; Rosas, 2015; Peixoto et al., 2015, 2017; Moreira et al., 2019, etc.).

As the instruction, the AEQ-M questionnaire requests students to explain their general, typical emotional experiences when they attend class, study, and take tests in mathematics (as trait mathematics emotions). But Pekrun et al. (2005b) highlight that by amending the instruction correspondingly, the instrument can be applied to evaluate students' emotions in a specific point of time (as state emotions). They explain that all items do not have any orientation to temporal sweeping. Therefore, they can be employed under instructions of distinctive temporal and situational settings. In this regard, if researchers intend to assess state emotions after a certain situation, the instruction needs to have a retrospective state format. In addition, for this case, item wordings should be altered from the present or future to the past tense (Pekrun et al., 2005b). They also went on to say that in AEQ-M, each emotion has been considered one scale so that the researcher can focus on each emotion regardless of what situation its item belongs to (e.g., class, homework, test) (Pekrun et al., 2005b; Chen & Brown, 2018).

In conclusion, educational scholars believe that CVTAE can be applied in any learning environment (Kleine et al., 2005; Pekrun et al., 2005, 2011). Furthermore, tourism scholars suppose that travel presents a unique learning environment offering both unplanned and planned opportunities (McKercher & du Cros, 2002; Werry, 2008; Falk et al., 2012; Van Winkle & Lagay, 2012; Van Winkle & Lagay, 2012; Sie et al., 2018). Consequently, CVTAE can be applied to tourism.

Similar to the CVTAE process, Cutler and Carmichael (2010) believe that experiencing a tourism occasion starts prior to the trip through planning and preparing, and then continues even after returning home from the journey via the recollection and interaction of the events (Clawson & Knetsch, 1966). In other words, the tourist experience is everything that takes place throughout a tourist event including pre-site, onsite, after-site. With respect to the importance of emotional memory, tourism scholars determine that a person can forget the exact spot and time of his visit, however, they seldom forget the feelings and emotions experienced during a specific activity (Kim, Ritchie, & Tung, 2010; Lee, 2015). Moreover, learning about the local culture, such as learning about the lifestyle or language of the local people, can considerably add to the tourist's memorable travel experiences (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). For these reasons, tourism scholars have implicitly mentioned a similar experience mechanism to CVTAE.

2.8. Control-Value Appraisal

Appraisal theory can be seen as a theory that provides a useful framework within which the study of social and cultural influences on the emotion process can emerge (Scherer et al., 2001; Manstead & Fischer, 2001). Researchers acknowledge that emotions have social causes and that emotional expressions have social functions (Averill, 1980; Parkinson, 1995). Appraisals have generally been assumed to be the core of the inner emotional experience. Appraisals are thus considered to reflect the meaning of an event for the individual and its implications for their personal well-being hence why they are located outside the realm of the social environment. This does not mean that appraisal theory restricts the study of social and cultural processes, but rather that there has been a tendency in appraisal research to study the operation of appraisal processes at the level of the socially isolated individual (Manstead & Fischer, 2001).

It is significant to investigate appraisal–emotion relationships from an intra-individual standpoint for the sake of understanding how appraisals affect individuals' emotions. In other words, how a person's diverse appraisals are associated to the emotions that he experienced (Bieg et al., 2010). In this regard, CVTAE illustrates a prominent appraisal theory that presents control and value as appraisal antecedents for emotions (Pekrun, 2000, 2006). Scholars believe that subjective control and value are supposed to be intensely essential, required appraisal antecedents (Pekrun et al., 2002a; Pekrun, 2006; Goetz et al., 2010). Pekrun's theory is in harmony with the expectancy-value convention of studies on motivation (e.g., Atkinson, 1964) in that "expectancy and value are assumed to combine in multiplicative ways, implying that both expectancy and value are necessary for a prospective emotion to be instigated" (Pekrun, 2006, p. 320).

Control and value appraisals are dominant stimulators of achievement emotions meaning that achievement emotions arise when the individual feels in control of, or out of control of, activities and outcomes that are subjectively significant for the person. Therefore, scholars consider these control and value appraisals as the proximal determinants of proposed emotions (Pekrun, 2006). Additionally, Goetz et al. (2010) highlight the magnitude of control and value appraisals as essential antecedents of positive emotional experiences either within or outside achievement settings. Control, in this case, refers to the perception of the causal effect that a person has over actions and outcomes (Skinner, 1996); value refers to his

judgment of the subjective value of achievement situations and achievement outcomes (Boehme et al., 2017).

Control Appraisal:

Frenzel et al. (2007) believe control appraisals (i.e., can I do it?) are assessments of a person's ability that embrace the features of success or failure and perceived causality over actions or outcomes. Consequently, students are expected to experience higher levels of control if they have greater appraisals of ability (Parker et al., 2018; Bieg et al., 2013). Positive control appraisals result in positive emotions and continuous levels of attempt and perseverance (Simonton & Garn, 2019). Some researchers believe that control appraisals typically signify a person's beliefs about his ability to foresee and impact his personal life events (Heckhausen, 1977; Bandura, 1989; Skinner 1985, 1996).

The term "subjective control" indicates the perceived causal impact of an agent across actions and outcomes (Skinner, 1996). The essential point for subjective control is the expectancies and attributions of causal associations between an achievement situation, the individual himself, his achievement activities, and results of those activities. Causal expectancies and casual attributions can relate to the similar cause-effect interactions but from distinctive viewpoints. Causal expectancies are prospective cognitions talking about relationships between causes and their upcoming impacts (e.g., the effect of a recent attempt on performance at a forthcoming examination). Alternatively, causal attributions are retrospective cognitions regarding to the foundations of a particular influence (e.g., the foundations of success on a current examination) (Pekrun, 2006).

As mentioned, subjective control of achievement activities and their outcomes are expected to rely upon causal expectancies as well as causal attributions that suggest appraisals of control. Three kinds of causal expectancies are pertinent (Skinner, 1996): first, action-control expectancies mean that an achievement activity can effectively be started and executed ("self-efficacy expectations"; Bandura, 1977); second, action-outcome expectancies mean these actions result in outcomes that the individual desires to reach; and third, situation-outcome expectancies mean these outcomes happen in a particular situation that is free of the individual's action. A student's expectation that he will be capable of investing adequate effort to acquire knowledge is an example for action-control expectancy. An example for action-outcome expectancy could be his expectation of getting a good grade because of his

endeavour; and an instance for situation-outcome expectancy could be his expectation to attain a good grade even though he does not work at all, though it is worth mentioning that normally the latter expectation is minimal in achievement situations. The acquisition of success and avoidance of failure usually depends on an individual's own efforts. As suggested by positive action-control and action-outcome expectancies, the expectations about whether success can be achieved or failure can be avoided require enough perceived internal control over actions and their achievement outcomes (Pekrun et al., 2007, 2011).

In different empirical researches on control perceptions, three main types of examinations have been investigated in the relationship between subjective control and emotional experiences, namely "locus of control" (Lefcourt, 1983; Levenson, 1973; Rotter, 1966), "self-efficacy beliefs" (Bandura, 1977, 1989, 1997), and "attribution theory" (Weiner, 1985). In the "locus of control" model, the individual who has an internal locus will prefer to believe that his own behaviour controls the situational outcomes. In contrast, he who has an external locus of control typically believes that factors beyond their control impact the outcomes. More empirical evidences suggest that an internal locus is positively associated with positive emotions and that an external locus is negatively connected to positive emotions (Hoffart & Martisen, 1990; Alloy & Clements, 1992; Henson & Chang, 1998). These results posit that an individual's high perception of personal control corresponds with high levels of positive emotions.

The second group of examination on control-emotion relationships, self-efficacy, is defined as "people's beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over events that affect their lives" (Bandura, 1989, p. 1175). Several empirical studies propose that one's high levels of perceived efficacy to possibly threatening incidents correspond to further positive emotional experiences (Bandura, 1997). Weiner's (1985) causal attributions theory of "perceived causes of success and failures" (p. 549) helped shape attribution theory, as the third group of examination. According to Weiner, "perceived controllability;" is one of the three identified dimensions and classified attributions (Goetz et al., 2010).

Value Appraisal:

Value appraisals (i.e., why do I want to do it?) or the term 'subjective value' signifies the perceived valences of actions and outcomes (Pekrun, 2006; Pekrun et al., 2011). CVTAE differentiate between intrinsic and extrinsic values. Intrinsic values of activities associate

with acknowledging an activity even if it does not generate any related outcomes. For instance, when a student values working on chemistry questions whether this activity helps him get good grades in chemistry or not. The student works on chemistry simply because he is keen on chemistry. Extrinsic values, in contrast, are about the instrumental advantage of activities in creating outcomes further and further into the future (Heckhausen, 1991). For example, a student who values academic learning precisely because it will help him get good grades, or alternatively another student who values good grades because they will contribute to finding the job of his choice in the future (Gao, 2009; Husman & Lens, 1999; Pekrun, 2006; Pekrun et al., 2007; Pekrun, 2017; Simonton & Garn, 2019).

Perceived value includes both the perceived degree of magnitude for individual (goal relevance) and perceived direction (positive vs negative). For instance, goal congruence for selected events can either support the goal attainment –which has a positive direction– or impede the goal attainment –which has a negative direction. Regarding the goal relevance, activities and outcomes can be crucial in and of themselves – as illustrated by the intrinsic value– or due to their instrumental functions for gaining preferred results –as illustrated by the extrinsic value (Harley et al., 2019). Therefore, appraisal theories also integrate value perceptions to explain the relationship between goal attainment and emotional experiences. Goal attainment refers precisely to the personal importance of a consequence or an activity itself (Scherer, 1984). It is evaluated by posing questions like "How relevant is this event for me?" (Scherer 2001, p. 94). Theoretically speaking, higher levels of personal relevance ought to coincide with stronger positive emotional experiences. An individual should be, for instance, experiencing more intense enjoyment after a positive incident with high personal relevance. To this point, there is more empirical evidence that show a positive connection between perceived value and positive emotional experiences (e.g., Goetz et al., 2010).

Moreover, there are independent influences of control and value appraisals on emotions though CVTAE clearly suggests that control and value ought to interact (e.g., A × B) to create a joint influence for foreseeing achievement emotions (Pekrun, 2006). The extent of the influence of perceived control on emotions is supposed to vary according to the subjective value of the activity or outcome, but instead, the influence of perceived value on emotions can be assumed to alter as a role of perceived control level. For instance, by juxtaposing the student who has low control and low value appraisals with the student who has low control appraisals but high value appraisals for an outcome, the latter student is expected to experience more anxiety (Bieg et al., 2013).

Hypothesis 1. Relationship Between SE & AE

Retrospective outcome emotions are provoked when success or failure arises. Weiner (1985) presumes that success stimulates sadness, joy, frustration, and failure. If the expected success does not occur, disappointment will be aroused, but if anticipated failure does not happen then relief will be stimulated. These emotions are the result of event occurrence that also pursue evaluations of success or failure, however, there might be control-independent emotions here, too (Weiner, 1985). On the contrary, some emotions are supposed to be control-dependent emotions such as gratitude, pride, anger, and shame. For instance, shame and pride are presumed to be persuaded if success or failure is determined to have been produced by person himself and thus attributed to the individual's own actions. It suggests that shame and pride provoked by failure may not only be due to uncontrollable internal reasons (e.g., lack of ability), but also due to controllable excuses (e.g., lack of effort by the individual). Similarly, anger and gratitude are also control-dependent emotions that are stimulated when failure and success are understood to have been caused by other persons, as external reasons (Weiner, 1985; Pekrun 2006).

The intensity of control-dependent retrospective emotions is supposed to be a multiplication of (a) the perceived extent to which the perceived cause contributed to the achievement outcome and (b) the subjective value of the achievement outcome. The perceived influence of causes is presumed to similarly contribute to retrospective emotions because the probabilities of perceived outcome are supposed to play in prospective emotions. The perceived influence of a cause may depend on assessments of the causal power of the cause (Buechner, Cheng, & Clifford, 2003). As various causes might be perceived to work together to generate an achievement outcome, the combination of emotions will be relatively usual for retrospective emotions (Smith & Ellsworth, 1987). For instance, a combination of pride and gratitude might be felt by a scientist who wins the Nobel Prize because of his accomplishments (pride) and the contributions of his co-worker/s (gratitude). In this kind of combination, the intensity of these emotions may be influenced by relevant contributions that individual perceives as causes (Pekrun, 2006).

If the achievement activity (e.g., writing the essay) and the related material (e.g., handbook) are positively valued, then it will be activity emotions. If the activity is perceived as adequately controllable by individual himself, then *enjoyment* is expected to be provoked. In this regard, activity *enjoyment* is supposed be vital for flow experiences which encourage

the involvement and promotion of creative problem solving (Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). It involves excitement in challenging tasks and further relaxed modes while doing pleasant routine activities. On the other hand, activity *anger* is provoked if the activity is recognised as controllable but negatively valued such as with an expected attempt for unpleasant activity. Further still, activity *frustration* will be felt if the activity is not sufficiently controllable (Pekrun, 2006).

According to the CVTAE, the achievement activity *enjoyment* is stimulated when the activity is experienced by the individual as both controllable and valuable. A student, for instance, is assumed to enjoy studying if he feels capable to master the subject materials and then observes them as stimulating. Activity *boredom*, on the other hand, is persuaded if the activity has no stimulus value. Two anticipatory outcome emotions, *hope* and *anxiety*, are associated with potential success and failure, respectively. Both hope and anxiety are expected to arise if there is certain lack of control and doubt about the achievement outcomes combined with subjective significance of these outcomes. A student, for instance, may experience anxiety prior to an exam if he anticipates failure and identifies the exam as noteworthy. However, if he is certain about the success or simply does not care, then he will not experience anxiety. There would be no need for it. Moreover, *hopelessness* is believed to be induced if achievement appears uncontrollable which suggests a subjective certainty of failure. Lastly, the two retrospective outcome emotions of *pride* and *shame* are triggered if success is perceived to be produced by controllable internal factors or failure is observed to have occurred by a lack of control about these outcomes (Pekrun, 2006; Pekrun et al., 2011).

There are two vital concerns for prospective outcome emotions. The first vital concern related to control is whether success can be attained or failure avoided. The second vital concern is what the influence of obtainable means to these ends will be. In other words, the success of any efforts to exert control can be subjectively certain or uncertain though it would be roughly plausible in case of uncertain (Pekrun, 2006). Following the CVTAE's suppositions, empirical findings have consistently demonstrated that control is positively associated with positive emotions, such as pride and enjoyment, while also being negatively linked to negative emotions like anger, boredom, or anxiety (Bieg et al., 2013; Frenzel et al., 2007; Goetz et al., 2006; Pekrun, 2000).

In the context of tourism, Jin et al. (2016) studied Chinese outbound tourists in Australia. They found out that self-efficacy in travel planning has a significant negative

influence on a tourist's feelings of worry. Therefore, they implicitly mentioned the relationship between self-efficacy and emotions. The tourist's worry denotes "the individual's attempt to engage in mental problem-solving regarding trip-related issues where outcomes are thought to be uncertain and contain possibilities for negative results" (Larsen et al., 2009, p. 260). This concept is very close to the discussed concept of achievement settings and achievement emotions in the field of education.

Reviewing the literature on learning experience in tourism reveals that perceived control and value play an important role in tourists' learning process and thus their emotional responses. According to Shukri (2017), the culture confusion theory recognises that tourists are confronted with the need to learn new skills and thus might experience success and failures in the *learning process*. If tourists succeed at acquiring new skills, then it increases their perception of control and encourages them to delve more deeply into learning about other cultures (Hottola, 2004). In his thesis about "unfamiliar food consumption among western tourists in Malaysia," Shukri (2017) mentions that the sensitivity of perceived control is strongly associated with an individual's *emotion* and behaviour outcome (Hottola, 1999; 2014; Kealey, 1989; Westerhausen, 2002; Johnson, 2010).

So, based on previous studies both in CVTAE and tourists' learning experience, we hypothesize:

H1. Self-efficacy, as a control appraisal, is related to the achievement emotions of visiting a risky destination.

H1-1 Self-efficacy is negatively related to Anger as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination.

H1-2 Self-efficacy is negatively related to Anxiety as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination.

H1-3 Self-efficacy is negatively related to Boredom as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination.

H1-4 Self-efficacy is positively related to Enjoyment as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination.

H1-5 Self-efficacy is negatively related to Hopelessness as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination.

H1-6 Self-efficacy is positively related to Pride as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination.

H1-7 Self-efficacy is negatively related to Shame as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination.

Hypothesis 2. Relationship Between TV & AE

In comparison to the control appraisal, the relationship is different for value appraisals. CVTAE demonstrates that high value appraisals strengthen both positive and negative emotions. Greater positive and negative emotions will be felt if the outcome of a task is valued as remarkably important rather than not (low perceived value). In the case of extrinsic value, there is an exception for boredom because lower levels of boredom are felt when a task or outcome is supposed to be high in value (Pekrun et al., 2010). In other words, research constantly posits the positive relationship between value and positive emotions such as *enjoyment* and *pride*. Nevertheless, the association between value and negative emotions can be both positive and negative (Bieg et al., 2013; Goetz et al., 2006; Pekrun, 2000). The distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic appraised value will determine the direction of this correlation (Frenzel et al., 2007).

As mentioned in the prior section, the interaction between control and value may influence the stimulation of emotions. It highlights the important role of both appraisals, especially value. If the activity is considered adequately controllable by the self, *enjoyment* is expected. On the other hand, if the activity is observed as controllable but is negatively valued, *anger* is expected (Pekrun, 2006). The anticipatory outcome emotion *anxiety* is associated with potential success and failure. This emotion is stimulated when the individual expects failure and success due to their lack of certainty or control about the achievement outcome, in addition to their existing perceived subjective importance of the achievement outcome. The retrospective outcome emotions, such as *shame*, is provoked if the activity or outcome is perceived as important by the individual. Lastly, *hopelessness* is suggested to be the experienced emotion when success or failure are subjectively significant (Pekrun, 2006; Pekrun et al., 2011). Therefore, student cognitive appraisals –perceived control and perceived intrinsic value– are positive predictors of pleasant achievement emotions (e.g., enjoyment and pride) and negative predictors of unpleasant achievement emotions (e.g., hopelessness, boredom, anger, and anxiety) (Peixoto et al., 2017).

As mentioned in the previous section, reviewing the literature on learning experience in tourism reveals that perceived control and value play an important role in tourists' learning process and emotional responses. For instance, Liu et al. (2019) mention that the higher the value perceived from experience by the tourist, then the higher the chance for a positive emotional response. Most examples show that the common use of perceived value in tourism

research as related to outcome. Nevertheless, Packer (2006) argues that, in several tourism and leisure contexts, tourists participate in learning experiences not because of any instrumental purposes but because they enjoy and value this practice of learning itself. Thus, learning experiences in tourism activity can be considered as inherently worthwhile because, for the tourist, the experience itself is its own bonus (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Falk et al., 2012). Therefore, in this study, we want to focus on the perceived value of the activity whereby the 'task value' will be applied as value appraisal.

Based on the literature on CVTAE and tourist's learning experience, we hypothesize:

H2. As a value appraisal, task value is related to the achievement emotions of visiting a risky destination.

H2-1 Task value is negatively related to Anger as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination.

H2-2 Task value is negatively related to Anxiety as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination.

H2-3 Task value is negatively related to Boredom as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination.

H2-4 Task value is positively related to Enjoyment as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination.

H2-5 Task value is negatively related to Hopelessness as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination.

H2-6 Task value is positively related to Pride as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination.

H2-7 Task value is negatively related to Shame as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination.

2.9. Antecedents

As mentioned, the primary goal of CVTAE is to deliver a more extensive theoretical frame by incorporating viewpoints from various approaches to the antecedents and roles of achievement emotions (Pekrun, 2006). Corresponding to the suppositions of social-cognitive learning theories, the CVTAE suggests that the influence of distal antecedents on individual achievement emotions is primarily mediated by control-value appraisals (Pekrun et al., 2007). It postulates the distal antecedent as an indirect predictor that deals with students' distinct emotions. Emotions, therefore, are outcome indicators that illustrate and clarify an

individual's experiences (Pekrun, 2006). Pekrun (2017) provides more evidence for the mediating role of control-value appraisals between antecedent constructs and emotions. Investigation of this relationship can facilitate establishing the role of antecedent characteristics as direct predictors of students' control-value appraisals and indirect predictors of emotions (Simonton & Garn, 2019).

Researchers also used 'environment' or 'learning environment' terms as distal antecedents as they said learning environment is more distal individual and social antecedents for emotions (Pekrun et al., 2006; Goetz et al., 2016). These distal antecedents can be achievement goals, personality antecedents, social and cultural antecedents, cognitive resources, interest, and motivation (Pekrun, 2006). Different studies have empirically applied diverse variables as antecedents like feedback, socio-cultural influences, parental expectancy/attitude, teacher's support, and mastery approach (Pekrun, 2006; Pekrun et al., 2007; Frenzel et al., 2007; Buhr et al., 2019). Therefore, applying the CVTAE with these distal antecedents is related to social psychology.

Allport (1984) defined social psychology as a social science that examines and comprehends the influence of the actual, imagined, or implied presence on an individual's thoughts, experience, and behaviour (Tang, 2014). Simply stated, social psychology refers to "understanding individual behaviour in a social context" (Gnoth, 2014, p. 64). It looks at human behaviour as affected by other people and the social context in which this happens. Consequently, social psychologists work on the factors that direct people to act in a certain way in the presence of others and observe the circumstances under which particular behaviours, actions and feelings take place (McLeod, 2007; Gnoth, 2014). Social psychology is particularly important when seeking an understanding of how experience interacts with, and is influenced by, both the social home environment and the learning that takes place there vis-a-vis the host environment. Sociopsychology then focuses on the interactions between the person and society while also encompassing an individual's affective and cognitive dealings with their social environment (Gnoth, 2014).

Specifically, Winkle and Lagay (2012) recognised numerous factors that influenced tourists' learning experiences while travelling such as overall challenges, engagement with others, advanced planning and prior experiences or knowledge, their particular life-stages, and feelings of safety. Falk et al. (2012) believe that learning in tourism is intensely affected by the inside world of past experiences as much as the outside world. It shows that

tourism/hospitality scholars perceive the importance of the learning environment or distal antecedents in tourists' experience.

Based on these arguments, in the present study, three variables have been considered as distal antecedents that include destination perceived risk (DPR), prior experience with risk (PER), and perceived local people/tour leader support (PLTS). These antecedents are mainly related to the specific settings when visiting risky destinations. They are the combination of individual (DPR and PER) and social (PLTS) antecedents, which can then be related to social psychology.

Hypothesis 3. Relationship Between DPR & Appraisals

Perception is how "sensory inputs are processed, organised, and interpreted" (Larsen, 2007, p. 11). Perception is further described as a process where meaning is ascribed to an environment, object, or event. Perception is thus heavily influenced by an individual's inner psychology which include their values, motivations, opinions, emotions, worldviews, and the characteristics of their environment (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010).

Larsen (2007) debates that perception as a mental process helps individuals assess their tourist experience. Experiences can be assessed by the resemblances and distinctions between expectation and perception which, in turn, can make perception a powerful factor of tourist satisfaction (Ryan, 2003). Selstad (2007) emphasises the importance of perception and further claims that perception is in the centre of the experience, cooperating with the assessment and memory of an event. The interpretation, taken from the experience, is in accordance with the socially constructed perceptions (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010). Risk perception or perceived risk is one of the essential perceptions of tourism literature. It begs the questions of whether previous studies have any evidence on the relationships between risk perception and control-value appraisals.

Some scholars argue that the decision to travel results from the interplay between travel motivation, social travel norms, and perceived behavioural control. They believe that the former, also known as 'ability,' is ascertained from the levels of RP (Godin & Kok, 1996; Jonas et al., 2011). Cahyanto et al. (2014) assert that risk belief points to personal beliefs about risk propensity or aversion, optimism bias, and controllability. Thus, risk belief relates to the magnitude of a person's level of confidence to overcome uncertainty (Aldoory, Kim, &

Tindall, 2010; Lee & Rodriquez, 2008; Quintal, Lee, & Soutar, 2010; Sriramesh, Moghan, & Wei, 2007). That is to say, if a person embraces stronger perceptions of controllability, then he is less likely to perceive that he is at risk (Cahyanto et al., 2014).

In this regard, Jing et al. (2019) conclude that perceived risk negatively affects perceived behaviour control of using Autonomous Vehicle. Liang et al. (2019) also identify that medical tourists' perceived risk negatively influences their perceived behaviour control. Similarly, Makki et al. (2016), in their study of mobile payment systems in the restaurant industry, found that stronger perceived risk will reduce the intensity of a customer's self-efficacy beliefs. Lastly, Shukri (2017) found that when tourists experienced failures, their perceived control declined and their perceived risk enlarged. These studies show the negative relationship between perceived risk and perceived control in the tourist/customer context. So, we can hypothesise that:

H3-1 Destination perceived risk (DPR) is negatively related to the Self-efficacy (SE) of visiting a risky destination.

The second necessary appraisal in CVTAE is value appraisal. Some researchers have stated PR as an antecedent of perceived value (Chen & Dubinsky, 2003; Liu & Lee, 2016). Agarwal and Teas's (2001) study indicates that the PR strongly contributes in establishing the customers' perceptions of value. Zhang and Hou (2017) also add that the external presence, the PR factor, is essential for products with a higher price because it might influence customers' perception of value.

Chen, Tsai, and Hsieh (2017) also found that perceived risk negatively influences the perceived value in using hydrogen-electric motorcycles. Gallarza and Saura's (2006) study on students' travel behaviour found that perceived risk is negatively related to perceived value. Two more studies in medical tourism also reveal that perceived risk and perceived value have a negative relationship. (Wang, 2012; Habibi & Ariffin, 2019). Therefore, we can hypothesise that:

H3-2 DPR is negatively related to the Task value (TV) of visiting a risky destination negatively.

Based on H3-1 and H3-2, the third hypothesis is:

H3. DPR is negatively related to the appraisals of visiting a risky destination.

Hypothesis 4. Relationship Between PER & Appraisals

Based on CVTAE, students' retrospective appraisals of achievement outcomes can be directly determined by feedback on failure and success. Consequently, this feedback will influence their retrospective outcome emotions. Moreover, since feedback provides information about the probabilities of future failure or success, it influences the prospective control appraisals plus prospective outcome emotions. Based on CVTAE's assumptions increasing failure feedback decreases individuals' sense of control, thereby leading to the growth of achievement-related hopelessness and anxiety. Therefore, frequent feedback on insufficient student's attainment ought to be prevented. Instead, failure is better described as easy to work on and something that provides opportunities to learn from (Pekrun, 2006).

Past experience can be perceived as a prior achievement in similar achievement settings within the context of tourism. Falk et al. (2012) claim that learning derived from touristic experiences tend to be extremely personal and largely dependent on an individual's prior knowledge, motivations, and interests.

Selstad (2007) claims that perception is at the heart of the experience as it cooperates with an individual's interpretation and memory of the occasion. One of the principal elements of a tourist experience is memory (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010; Larsen, 2007; Pine & Gilmore, 1998). Noy (2007) debates that some parts of the experience resources are tourism practices which are available in mere depictions through memory. Oh et al. (2007) described memories as filtering mechanisms that relate the experience to a tourist event's emotional and perceptual outcomes. Cutler and Carmichael (2010) said tourists reach a destination with prior knowledge about the world, individual memories of their past, assumptions about people and place, and opinions about their selves (Ryan, 2003; Selstad, 2007).

Kim and Chen (2019) assert that the directive operation of autobiographical memory helps to employ previous incidents as references to lead current and upcoming thought and behaviour. Similarly, Cohen (1989; 1998) believes that autobiographical memory can support problem-solving and stimulate attitudes and opinions. In this regard, Baddeley (1987) debates that autobiographical memory motivates the individual to ask new questions about prior experiences in order to resolve current issues and predict future events. These opinions

propose that the directive function is utilised to ensure the past by acquiring the related information from the past for the purpose of guiding an individual's present and future such as with setting goals and plans for them (Bluck et al., 2005).

Losses and rewards learned by autobiographical memory permit the individual to generate scripts, or schemas, for behaviour that can be used for various scenarios in life (Pillemer, 2003). Numerous outcomes in research concluded that people remember previous events and learn lessons from prior experiences. They employ these lessons to then resolve issues and lead their notions and behaviour in present and future. This, as mentioned before, is the direct function of autobiographical memory (Pratt et al. 1999; McCabe, Capron, & Peterson 1991).

Falk and Dierking (2000) and Falk and Storksdieck (2005) proposed a contextual model of learning as a tool for coordinating the complexities of learning within a free-choice setting. They introduced 12 fundamental factors that are influential in museum learning experiences in which prior experience is included. Falk et al. (2012) mention that learning is extremely impacted by the inside world of our prior experiences. The literature supports the vital role of past experiences in tourist's learning process.

Studies on CVTAE tested feedback or prior achievement in their model as a learning environment that influences control-value appraisals. For instance, Frenzel et al. (2007) found that prior achievement has a mediated effect on emotions by competence and value beliefs. Peixoto et al. (2017) also concluded that past mathematics achievement has a significant positive influence on both perceived value and perceived competence.

The previous studies explore the moderating role of experience. It influences the customers' perceived value in diverse settings such as with hospitality in rural tourism (Frías-Jamilena et al., 2013) and online shopping (Chen & Lee, 2008; Habibi & Ariffin, 2019). Makki et al. (2016). In their research of the restaurant industry, they mention that one's past experience is the paramount predictor of self-efficacy. From this, we can hypothesise that:

H4. Prior experience with risk (PER) is positively related to the appraisals of visiting a risky destination.

H4-1 PER is positively related to the Self-efficacy (SE) of visiting a risky destination.

H4-2 PER is positively related to the Task value (TV) of visiting a risky destination.

Hypothesis 5. Relationship Between PLTS & Appraisals

Pekrun et al. (2005b) emphasise that achievement emotions relate significantly to facets of the social climate in mathematics classes (Frenzel et al., 2007). In this regard, some CVTAE research highlight the significant role of teachers in students' achievement emotions (Burić, 2015; King et al., 2012). Similarly, tourism literature features the importance of local people/tour leaders throughout the tourist experience onsite.

Three types of social contacts are recognised where tourism experience is concerned (Pearce, 2005): those among tourists and the local community, tourists and service staff, and tourists and other tourists. Host-guest interaction is recognised as a determinant of customer experience (Ismail, 2011; Lashley, 2008), as is the importance of service staff and other customers to form the tourist's subjective experience (Matson-Barkat & Robert-Demontrond, 2018).

Sangpikul (2018) mentions that local residents are a critical factor in the travel experience dimensions because they influence loyalty toward the tourist destination. Similarly, McDowall and Ma (2010) and Thiumsak and Ruangkanjanases (2016) revealed that the friendliness of Thai local residents and their willingness to provide tourism services resulted in not only high levels of tourists' satisfaction but the tourists' intentions to revisit Thailand. They showed that locals played a crucial role in making tourists feel happy and satisfied while travelling in Thailand which increased the possibility of revisiting in future. In other words, if tourists have more pleasant experiences with locals, then they are much more likely to return. The residents' hospitality plays, furthermore, an extremely important role in retaining loyal tourists.

The tourist experience is shaped by assessing the influential elements engaged in framing the result of the experience. In this regard, Nickerson (2006) suggests three interlaced affecting dimensions of this phenomenon: the traveller, the product (oftentimes the destination itself), and the local residents. To clarify the mechanism of these dimensions, Nickerson explains: the tourist travels to the destination with ideas about the possible types of experiences that may happen. These thoughts are affected by the tourist's social construction and contain perceptions or opinions formed by a combination of prior knowledge, previous travel experiences, expectations, product images, and media. There are even more impressions such as activities that the individual was involved in, the forms of

communications they had with different environments as well as casual social interactions in those settings (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010).

Nickerson (2006) also believes that the tourism product usually relates to the public sector, experiences with tourism industry, and official cultural brokers –e.g., tour guides or travel agents. Nickerson goes on to say that the sense of place and attitude created by the local residents may also significantly affect the tourists' experience. Casual social communication between host and guest could be based on a variety of factors, for instance, the allocation of tourism benefits, local development, and residents' quality of life. Mossberg (2007) also deeply studied the concept of themes as a foundation for arranging tourists' experiences. Mossberg argues that the main inspirations for these themes are the personnel, other tourists, physical environment, and the accessible products or souvenirs. Nickerson (2006) and Mossberg (2007), furthermore, represent these dominant factors and highlight the complex nature of tourist experiences (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010).

As mentioned, tourists bring along their individual memories, perceptions of people and the place, opinions about the world, and their self-understandings to their tourist destination (Ryan, 2003; Selstad, 2007; Cutler & Carmichael, 2010). According to Sangpikul (2018), the tourist destination environment includes, but is not limited to, tourism suppliers, services, and local people.

Tourism scholar have acknowledged for a long time the fact that tourists are fascinated by diverse levels of communication with local people (Fan et al., 2017). They found that, though some other tourists keenly try to get involved with locals, many tourists get involved with residents and relate to them as mere tour operators (Cohen 1972; Nørfelt et al., 2020). Still, tourists who pursue strangeness might want to take part in the local community by getting involved with local people (Fan et al., 2017). Similarly, tourists who are following their fundamental appeal for foreignness are likely to pursue accommodations that give them the opportunities to be closer to the local culture (Nørfelt et al., 2020). According to Lovel and Feuerstein's (1992), tourists with a fervent aspiration to experience the local culture in an authentic way will actually refuse package tours because they would rather interact with local people.

By analysing tourists' narratives, Chandralal et al. (2015) found that tourists were more likely to be impressed by gaining local experiences than with typical pre-arranged tourism activities. Local experiences could be, for instance, visiting live local villages, meeting local

residents, and sharing local lifestyles and cultures. In their research, Kastenholz et al. (2013) discovered that tourists consider the locals' hospitality as a key attraction. Tourists typically describe local people as attractive, friendly, and willing to communicate with guests. These communications are initiated by tourists who ask for information about the history, traditions, events, parties, the root and meaning of the customs or memorials of a place.

Cohen (1988) considers the role of "local inhabitants" as "cultural brokers." They describe local inhabitants as representatives of a live interpretation of local heritage and culture. These functions might improve tourists experience, diminish the temporary quality of social communications, and promote the tourist's immersion in the local culture by creating a more meaningful experience (Kastenholz et al., 2013).

Chatting with local people may well be the primary way that tourists increase their understanding of the local culture (Prentice et al., 1994). Conversely, Kastenholz et al. (2013) found in their study that most of interviewed tourists considered their interaction with local people as rather superficial social communication. Tourists mostly referred to a relatively temporary service domain or brief interactions with locals when asking for information. Kastenholz and her colleagues emphasised that the most frequent interactions were initiated by tourists looking for assistance from the local residents.

The literature values onsite social communications between guest and hosts as beneficial because locals provide pertinent information for tourists. The social communications might allow tourists to engage further with the local community and eventually become more immersed in their host environment. This is how locals might perform the function of 'cultural brokers,' namely by generating the bond between foreigners and local people (Cohen, 1988), ultimately allowing tourists to enter into more 'experimental-experience modes.' These modes become more profound active involvement, albeit not complete commitment. Kastenholz et al. (2013) detect this effort to learn about and appreciate a different, and even an idealised, way of life in several tourists' expressions. Therefore, Kastenholz and her colleagues stated that, as Cohen (1979) conceptualised before, the diverse, fresh, amusing, educational, or meaningful experience modes are pursued and resided by different tourists.

Van Winkle & Lagay (2012, p. 347) mention the following learning goals as an answer to "What did they want to learn during their trip?" They mentioned exploring one's self, learning something new about one's self, learning or rehearsing new skills, and also learning

first-hand about a place and the lifestyle and culture of its inhabitants. Therefore, from communicating with local people at a restaurant to participating in an interpretative visit at a historic site, travel experiences offer numerous unique chances for the tourist to engage in learning (McKercher & du Cros, 2002; Van Winkle & Lagay, 2012).

Nørfelt et al. (2020) claim that behavioural intentions such as the willingness to engage with local people might elucidate attitudes to sincere interests in paying attention and learning from local people (Stone & Nyaupane, 2019). According to Werry (2008), travel is one of the few current phenomena that offers opportunities outside of the educational program, which is an explicitly selective, non-vocational learning about other places, times, and peoples (Falk et al., 2012). Sangpikul (2018) asserts that tourists usually spend most of their time on the beach while visiting a destination. This gives them a chance to meet and communicate with locals and service personnel which cause tourists to learn about new cultures.

An essential element of the tourist experience, which provides the base for sustainable development, is positive communication between local tourism supplier and tourists. Though they more frequently interact formally, both groups' satisfaction strongly contributes to the tourism experience (Kastenholz et al., 2013). Marković and Petrović (2014) believe that tourist guides are in the forefront of service providing. Tour guides have a direct connection with visitors and therefore play an essential role in determining the tourists' experience and sometimes even their entire perception of a destination (Wang, Jao, Chan & Chung, 2010).

Tsaur and Teng (2017) emphasise that tour leaders must fulfil their duties, interact with tourists during the journey, and play multiple roles to 'service' their tourists. Tour leaders play a crucial role in group tours because they serve as mentors and information deliverers by imparting their travel experience and knowledge to tourist groups. This valuable contact between tour guides and visitors' takes place during excursions where the tour guide is fulfilling many communication roles: information giver (Cohen, 1985; Holloway, 1981; Hughes, 1991; Reisinger & Steiner, 2006) and teacher (Fine & Speer, 1985; Holloway, 1981; Mancini, 2000; Pearce, 1982). It is also important to point out that a crucial skill for guides is to move the tourists intellectually and emotionally (Christie & Mason, 2003; Bogdan & Lasinski, 2019).

Other researchers stated that the responsibility of a tour leader involves providing safety and protection, delivering information, and promoting interactions within the tour

group (Tsaur & Teng, 2017; Cohen, 1985; Schuchat, 1983). Skanavis and Giannoulis (2010) and Marković and Petrović (2014) also add that tour guides, which they referred to as interpreters, are normally the main source of education for a large percentage of tourists. This education can come in the form of personal interaction or interpretative products such as exhibitions, displays, films, or published reports.

Marković and Petrović (2014) mention teaching and communication abilities as one of the service quality of tour guides which means that the tour guide should have formidable communication and teaching abilities. Hansen and Mossberg (2017) believe that the 'instructor' role is an essential requirement for guides because they must have the skills to facilitate tourist communication with activities and their related objects. To this end, the tour guide should be a professional in the target activity of guiding. Furthermore, their teaching ability is essential for allowing tourists with diverse skills to take part in the excursion. Hansen and Mossberg also take it further still by asserting that guides contribute greatly in teaching and training tourists about using objects in the wilderness.

Similarly, Wong and Lee (2012) said the tour leader is expected to have several substantial roles such as being the group leader, organiser, teacher, and even entertainer in order to facilitate a quality experience for tourists (Weiler & Davis, 1993). Thus, Tsaur and Teng (2017) believe that by playing the roles of a public relations performer, pathfinder, entertainer, and mentor, tour leaders are the interface between the unfamiliar host destination and tourist (Cohen, 1985; Luoh & Tsaur, 2014, Weiler & Black, 2014).

Marković and Petrović (2014) and Pond (1993) also highlight two crucial roles for the tourist guide. Firstly, the tourist guide is a teacher who assists the travellers in understanding the visited places. Secondly, the tourist guide is an ambassador who increases hospitality and represents the destination with the purpose of eliciting a desire to revisit. More specifically, Schumann, Paisly, Sibthorp, and Gookin's (2009) and Rokenes et al.'s (2015) research findings on 'outdoor and adventure-based education' indicate that the guide's behaviours directly contribute to the participant's learning experience.

In conclusion, the literature supports that local people and tour leaders not only play significant roles in the tourist's learning experience at the destination, but they also have a duty to deliver information to them. Therefore, tour guides can be understood as teachers of the tourist in destination. In this regard, some studies on CVTAE found that 'teacher's

support' influences both control and value in CVTAE (Burić, 2015; King et al., 2012). So we hypothesise that:

H5. Perceived local people/tour leader support (PLTS) is positively related to the appraisals of visiting a risky destination.

H5-1 PLTS is positively related to the Self-efficacy (SE) of visiting a risky destination.

H5-2 PLTS is positively related to the Task value (TV) of visiting a risky destination.

2.10. Learning Outcome

Conceptualising distinct emotions through CVTAE can assist researchers in comprehending the influences of these emotions on learning outcomes (Simonton & Garn, 2019). As mentioned before, studies on CVTAE have tested numerous variables as learning outcomes such as intrinsic/extrinsic/continuing motivation, intention to complete, perceived learning, use of learning strategies, effort, distraction, achievement, performance, engagement, exploration of knowledge, competence gain, satisfaction, self-satisfaction (Artino, 2009, 2010; Artino et al., 2010, 2012; Tempelaar et al., 2012; Buil et al., 2016; Luo et al., 2016; Hamm et al., 2017; Yadav & Mishra, 2017; Heckel & Ringeisen, 2019; Hutton et al., 2019; Otterpohl, 2019; Gong & Bergey, 2020; Vogl et al., 2020; Zaccoletti et al., 2020). Achievement emotions influence the regulatory, motivational, and cognitive processes which are namely mediating learning, achievement, happiness, psychological well-being, and life satisfaction (Pekrun, 2006). What, then, should be the learning outcome in tourism?

Scholars consider travel as a possible source of "transformative learning" (Morgan, 2010). They believe travels of all kinds can be potentially transformative to tourists and even the host (Fordham, 2006; Stone & Petrick, 2013). In the context of tourism, learning is a process of constructing meaning. It cannot be assumed that the tourist' learning will concentrate on what is taught or even offered (Falk et al., 2012). Research emphasises that the outcomes of learning are highly individualistic. Learning is an exclusively individual-based and idiosyncratic incident meaning that no two persons may learn precisely the same fact in the exact same mode (Falk et al., 2012; Fosnot & Perry, 2005).

Cutler and Carmichael (2010) believe that the prompt result of experience is related to the trip general assessment which is evaluated through satisfaction or dissatisfaction. This

general assessment can be influenced through personal factors such as perception, knowledge, emotion, memory, and self-identity. Though satisfaction or dissatisfaction can be impacted through the experience itself, satisfaction is likely to change and progress through post-experience recollection and reflection. Therefore, satisfaction is mostly considered as an inclusive result of the tourist experience (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010). What are other outcomes of the tourist experience?

Studying tourists' perceptions and their personal experience outcomes will clear up the function of hedonic and other potential influences arising out of tourist experience, such as self-learning or eudaimonic aspect of trip (Knobloch et al., 2017). Huang and Liu (2018) found that distinctive cultural experiences offer "*opportunities to learn*" about many things such as customs, local culture, and narratives to tourists. It also delivers "*unforgettable memories*" to tourists who do not inhabit in this area and generate a living culture (Tan, Kung, & Luh, 2013). Liu et al. (2019) believe that learning encompasses numerous contradictory elements and activities in a complex process which can result in personal, transformative, and *memorable outcomes* and essentially shape the foundation of impressions (Falk et al., 2012). Ballantyne et al. (2018) explain that the level of the tourist's involvement during the learning process is a robust predictor of long-term memory. In other words, as the tourist's attention is grasped and directed, the memory of the experience can be strengthened. This is particularly true if the tourist enjoys the new experience (Roberson, 2018).

Researchers highlighted the importance of responding to the altering needs and motivations of elderly travellers. Responding appropriately can be done by innovatively designing memorable experiences that encourage self-directed and experiential learning (Sie et al., 2018). Falk et al. (2012) emphasise that learning experiences in tourism are transformative, personal, and memorable by nature, hence why they ultimately play a role in both visitor's experience satisfaction and overall quality of the traveller's life.

Experiencing cultural dissimilarities can facilitate the learning process, too. Once a tourist confronts cultural dissimilarities, they might influence his vision, thinking, hearing, touch, and sensitivity. Then, the cultural dissimilarities can "co-create the desired experiences" with the destination image and generate distinctive travel experiences in "*unforgettable* ways" (Richards, 2011). Cultural learning, therefore, has been identified as a customer interest in diverse cultures. It is not limited to general destination brand image evaluation but rather is able to offer further functional travel benefits. In this regard, Huang

and Liu (2018) believe that the concept of the "cultural learning era" was invented by McKercher and Du Cros (2002) who claim that learning how to conserve the cultural heritage assets offers a particular destination image and "*unforgettable memories*" to tourists- two elements that are crucial in experiencing the benefits of travel. The learning opportunity in travel requires immediate embodied attendance and intense immersion. Furthermore, Falk et al. (2012) explain that "the auratic charge of 'being there' makes for a vividly *memorable experience* endowed with great personal value by its participants" (p. 909).

Kim et al. (2012) demonstrate that tourists who value a tourism experience as a memorable one usually remember seven specific experiential elements more than others: involvement, novelty, hedonism, meaningfulness, refreshment, knowledge, and local culture. In another research study, Kim and Chen (2019) found that five themes explicated the salient components of a memorable travel experience: novelty, social interaction, excitement, destination attractiveness, and learning. These learning components speak to a better understanding of the destination, learning about a new culture, extending the worldview, and learning about others at the destination. These different aspects acknowledge the fact that forming memorable tourism experiences entails long term of learning. Forming memorable tourism experiences is not about easily acquiring a piece of knowledge at a single point of time. In this regard, Sie et al. (2018) identify five main characteristics of elder travellers' memorable experiences in which "freedom pursuits" (learning, adventure, and exploration) is one of them.

Other factors that play an important role in memorable tourism experience include experiencing surprise, visiting wildlife and other scenery, enhancing social relationships, enjoying the local culture, acquiring intellectual development and self-discovery, overcoming physical challenges, experiencing unexpected circumstances, being impressed by local tour guides' professionalism, having extreme or reputed trip, experiencing positive feelings, and collecting unique personal experiences (Farber & Hall, 2007; Tung & Ritchie, 2011; Kim, Ritchie, & McCormick, 2012; Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013; Prebensen, Vittersø, & Dahl, 2013; Knobloch et al., 2017).

Tourists believe that their travel became memorable through the intense emotions aroused by their visit, especially by feelings of humility and awe, the happy surprise, and learning about themselves (Knobloch et al., 2017). Tourists explained that their memorable experience is "an eye-opening experience that you learn more about the world and expand your perspective in life. The memories of the experience will not disappear and will change

the way you live your life." It also is "an experience that emotionally affects your way of life that is a catalyst for change and a transformation in beliefs" (Tung & Ritchie, 2011, p. 1380).

Memory is considered as the experience outcome, however, it can also be actively engaged with interpreting and transforming experience through narration (Selstad, 2007). The fact that memory narration permits experiences to alter indicates that experiences are no blocked elements. Rather, experiences have the ability to constantly progress within the tourist's dialogue. Selstad (2007) emphasised that tourists are not passive beneficiaries of destination experiences but are actively engaged in *meaning production*. Previous studies have highlighted some distinctions between tourists' actual experiences and their post-destination experience narratives. Narratives serve as later depictions of their experiences because depictions are based on memory (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010). The mental memory processes should be considered while applying the "cognitive approach" for examining the tourist experience. Based on this process, the memory will constitute everything that endures after the experience has terminated (Larsen, 2007). Consequently, it can be claimed that memory is the most effective part of tourist experiences, because it can have an enormous impact on elements like perception.

Larsen (2007) proposes that the tourist experience ought to be meaningful and noteworthy to be stored in long-term memory. In this regard, Kim et al. (2012) claim that as entire tourism experiences cannot be important enough to be recalled, memorable tourism experience is selectively restored according to the individual's evaluation of the experience components. Pratt and Aspiunza (2012) believe that in order for the tourist experiences to be understood as a valuable and meaningful trip, the experiences should have "a personal attribution of meaning" –individual's sense of reality– that relates to personal values –individual's sense of identity– and a "personal emotion". Therefore, memorable travel experiences are extremely self-centred and perceived as a particular subjective incident in the individual's life which will then remain in the individual's long-term memory as autobiographical memory (Kim & Chen, 2019).

As mentioned before, autobiographical memory includes the experiences of individually related incidents in one's life (Williams et al., 2007; Tulving, 1972). Conway and Pleydell-Pearce (2000, p. 261) describe autobiographical memory as "fundamental significance for the self, for emotions, and for the experience of personhood, that is, for the experience of enduring as an individual, in a culture, over time". Some tourism researchers

have investigated the memorable tourism experiences through this lens. There is an increasing fascination with debating memorable tourism experiences through the autobiographical memory perspective. Nonetheless, most studies only focus either on the antecedences and measurements of memorable tourism experiences or the influence of enjoyable memories on travel experiences concerning one's selection of events and his capabilities of future connections (Kim, et al., 2012; Kim, 2010; Kerstetter & Cho, 2004; Kim & Chen, 2019; Tung & Ritchie, 2011; Wirtz et al., 2003).

Pine and Gilmore (1998) propose that individuals prefer an experience that is personal, engaging, sensation-rich, and memorable. Individuals also look for an experience that can boost their personal capabilities, transform them, change their world opinion, or inspire a sense of appreciation beauty and wonder (Falk et al., 2012). Tung and Ritchie (2011, p. 1369) described a memorable experience as "an individual's subjective evaluation and undertaking (i.e., affective, cognitive and behavioural) of events related to his or her tourist activities which occur before (i.e., planning and preparation), during (i.e., at the destination), and after the trip (i.e., recollection)" (Sie et al., 2018). Therefore, previous literature posits that memorable experience can be considered a valid learning outcome in the tourist experience.

2.10.1. Memorable Tourism Experience

In the literature of tourism experience, there are numerous concepts depict the alike phenomenon of an uncommon, emotionally filled moment of tremendous happiness and fulfilment that prolongs further than individual's personal identity and is tied in with a sense of harmony with the cosmos. These intense happenings are typically referring to as extraordinary, peak, or transcendent experiences (Abrahams, 1986; Maslow, 1971). Even though these expressions arose from diverse disciplines, they have the same conceptualization of the phenomenon (Kirillova et al., 2017). Other experience typologies include great experience, quality experience, creative experience, and *memorable* experience (Richards, 2011; Ritchie et al., 2011; Tan et al., 2013; Coelho et al., 2018).

The concept of *peak experience* is suggested by Maslow (1954) to indicate the moments of greatest happiness and fulfilment. As stated by him, an essential element of the peak experience, is a full, temporary loss of fright and self-consciousness that allow a person to sense "being alive" (Kirillova et al., 2017). Maslow, further, recognized 19 classifications

of the peak experience, such as full attention, awareness of the absolute, experience or object union, perfect experience per se, etc. In brief, peak experiences are cognitively, emotionally, and frequently physically involving and demanding the skilful deployment of capabilities. So, they are thoroughly immersive (Holm et al., 2017).

In the literature, *extraordinary* (Arnould & Price, 1993) or *transcendent* (Williams & Harvey, 2001; Farber & Hall, 2007) is how the most advantageous and emotionally loaded experiences are depicted. Extraordinary experience is "highly memorable, very special, emotionally charged, and potentially life-altering" experience (Jefferies & Lepp, 2012, p. 38; Kirillova et al., 2017). *Transformative experience* represents one type of extraordinary experience (Walls et al., 2011). *Transcendent experience* is a comparable concept expressed as "a moment of the ultimate subjective awareness, intense happiness, extreme freedom, and harmony with the entire world" (Kirillova et al., 2017, p. 499). Transformative experience has the ability to make positive alterations to tourists' lives, therefore, it can arise from a more profound and longer-lasting mature transcendent experience. Peak, extraordinary, and transcendent experiences seem to be conceptually similar and numerous researchers debate likewise. Therefore, transformative experience is considered as a holistic performance of all three aforementioned types of experiences. It is because not all peak, extraordinary, and transcendent experiences cannot lead to deep and lasting transformations. A peak tourism experience can turn to transformative once activating incidents have also clear meaning in a manner that tourist perceive it as a personally meaningful to him (Kirillova et al., 2017).

Kirillova et al. (2017) have investigated transformative experiences from the existential-humanistic philosophy perspective. They suppose transformative experiences are those extraordinary special events that generate extremely emotional responses, cause self-exploration, function as a tool for intense intra-personal alterations, and are beneficial for optimum human performance. In their research, they found that tourists stated strong emotional responses while generating incidents. These emotional responses are diverse from the sensation of fear to the extreme joy.

Considering "transformation as a process and backed up by existential philosophy" (p. 501), transformative alterations are indicated by intensified existential authenticity and anxiety. Although, it is activated while traveling, typically it is revealed after tourists return home (Kirillova et al., 2017). Nowadays, travellers expect to have diverse, gratifying, and unique experiences on their journeys (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2015). In other words, increased tourists are deliberately pursuing the experiential facets of tourism offerings, such

as unique, extraordinary, and memorable (Hosany, 2012; Choi & Choi, 2019). To deeply know memorable experiences, it is better to recognize more about memory because memory is the most essential elements of the experience (Coelho et al., 2018; Schmitt, 1999). In fact, researchers believe that "tourists travel to remember, and memory processes influence tourism experiences" (Servidio & Ruffolo, 2016, p. 153; Wirtz et al., 2003).

Baddeley (1999, p. 1) defines memory as "an alliance of systems that work together, allowing us to learn from the past and predict the future." Episodic memories include people's long-term storage of factual memories regarding personal experience (Schwartz, 2011). So, episodic memories are the category of long-term memory supposed to be the most fascinating to investigate related to tourist experiences (Larsen, 2007). It should be considered that "lived experiences gather significance as we reflect on and give memory to them" (Curtin, 2005, p. 3). Marschall (2012) highlights the impact of memory on destination choices. She debates that usually people nostalgically go back to destinations/sites related to positive memories of a previous trip. Therefore, memory is the most essential source of information for a person both when he makes a revisit decision or spread the WOM (Oh et al., 2007).

Kim and Chen (2019) assert that the memorable experience has showed up as a fundamental part of tourist experience studies. It might be ascribed to the seminal study by Pine and Gilmore (1998), the pioneers of supporting the memorable experience concept. Basically, Schmit (1999) suggests that experience is a complicated process which can allow the customer to think, sense, feel, act, and relate to the company or brand which is consuming (Hung et al., 2016). Pine and Gilmore (1998) go further and believe nowadays this is the era of the "experience economy," and the suppliers present experiences to generate memorable occasions for clienteles (Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018). Nowadays, the experience economy has been changed. They provide more opportunities for tourists to participate actively and engage with sincere first-hand experience (Hung et al., 2016).

Kim et al. (2012) describe a memorable tourism experience (MTE) as an experience reminisced and remembered after the incident has happened (Vada et al., 2019). Therefore, memory is considered as a broader concept than memorable because it is related to extraordinary or unforgettable case but memory can be pretty routine and ordinary (Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018).

Knobloch et al. (2017) found that tourists label their experience as unique, extraordinary, extreme, memorable, or special. It may have two reasons, first, it might be because they did it before and it is more about a memory instead of one event. Second, their perception of a unique or exceptional experience is something less accessible, more intense, and scarcer than what they had. However, the particular experience is exceptional because it might be perceived as a special and once-in-a-lifetime experience.

Several tourism scholars have asserted the importance of delivering a memorable experience. It is debated that, for instance, memorable tourism experiences were the solo essential source of information when a person decides to revisit a particular destination (Kim & Chen, 2019; Wirtz et al., 2003). Therefore, in previous studies, MTE has been examined to confirm the influence of memory on future behaviour (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2013; Kim, 2014; Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Tung & Ritchie, 2011).

The tourism experience concept, during recent years, has turned to an essential factor for current tourism researches and even managements. Specifically, the attention has been transferred to the tourism attractions, the ones that directly or indirectly associated with the destination. In this regard, destination managers have been encouraged to enable the development of the target environment –e.g., destination– which can enhance the possibility for tourist to generate his own MTE (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). One can help to fill the gap between experiential marketing and its critics is to study tourist's subjective experience of activity and the following personal consequences. Experiential marketing usually presumes that memorable experiences are able to be generated and offered to customers. On the other hand, the critics of experiential marketing highlight the interactive, personal, and subjective dimensions of experiencing (Knobloch et al., 2017).

Even memorable experiences are considered as the final experience which customers target to gain (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Because they seek extraordinary experiences that delight, engage them spiritually, stimulate the senses, or create and reinforce identity (Ma et al., 2017). Memorable experience is related to revisiting a destination and the sharing the positive WOM, also essential for long-term sustainability and competitiveness, and new tourism product development (Knobloch et al., 2017; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003; Woodside, MacDonald, & Burford, 2004). Then, a significant difference exists between a satisfactory experience and a unique and memorable one (Morgan & Xu, 2009). Theoretically, the tourism scholars' interests to investigate the psychology of tourist experience is growing. More specifically, these scholars desire to comprehend how tourist experiences could be

turned more memorable (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2015; Knobloch et al., 2017; Tung & Ritchie, 2011).

In addition, some researchers report the influence of familiarity on memory. They suggest that "high-frequency (or more familiar) stimuli positively affect stimuli evaluations, and therefore, recall and attitude are generally favourable under familiar conditions" (Cox & Cox, 1988, Kim, 2014, p. 35). Others argue that unfamiliar, atypical, distinctive, or unusual incidents are recalled more clearly than usual events. In support of this view, scholars who focused on MTE studies found that novel experiences are expected to be borne in mind more precisely. They also argued that if an individual experience something different, unique, or new it will lead to a solid memory of this travel experience. Such a novel experience is considered as the heart of memories input (Hung et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2010; Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018). Previous memory studies also confirm that rare and extraordinary incidents can generate clear and lasting memories too. So visiting a risky destination can be an unusual or unfamiliar event for some tourists.

In fact, MTE is mostly contingent on two main components, first, the specific space and time of the tourism experience, and second, the memories generating process –including both cognitive and physiological– associated with the experience (Coelho et al., 2018). Although, some scholars strongly recommend researchers to, in support of tourism promoters, concentrate on the *psychological* facets associated with the emotional setting (Servidio & Ruffolo, 2016). In addition, realizing the potential distinct perceptions and outcome of experience, such as emotional dimensions and personal interpretation, might assist contributors to improve tourist's experience. It can be done by customizing their products and preparing the setting that can enhance the chance for visitors to have memorable experience (Knobloch et al., 2017).

In fact, we have to be aware that how each participant interprets an experience and also what he will get from this experience regarding to personal outcome and memory are out of control for any tourism providers. An organization does not have enough control and power on the consumer's ideal memorable experience. In fact, this merely lives in the individual consumer's mind (Knobloch et al., 2017) because it is more on the basis of his evaluation and perception of reality (Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018). To obtain a more extensive and intense knowledge of experience further than a one-size-fits-all approach, it needs to acknowledge the personal and subjective nature of consumer experiences. It can be achieved by focusing on their emotions and their certain meaning of their experiences, rather than merely

concerning their distinctive favourite features of experiences and their perceptions (Kim et al., 2012; Knobloch et al., 2017; Vada et al., 2019).

Managers and front-line staff should be cautioned against generalizing a memorable tourism experience, recognizing that a memorable experience is not context-specific and is dependent on tourist's perceptions (Vada et al., 2019). And interestingly, researchers emphasize that self-relevant incidents –with "*personal consequences*" for individuals– are more memorable than less self-relevant events (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2015).

Individuals have distinct perceptions of their experiences in the similar consumption setting, no matter how they describe their experiences. In fact, events cannot generate similar emotional states in individuals, also consumption experience and context cannot be defined in advance as memorable or extraordinary. The reason is that tourists define the meaning of experiences, not the researcher (Robinson, 2012; Knobloch et al., 2017; Mossberg, 2007).

There are quite few studies investigate the experiences' elements that make them memorable, however, the MTE is considered as new standard of the tourism industry (Kim et al., 2010; Servidio & Ruffolo, 2016; Skavronskaya et al., 2017; Knobloch et al., 2017). Few studies on MTE use different scales to measure this concept. Ryan et al. (2003) claim the most memorable experiences have five themes of difference, connecting with special others, uniqueness, sense of achievement, and high adrenalin. Morgan and Xu (2009) indicate that the reasons for being a memorable experience for tourists are social interactions, physical attributes, cultural interactions, benefits, destination image (amazingly different), and achievement. Tung and Ritchie (2011) also identify four dimensions of memorable experiences: affect, expectations, consequentiality, and recollection. In adventure and risk context, feelings of achievement and feelings of awe are frequently mentioned. The former one is resulting from having mastered a challenge or conquering a fear. The latter one may happen on a profounder emotional level than hedonic enjoyment, it will also leave lasting impressions (Knobloch et al., 2017).

In addition to the influence of familiarity or unfamiliarity, the emotionally arousing stimulus is a crucial element in MTE, the extraordinary experience, wherein personal growth is gradual mastery and has elements of "feelings of awareness and *achievement*" (Arnould & Price, 1993; Tung & Ritchie, 2011; Beckman, Whaley, & Kim, 2017). Researchers believe that the outcome of adventure tourists in activities is feeling a sense of accomplishment and triumph. This consequence plays an important role in obtaining emotional highs, and

ultimately, strong and memorable experience (Fluker & Turner, 2000; Williams & Soutar, 2009; Beckman et al., 2017). Besides, Ryan et al. (2003) claim that sense of achievement is one of the five themes for MTE in adventure tourism. Moreover, Morgan and Xu (2009) argue that achievement is one reason for MTE in any destination and travel type. So *achievement* has an important role in MTE.

In a memorable context, many individuals' *emotions and personal meanings are different* (Knobloch et al., 2017). Tourists would have distinct experiences, even if they took part in the same activity, at the same time, at the same place. Even though, previous studies' results showed that the majority of their respondents had a fantastic experience and they depicted it as special, extraordinary, or memorable, all they did not get the same memorable experience (Knobloch et al., 2017; Volo, 2009; Vada et al., 2019). Each traveller, however, may have a distinct perception of what makes an extraordinary experience (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2015). For example, sometimes tourists might not be very impressed by their trip but labelled their experience memorable because of the *unexpected surprise* (Knobloch et al., 2017). MTE is optionally formed according to tourist's evaluation of his experience and operates to combine and strengthen the recollection of pleasant memories in destination experience (Kim, 2013; Kim et al., 2012; Servidio & Ruffolo 2016; Vada et al., 2019). So, "memorable experiences are unique to an individual" (Sie et al., 2018, p. 355).

From a psychological perspective, tourists experience the cognitive evaluation process include to differentiate, select, and remember solitary tourism experience as memorable one among their possible wealth of experiences (Tung & Ritchie, 2011; Servidio & Ruffolo 2016). Personal goal, novelty, and *emotional intensity* are elements to manage in what way stimuli are interpreted (Arnould & Price, 1993; Tung & Ritchie, 2011; Skavronskaya et al., 2017).

Scholars debate that studying the tourist experience ought to shift from merely recognizing the MTE elements to progress in pursuing a comprehension of why the mechanism is memorable (Larsen, 2007; Skavronskaya et al., 2017). Previous memory scholars have also debated the substantial effect of *extremely emotional* stimuli on memory (e.g., Bohanek et al., 2005; Porter & Birt, 2001; Kim, 2014). Therefore, some scholars believe that researchers are required to focus on the emotional facets of tourist experience (Knobloch et al., 2014; Coelho et al., 2018). CVTAE is one comprehensive theory that assists us in this regard.

Hypothesis 6. Relationship Between AE & MTE

As mentioned, from a psychological perspective, tourists experience cognitive evaluation processes when they differentiate, select, and remember solitary tourism experience from their available wealth of experiences as memorable (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Therefore, a memorable experience is not context-specific and is dependent on each tourist's perceptions meaning that MTE should not be generalised (Vada et al., 2019).

Two factors have been suggested by numerous researches to evaluate the satisfactory experiences which include "instrumental" (cognitive) and "expressive" (affective). Instrumental measure is connected to cognitive qualities. It acts as a facilitator, or the tools of, involving experience and results in dissatisfaction if it does not exist. Conversely, expressive measure involves psychological elements and leads to pleasurable or unpleasant feelings (De Rojas & Camarero, 2008). The feelings resulting from mental, physical, and emotional involvement in tourism activity contribute to personal memorable experiences (Andrades & Dimanche, 2014). Memorable experience involves subjective assessment of experiences, such as cognitive, affective, and behavioural evaluations (Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Therefore, cognitive, affective, and behavioural elements of memorable experiences can serve as instrumental and expressive measures while also evaluating overall satisfaction (Sie et al., 2018).

It is debated that tourism can provide complicated emotions associated with destinations. These emotions are recognised as consequences of tourist events as influenced by the perceptions, assessment of experiences, and memories of experiences (De Rojas & Camarero, 2008; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Noy, 2007; Nettleton & Dickinson, 1993; Oh et al., 2007; Trauer & Ryan, 2005; Vittersø et al., 2000). In this regard, Arnould and Price (1993) conducted a research on rafting as an extraordinary experience and came across the presence of intense emotions in this experience (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010).

Tourists believe that their travel became memorable in part due to the strong emotions evoked by their visit to the destination (Knobloch et al., 2017). In other words, tourists' memorable experiences are firmly portrayed by emotions. However, not all of those emotions are connected to hedonic enjoyment (Knobloch et al., 2014). If an experience engages with

more senses, the emotions can become more memorable and effectual (Pine & Gilmore, 1998; Hung et al., 2016; Beckman et al., 2017).

Kim and Ritchie (2014) find that MTE components are significantly related to emotion. In fact, emotion is the heart of a memorable experience process (Coelho et al., 2018; Levine & Pizzarro, 2004; Servidio & Ruffolo, 2016). From an emotional perspective, memory researchers discuss the substantial effect of extremely emotional stimuli on memory (e.g., Bohanek, Fivush, & Walker, 2005; Kim, 2014; Porter & Birt, 2001). Mainly, the positive emotional state of involvement during a trip will contribute to generating memories (Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Moreover, MTE is optionally created from real experiences and affected by tourists' emotional evaluation of holiday occasions (Servidio & Ruffolo, 2016). Holidays are memorable because emotions affect this memorability (Wirtz et al., 2003; Larsen & Jenssen, 2004; Skavronskaya et al., 2017). An unforgettable and extraordinary journey occurs when the tourist experiences extraordinary emotions whether positive or negative. Alternatively stated, memorable experiences will not occur deprived of tourists' emotions, (Dewhurst & Parry, 2000; Kensigner & Corkin, 2003; Coelho et al., 2018; Kim, 2014). Emotional involvement appears to increase the recall of MTE (Servidio & Ruffolo, 2016; Skavronskaya et al., 2017).

Some consumption experiences influence the tourism experience directly. In this regard, previous studies on memory detected feelings such as anger, annoyance, anxiety, concern, displeasure, excitement, joy, irritation, guilt, loneliness, love, happiness, fear, pleasure, pride, peace, optimism, romanticism, sadness, sociability, shame, etc. (Schmitt, 2011). More specifically, Ritchie et al. (2011) discovered that tourists seldom remembered negative emotions that were felt such as anger, fear, and frustration. Coelho et al. (2018) studied lived emotions that influence MTE; they include excitement, happiness, recognition, freedom, enthusiasm, reward, joy, liveness, refreshment, nostalgia, fright, fatigue, anxiety, frustration, and despair.

MTE researchers mostly emphasise positive emotions. As previously mentioned, they suppose that the positive emotional state that tourists experience during a trip plays an important role in generating memories (Tung & Ritchie, 2011; Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018). Memory scholars asserted that people recall positive emotional incidents much better than common events that happened long ago (Dewhurst & Parry, 2000; Kensinger & Corkin, 2003; Kim & Ritchie, 2014). Prior studies also demonstrate that positive feelings and

emotions related to these experiences –e.g., excitement and happiness– explain the core of MTE (Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Knobloch et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2013; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). In this regard, tourism studies highlight that the representation of positive emotions is more common than negative ones (Ritchie et al., 2011; Knobloch et al., 2017). They determined that tourists experienced negative emotions willingly –such as nervousness and fear before skydiving– or unwillingly –such as managing unexpected issues during a rafting tour. But mostly, their results demonstrated that these negative emotions caused positive experiences. However, it's important to mention that MTE studies are limited to only minor affective feelings in a category labelled as hedonism (Kim, Ritchie, & Tung, 2010; Knobloch et al., 2017).

Only a few studies in the context of tourism focus on specific emotions. They claim that tourists are more likely to have a memorable experience if they experience thrills, enjoyment, and excitement while visiting a destination (Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018). Very few studies go deeper to claim that the outcome of participation in a risk activity results in triumph and a sense of accomplishment. This consequence plays an essential role in obtaining an emotional high, and ultimately, an intense and memorable experience (Beckman et al., 2017; Fluker & Turner, 2000; Williams & Soutar, 2009).

The absence of negative emotions when a tourist recalls his experiences is regularly caused by the "rosy view" phenomenon (Mitchell et al., 1997) which alleviates negative incidences in the individuals' retrospective evaluations of events and amplifies positive experiences (Sthapit, 2019). In the bigger picture, many tourism studies on destination experience still disregard the visitor-related factors when investigating the memorability despite the significance of personal-related elements and emotional responses in remembering (Skavronskaya et al., 2017). Considering these, it is not surprising why there are only a few studies that highlight the essential influence of emotional stimuli, both positive and negative valences, on robust memorability of an incident (Dewhurst & Parry, 2000; Kensinger & Corkin, 2003; Kim, 2014).

Some researchers believe that vacations are memorable because emotions affect this memorability (Larsen & Jenssen, 2004; Skavronskaya et al., 2017; Wirtz et al., 2003). Coelho et al. (2018) highlight that emotions influence MTE whereas others have a more conservative approach by simply associating emotions with memorable experiences (Sthapit, 2019; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). In food tourism, Williams et al. (2019) found that repeated retelling of the emotions elicited during the experience enhance and reinforces memorability. Some studies

believe that positive emotions are associated with memorable experiences (Knobloch et al., 2017; Sthapit, 2019; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Extraordinary experiences are associated with intense positive emotions such as pleasure (Beckman et al., 2017; Farber & Hall, 2007).

In this study, we attempt to test the influence of both negative and positive emotions on MTE in visiting a risky destination, so based on CVTAE, we hypothesize:

H6. Achievement emotions are related to Memorable Tourism Experience (MTE) as a learning outcome of visiting a risky destination.

H6-1 Anger is related to the MTE of visiting a risky destination.

H6-2 Anxiety is related to the MTE of visiting a risky destination.

H6-3 Boredom is related to the MTE of visiting a risky destination.

H6-4 Enjoyment is related to the MTE of visiting a risky destination.

H6-5 Hopelessness is related to the MTE of visiting a risky destination.

H6-6 Pride is related to the MTE of visiting a risky destination.

H6-7 Shame is related to the MTE of visiting a risky destination.

2.11. Proposed Conceptual Framework

A proposed conceptual framework is developed based on the literature review and the proposed relationships among the variables. Figure 2.3 shows the entire idea without illustrating all hypotheses. Figure 2.4 shows the entire conceptual framework with all six hypotheses and 27 sub-hypotheses.

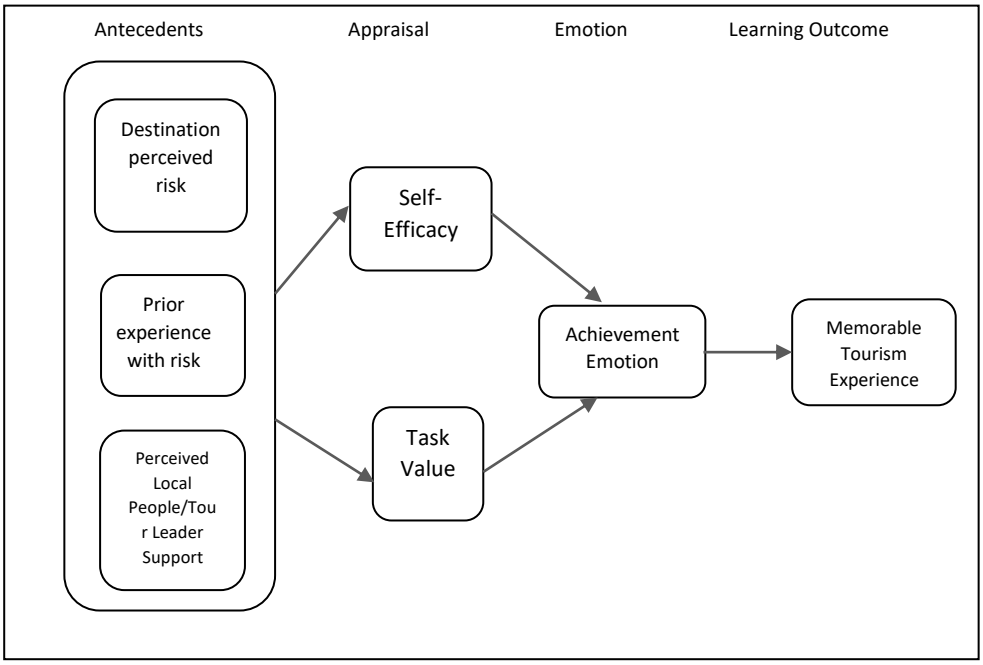


Figure 2.3. Proposed Conceptual Framework without Hypotheses

Based on the Control-Value Theory of Achievement emotion (Pekrun, 2000, 2006)

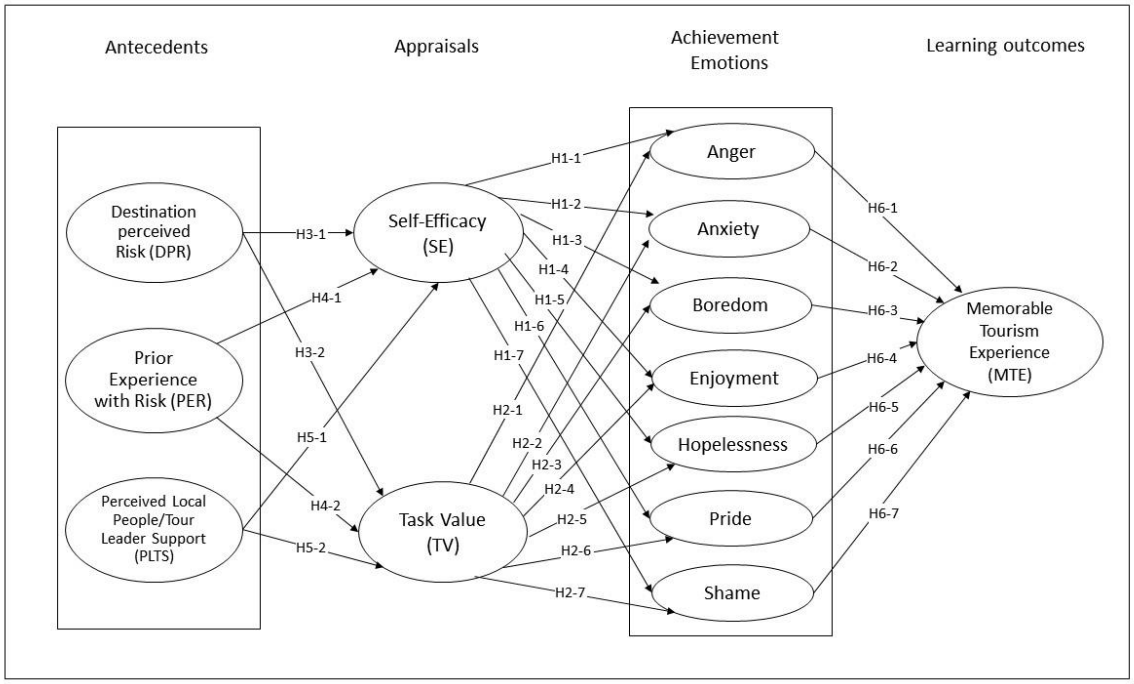


Figure 2.4. Proposed Conceptual Framework

Based on the Control-Value Theory of Achievement emotion (Pekrun, 2000, 2006)

2.12. Research Gap

Several key research gaps can be identified based on the literature review, which has been done in risk context, learning experience, emotional responses, and memorable experience. First, in a risky destination context, researchers mostly focus on investigating the perceived risks and destination image to evaluate travellers' intention to revisit certain destinations (Fuchs & Reichel, 2011; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998; Lehto et al., 2008). There is a lack of knowledge about tourists' experiences and emotions when visiting risky destinations.

Second, there is a lack of knowledge in the emotional aspects of tourists' learning experiences when visiting a destination, especially risky destinations. Third, a 'sense of achievement' is a common term in tourism which scholars determined from different perspectives such as need (Murray, 1938), benefits/motivation (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000; Wolf et al., 2015), well-being (Seligman, 2011; Filep & Pearce, 2013; Wolf et al., 2015), fulfilment, personal development (Wolf et al., 2015), eudaimonic rewards/orientation (Matteucci & Filep, 2017), and pride (Tracy & Robins, 2007). However, there is no knowledge about tourists' achievement experiences from an emotional perspective.

As Falk et al. (2012) said, the link between travel and learning is still an under-researched area despite the rather obvious relationship. There is a need for a deeper understanding of tourism learning experiences (Tsaur et al., 2010; Williams & Balaz, 2013). The fourth research gap is that the research background on the antecedents of a tourist's emotional experience at a given destination, especially risky destinations, is few. Fifth, there is no empirical research to show the role of local people supporting the tourists' learning experience at a destination, particularly risky destination.

Sixth, there is no empirical research to present the relationship between tourists' emotions and their MTE. More research is needed to comprehend the affective element of the tourist experience related to how emotion interrelates with the assessment of events (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010). Finally, most studies about the Middle East are theoretical. There are two main gaps in the empirical ones: people's image, stereotypes, or intention of travelling to this region, or they have a small sample of one to three Middle Eastern countries. The intention of this study is to fill these research gaps.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODS AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter is divided into two main subsections: methodology and methods. Methodology refers to the theoretical paradigm or framework. It develops an explanation as to why the research method(s) under discussion have been chosen. Method refers to the actual research instruments and materials employed. The methodology includes paradigm, phenomenon, and approach. The method consists of data collection and data analysis (Paltridge & Starfield, 2007; Savin-Baden & Major, 2013).

3.1. Methodology

The research philosophy encompasses significant suppositions of how researchers observe the world. These assumptions will underpin your research strategy and the methods you choose as part of that strategy. There are four main research philosophies: realism, positivism, pragmatism, and interpretivism (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhillet al., 2009). The philosophy of this research is post-positivism. Post-positivism is a "meta-theoretical stance that critiques and amends positivism" (Bergman, 2016, p. 2).

The research paradigm helps to define research philosophy. It is a collection of common beliefs and suppositions among a research society about "ontological, epistemological, and axiological/methodological" questions. Ontological concerns are regarding the character of reality, what objects exist, and how these are connected and interrelate (Johannesson & Perjons, 2014).

Positivism is the ancestor of post-positivism. The presumption of positivism is that truth is regarded as an independent component of the whole with theoretical support. The triggers of the problem are clear, and the consequence is possible (Henderson, 2011). The discrepancy between positivism and post-positivism is that the latter shifts from a narrow viewpoint to a real-world problem-solving. Ryan (2006) and Panhwar et al. (2017) suggest that post-positivism links theory and practice, encourages researchers to investigate real-life dilemmas, and induces researchers to be more committed to their research topics. Post-positivists suppose that there is "reality," but distinct from positivists, they think reality can be recognised only as imperfect and probabilistic (Robson, 2002; Miller, 2005).

Epistemological questions are about how people can know about reality (Johannesson & Perjons, 2014). Post-positivists think that human knowledge is not because of prior objective individual evaluations; on the contrary, based on human conjectures. Human knowledge is inevitably conjectural; therefore, the declaration of this conjecture is warranted. More precisely, it is rationalised by a group of warrants, which can be adapted or retracted considering more investigation. Post-positivism, however, is not a particular type of relativism and broadly keeps the idea of objective truth (Lindlof & Taylor, 2017).

Therefore, regarding answering ontological and epistemological questions in this study, tourists' achievement emotions in visiting a risky destination is a real-world problem. And the present study links the theory (i.e., the control-value theory of achievement emotions, CVTAE) and practice to obtain the objective truth.

Some researchers believe that the third concern in the research paradigm is axiological questions. Although positivists suppose that research can be value-free or neutral, post-positivists believe that bias is unsought but unavoidable. Therefore, the researcher ought to try to discover and rectify it. Post-positivists intend to comprehend how their axiology, such as beliefs and values, might have affected their investigation. It includes their selection of definitions, populations, measures, questions, analysis, and interpretation of their study (Miller, 2005). In the present study, we intend to apply CVTAE in order to respond to the research questions and achieve research objectives. We try to minimise the subjective role of the researcher and maximise the objective results. Therefore, the conceptual framework and measurements have been designed based on literature, and populations will be matched with the most research objectives. So, everything that we found from the literature is valued and essential equally.

And the next group of researchers talks about methodological questions as the third concern in the research paradigm. They are about reasonable ways of examining reality and how to support that the knowledge produced is valid (Johannesson & Perjons, 2014). In the 3.2. method section, we will explain this concern in detail. First, but briefly, PLS-SEM will apply as an approach to answer the research questions in the present study.

3.1.1. Research design

This research attempts to test the proposed conceptual model and hypotheses. This study is following this procedure: Stage one: proposing research problems and goals, stage two: reviewing the literature, stage three: developing a conceptual framework and hypotheses, stage four: conducting the pilot test to refine and validate the measurement, stage five: purifying items and translating the final version into five languages, stage six: conducting the main survey, stage seven: analysing data, stage eight: discussing the findings and conclusion (adopted from Churchill, 1979). In previous chapters, stages one to three have been explained in detail. In this chapter, stages four to six will be described.

This study has a The research hypotheses were designed to test the relationship between variables in this study, which include destination perceived risk (DPR), prior experience with risk (PER), perceived local people/tour leader support (PLTS), self-efficacy (SE), task value (TV), achievement emotion (AE) –anger, anxiety, boredom, enjoyment, hopelessness, pride, shame, and memorable tourism experience (MTE). These relationships were proposed according to previous studies. After collecting data, PLS-SEM has been used as the most appropriate approach for this study. The following section explains the reasons for this selection.

3.1.2. CB-SEM vs PLS-SEM

Structural equation modelling (SEM), because of its advantages over other common techniques such as regression, is the preferable method for evaluating the proposed model. The big difference between SEM and first-generation regression techniques is that SEM assessed both structural model –the presumed relationships between a group of dependent and independent constructs– and measurement model –the observed measurement items' loadings on their anticipated latent variables (Gefen, Straub & Boudreau, 2000). In other words, SEM provides a setting for researchers to conduct the simultaneous analysis of the measurement and the structural models. It integrates the factor analysis with hypothesis testing, and would allow us to investigate the observed variables' measurement errors as an essential part of the model. This technique, therefore, confirms a more thorough analysis of the proposed model and a more inclusive insight into the level that the data support the model than in regression techniques (Bollen, 1989; Gefen et al., 2000; Ayeh, 2012).

SEM is a broad term including various statistical models; among them, covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) is the most famous. Chin (1998b, p. 295) believes "many social science researchers perceive the covariance-based procedure as tautologically synonymous with the term SEM." PLS-SEM is considered a component-based SEM technique. Researchers believe it can be selected over the more ordinary covariance-based SEM techniques – e.g., Maximum Likelihood – due to its strength with fewer recognition issues. Therefore, it will help to avoid estimation problems and non-convergent outcomes. PLS-SEM can be employed to attain four significant purposes (Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001; Gefen et al., 2000; Hair et al., 2011, 2012, 2014; do Valle & Assaker, 2016; Wold, 1985), include:

- PLS-SEM is beneficial when the scholar is attempting to investigate a theory instead of confirming. It is useful, especially when the target phenomenon is comparatively new and the measurement models are in the exploratory phase.

- PLS-SEM can be operated to test structural models when small samples and also when the multivariate normality of the data could not be verified.

- PLS-SEM modelling permits the unlimited calculation of models formed of "reflective" and "formative" measurement models.

- PLS-SEM is able to test big, complicated models including numerous latent and manifest variables and hierarchical models with first-order (FO) and second-order (SO) latent constructs.

Consequently, PLS-SEM can overcome identification issues, limitations, non-convergence, and assumptions related to CB-SEM (Vinzi, Trinchera, & Amato, 2010) (Table 3.1). More specifically, in the present study, PLS-SEM's proposed approach is because of its ability to test a complex model, flexibility with analysing the single-item variable, and require a smaller sample than CB-SEM.

Table 3.1. CB-SEM vs PLS-SEM

CB-SEM	**PLS-SEM**
1- CB-SEM fit is based on accurately estimating the observed covariance matrix. 2- CB-SEM needs to construct with at least 3 items to be able to run EFA. 3- if the model lacks a sound theoretical foundation, and if the direction of the relationship between variables cannot be	1- PLS-SEM fit is based upon accounting for explained variance in the endogenous constructs. 2- PLS-SEM analyses can easily incorporate single-item measures. 3- PLS-SEM is particularly suitable for early-stage theory development and testing.

determined, CB-SEM should not be the method of choice.	
4- CB-SEM requires larger samples.	4- PLS-SEM can operate efficiently with small sample sizes.
5- CB-SEM needs a sample size of ten times the number of items included in the original model.	5- PLS-SEM requires a sample size of ten times the number of arrows pointing at a construct, or the largest number of formative indicators applied to measure one construct, which one is larger.
6- CB-SEM needs normally distributed data.	6- For PLS-SEM, the normally distributed data is not required.
7- This structural model predictive ability is not available for CB-SEM analysis.	7- PLS-SEM includes an additional approach to evaluate structural model predictive ability called blindfolding.
8- The limitations of fit requirements in the CB-SEM model resulted in the number of items. Scholars suggest maximizing retention of measures if needed even at the cost of model fit.	8- The comparative retention of items in the PLS-SEM approach improves the validity and reliability of that model.
9- CB-SEM needs a minimum of three first-order constructs to overcome identification issues.	9- In contrast, PLS-SEM can easily be executed with only two first-order constructs since identification is not a concern for this method.
10- CB-SEM may achieve an apparently better variance explained, however, it leads to a great loss of indicator variables in order to seek a sufficient model fit.	10- At the theory development step, PLS-SEM enables the retention of more item variables and confirmed a second-order construct's potential.
11- CB-SEM is more beneficial for later stage theory testing.	11- PLS-SEM seems to be more appropriate at the theory development stage.

Sources: (Astrachan et al., 2014; Byrne, 2010; DeVellis, 2011; Hair et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2014; Ringle et al., 2013)

3.2. Method

3.2.1. Study Settings

3.2.1.1. The Middle East as Risky Destinations?

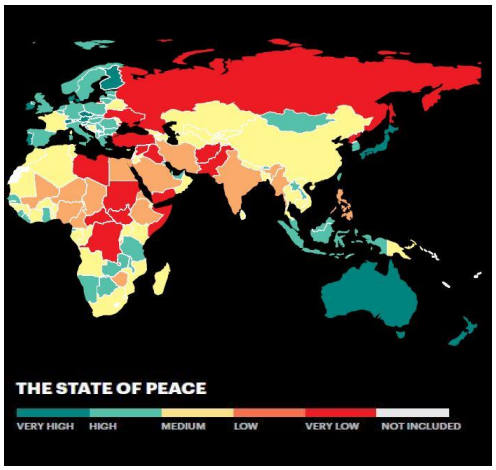
Based on two primary sources, the Middle East is a risky destination; articles and reports. Tourism scholars believe the Middle East is the riskiest region in the world for tourism (Carter, 1998; Lepp & Gibson, 2008; Lepp et al., 2011; Jones, 2019). Moreover, in Lovelock's (2004) study, the riskiest countries are located in the Middle East (e.g., Iran, Iraq, Israel). Tourism studies have selected some of the Middle Eastern countries –e.g., Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Turkey, etc. – as risky sample destinations in their works (Fuchs & Reichel, 2006; Aschauer, 2010; Fuchs & Reichel, 2011; Fuchs et al., 2013; Isaac & Velden, 2018).

The Institution of Economics & Peace (IEP) is an "independent, non-partisan, non-profit" think-tank that is devoted to turning the world's attention to peace as a tangible,

optimistic, and attainable measurement of human advancement and well-being. IEP attempts to establish new conceptual frameworks to describe peacefulness; to deliver measurements for evaluating peace; to expose the relations between peace, business, and wealth; and promote a deeper comprehension of the economic, cultural, and political elements that generate peace. The IEP has published 14 editions of the Global Peace Index (GPI), which rank 163 independent regions and countries based on their peacefulness levels. IEP believes the GPI is the world's foremost measurement of worldwide peacefulness (Institute for Economics & Peace, 2020).

The GPI includes 99.7% of the global population in the world. It utilises 23 qualitative and quantitative indicators out of extremely valued sources and gauges the peace status across three areas: "the level of Societal Safety and Security; the extent of Ongoing Domestic and International Conflict; and the degree of Militarisation" (p. 6). According to GPI (2020), the Middle East and North Africa -called MENA- is the global least peaceful region for six successive years. Out of the ten global least peaceful countries, four are located in this region, and there is no country in MENA that rated more than 27th on the GPI (Institute for Economics & Peace, 2020). Table 3.2. shows the GPI scores for this region. Figure 3.1. demonstrates the GPI scores for the whole world in the range of very low to very high.

Figure 3.1. Global Peace Index, 2020



Source: Institute for Economics & Peace (2020)

Table 3.2. Global Peace Index in the Middle East and North Africa, 2020

Middle East & North Africa

Regional Rank	Country	Overall Score	Score change	Overall Rank
1	Qatar	1.616	-0.046	27
2	Kuwait	1.723	-0.048	39
3	United Arab Emirates	1.752	-0.042	41
4	Oman	1.941	-0.012	68
5	Jordan	1.958	-0.027	72
6	Morocco	2.057	0.005	83
7	Tunisia	2.09	0.009	92
8	Bahrain	2.209	-0.111	110
9	Algeria	2.287	0.002	117
10	Saudi Arabia	2.443	-0.021	128
11	Egypt	2.481	0.052	130
12	Iran	2.672	0.137	142
13	Palestine	2.699	0.052	143
14	Israel	2.775	-0.004	145
15	Lebanon	2.828	-0.054	146
16	Sudan	3.043	0.1	153
17	Libya	3.258	-0.011	157
18	Yemen	3.411	0.051	159
19	Iraq	3.487	0.119	161
20	Syria	3.539	-0.023	162
REGIONAL AVERAGE		2.513	0.006	

Source: Institute for Economics & Peace (2020)

3.2.1.2. Which Countries Make up the Middle East?

There are several sources that mention Middle Eastern countries (Table 3.3). They have some differences; for example, based on United Nations, Afghanistan is one of the Middle Eastern countries, but UNWTO did not include it. We believe the United Nations categorisation is very wide. On the other hand, UNWTO's categorisation is very narrow. It includes Arab countries whose official language is Arabic. But it's not the concept of the Middle East. The World Population Review could provide the most comprehensive categorisation for the Middle east that matches its concept. Therefore, the Middle East has 17 countries: Bahrain, Cyprus, Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Turkey, United Arab Emirates, and Yemen (World Population Review, 2021).

Table 3.3. The Middle Eastern Countries in Different Sources

Countries / sources	United Nations	UNWTO	World Population Review	Unicef	Encyclopedia Britannica	Lonely Planet	TripAdvisor	BBC
Afghanistan	Y				Y			
Algeria								Y
Bahrain	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Cyprus	Y		Y		Y			

Djibouti	Y							
Egypt	Y	Y	Y		Y	Y		Y
Eritrea	Y							
Ethiopia	Y							
Golan Heights								Y
Iran	Y		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Iraq	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y	Y
Israel	Y		Y		Y	Y	Y	Y
Jordan	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Kuwait	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y	Y
Lebanon	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Libya	Y	Y			Y			Y
Mauritania								Y
Morocco								Y
Oman	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Pakistan	Y				Y			
Palestine	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Qatar	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Somalia	Y							
Saudi Arabia	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Sudan	Y				Y			Y
Syria	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y	Y
Tunisia								Y
Turkey	Y		Y		Y	Y		
Turkmenistan	Y							
United Arab Emirates (UAE)	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Yemen	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y	Y

Note: Y represents "Yes included"

3.2.1.3. What Is the Middle East?

We can define the concept of the Middle East based on several features, as followed:

Creation: A history that dates to the Middle Ages

Geographically: 17 countries located in Western Asia and extends into Egypt

Ethnicity: A vast number of ethnic groups

Religion: Many major religions originated in this region. Islam is the most practiced religion throughout the region

Language: Different official languages like Arabic, Berber, Kurdish, Persian, and Turkish. Arabic is the most spoken language, with Persian taking 2nd place.

Economy: Very diverse; some countries are very wealthy and depend on oil, while others are very poor

Population: Over 411 million in 2016, and it is expected to continue rapid growth (World Population Review, 2021).

Figure 3.2. The Middle Eastern Countries, 2021

**The Middle Eastern countries are highlighted in yellow*.
Source: World Population Review (2020)

3.2.2. Sampling

3.2.2.1. Worldwide Perspective

The sampling process of this study divides into two sections: first, destination sampling, second, target-market sampling. In brief, we selected a region as a destination and the rest of the world as a target market. Because of that, we call it the "worldwide perspective of sampling." Each section explains as follows.

Destination Sampling:

As mentioned before, the Middle East region can fit the conceptualization of a risky destination in the big picture. The main focus of this study is tourist experience in a special kind of 'destination.' Therefore, it was crucial which countries will be selected at the end to collect data. Two criteria were set to ensure the solid theoretical and practical logic behind selected sample destinations, first, homogenous sample destinations in terms of their tourism status, second, suitability of practical implications for them.

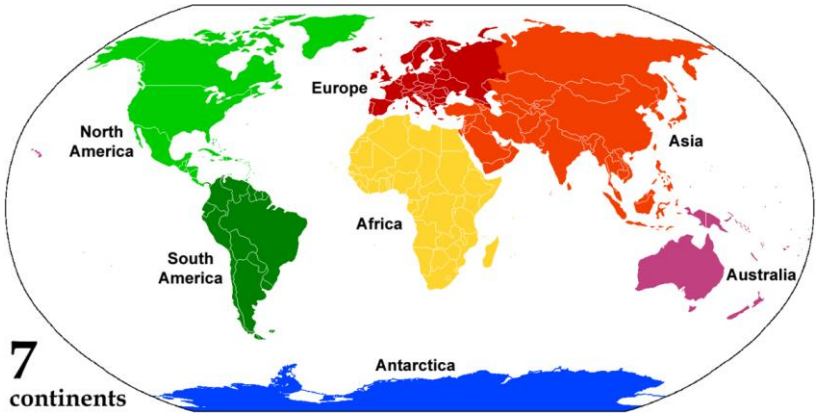
Based on these two criteria, Bahrain, Iraq, Syria, and Yemen were excluded because they did not report to UNWTO for several years. Thus, their top market countries were not available to compare with others, but it also showed that tourism development might not be their development priority. Cyprus, Palestine, and Turkey were excluded because their top markets in Asia and Europe were different from the rest of ME countries, or they did not specify the nationality of arrival tourists in their report to UNWTO. Thus, their top markets were not available. For Turkey, it needs to add that it is one of the top 10 tourist destinations in the world. Therefore, it may not fit the risky destination concept in this study (World Tourism Organization, 2019, 2020).

In the end, seven ME countries were excluded because of conflict with two exclusion criteria, and ten ME destinations were selected as final destination samples. They include Egypt, Iran, Jordan, Kuwait, Israel, Lebanon, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and United Arab Emirates (UAE). In the following section, their homogeneity and suitability for practical implications of this study have been explained in more detail.

Target-Market Sampling:

According to the World Population Review (2021), there are seven continents on the Earth, including Africa, Antarctica, Asia, Australia, Europe, North America, and South America (Figure 3.3). But only six of them are residential. Therefore, to cover all six continents in target-market sampling, the following method was applied. First, identify the top 5 markets in each continent for each selected Middle Eastern country –destination– then select a consistent market-country within all ten destinations on each continent.

Figure 3.3. Seven Continents



Note. Categorization of Seven Continents. From *Continent*, by Wikipedia, n.d. (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Continent). Copyright 2021 by The Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

To accomplish this process, World Tourism Organization's (2020) reports on the total number of tourists and market share have been used. As UNWTO has different categorisations of countries based on the continent than the World Population Review, we first re-categorised each country into six continents: Asia, Europe, North America, South America, Oceania, and Africa. Then, we ranked the countries in each continent based on the total number of tourists who travelled to this destination. Finally, we picked the first top 5 countries as top 5 market countries. In order to avoid duplication, all 17 Middle Eastern countries which also belong to either Asia, Africa, or Europe have been omitted from the market countries list (Appendix 1).

After comparing all top 5 market-countries for all 10 Middle Eastern destinations, the final sample for target-market countries are as follows in Table 3.4: China and India as representative for Asia, France, and the United Kingdom as representative for Europe, the United States of America as representative for North America, Brazil as representative for South America, and Australia as representative for Oceania. In total, seven countries were selected as the sample target market.

Table 3.4. Final Sample Market-countries for these 10 Middle Eastern destinations

Continent	**Selected Market-Countries**
Asia	China India
Europe	France United Kingdom
North America	United States of America
South America	Brazil
Oceania	Australia
Total	7 market-countries

As the majority of the top 10 outbound markets in the world belong to Asia and Europe and the rest are from North America, South America, and Oceania, we have selected two countries for each continent in the first group and one country for each continent in the

second group. Moreover, there is no target-market country from the African continent in the final sample for two main reasons. The first and main reason, there is an inconsistency between the top 5 African-market countries in the 10 ME destinations. Second, no African country is in the top 10 but also the top 30 outbound markets in the world (World Tourism Organization and European Travel Commission, 2007; Statista, 2018).

3.2.2.2. Significance of Selected Sample: Middle East

Searching the keyword "Middle East" in different databases provides many publications (Table 3.5). But when we reviewed deeply the most important ones – articles published in A+ to B journals – we found a research gap. They are mainly theoretical studies or about perception, destination image, stereotype, travel intention, etc., of people who work in the tourism industry or people who may intend to travel to this region. They are a few studies based on tourists' actual experience. When we checked their selected sample of Middle Eastern countries as destinations, the maximum number was four countries. However, it was very rare. Besides, the selected target market was only one or two. Therefore, there is no empirical study with this worldwide perspective on global target-market countries of a big sample of Middle Eastern destinations and analysing tourists' experiences.

Table 3.5. Number of publications about "The Middle East" in different databases

Source	No. of publications
Google Scholar	3,480,000
Web of Science	936
EBSCO	16,690
Scopus (Total)	2070
Scopus (Article)	1389
ABDC Ranking 2019 (A+ to B)	1843

In addition, this study has provided valuable implications for these ten Middle Eastern destinations. As mentioned before, some countries in the Middle East do not focus on tourism, or their tourism status is much higher than others in the region. Therefore, they have been omitted from the sample destination. But all of these selected ten ME destinations share the strategy of attracting more tourists and considering tourism development as a priority in development plans. As Table 3.6 shows, they have an appropriate actual tourism condition

commensurate with their potential of tourism. These two aspects are in line with their ideal tourism plan.

For instance, Egypt attracted more than 11 million tourists in 2018 and had more than 11.5 million USD recipients from international tourism. Egypt has many potential human resources for the tourism industry as its population in 2020 was more than 102 million. It also has a good base for tourism infrastructure as its area is almost one million km^2. Egypt is also rich in tourism attraction since it has seven registered items on the UNESCO heritage list. According to visa facilitation, passport holders from 50 countries can travel there, visa-free or visa on arrival. According to the ideal plan, Egypt aimed to attract 20 million tourists by 2020. And Government/Authority's insight into tourism development is to envisage six new destinations Inside Egypt.

Table 3.6. Actual, Potential, and Ideal Tourism Status in Sample Middle East Destinations

Destinations	ACTUAL		POTENTIAL				IDEAL	
	Tourists arrivals 2018	**International tourism receipts 2018 (USD million)**	**Population 2020**	**Area (km^2)**	**Items in UNESCO**	**Visa Facilitation (No. countries)***	**Target No. of Tourists/ GDP**	**Tourism Development Insights by Government/ Authority**
United Arab Emirates	21,286,085	21,375	9,925,318	83,600	1	73	23m-25m visitors by 2025	US$300 billion on infrastructure development by 2030
Saudi Arabia	15,334,335	12,038	34,993,787	2,149,690	6	56	$81 billion of GDP by 2026 %10 of GDP by 2030 100 million international & domestic visits by 2030	Launched tourist visa since September 2019 Invest US$54 billion by 2030 develop the tourism infrastructure
Egypt	11,346,389	11,615	102,950,132	995,450	7	50	20 million tourists by 2020	envisage 6 new destinations Inside Egypt
Kuwait	8,507,971	395	4,293,307	17,820	-	59	25 million annual passengers by 2025	Developing tourism as one of Kuwaiti government's priorities & national income sources in Kuwait invest $1 billion in tourism sector by 2025

Iran	7,294,823	4,402	84,324,129	1,628,550	26	177	20 million tourists by 2025	meetings with UNWTO in Tehran to develop tourism in Iran Develop tourism industry to meet the target of an oil-free economy
Jordan	4,150,171	5,249	10,242,226	88,780	6	134	visitors spending rise to US$ 8.45 billion by 2027	tourism is a key growth industry
Israel	4,120,863	7,241	8,698,223	21,640	9	100	most popular urban destination by 2030	increase demand for the Israel destination incentive programs to facilitate construction of new hotels & expansion of existing ones develop tourism infrastructure
Oman	3,241,756	1,748	5,150,474	309,500	5	103	11.7m international and local tourists per year by 2040	US$50 million investments by 2040 enhancing the standard of living in Oman provide employment opportunities
Lebanon	1,963,917	8,400	6,825,793	10,230	5	81	USD 2 billion of GDP by 2025 100K jobs by 2025	Lebanon shine brighter on the global map host international congress parties and events for the Middle East make tourism industry as a major revenue generator for Lebanon

Qatar	1,819,344	5,565	2,899,149	11,610	1	89	5.6 million visitors annually by 2023 US$11.3 billion of GDP by 2023	Invest US$45 billion in Qatar's tourism sector by 2030 to attract 500,000 cruise tourists by 2026 Tourism is one of five priority sectors to diversify Qatar's economy

**No. of countries whose passport holders can travel visa-free or visa on arrival there.*

Source: Arab News (2017), Algethami (2014), Cision News (2020), Council of Ministers (2017), Jordan Investment Committee (2017), eTurboNews (2015), Government Communications Office (2020), Guha (2020), IFP Editorial Staff (2019), Karantzavelou (2019), Lebanon Traveler (2017), Masciullo (2018), Ministry of Planning and Economic Development (2016), Ministry of Tourism (2018), Ministry of Information (2016), Ministry of Tourism Sultanate of Oman (2020), Ministry of Cultural Heritage Tourism and Handicrafts (2020), Ministry of Foreign Affairs (2020), Ministry of Environment (2017), Mubasher (2017), Online Travel Evisa Society Limited (2020), Oxford Business Group (2020a, b), Peninsula (2017), Soltani (2016), Sophia (2014), The Business Year (2018), World Population Review (2021), World Tourism Organization (2019), United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO] (2021)

3.2.2.3. Sample for Pilot-test

A pilot test is a feasibility study or pre-testing of a specific research instrument. Conducting a pilot test has many advantages, including detecting potential problems or inappropriateness in the proposed research instrument before the main research project; thus, a pilot test sets the stage for good research design (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2010). In more detail, a pilot test can help to screen the measurement, check its reliability and validity to make sure that questions are clear and comprehensive. It is a significant step because it assists researchers in knowing potential problems in a questionnaire or data collection method and possible weaknesses (Oppenheim, 1992). Although a pilot study is time-consuming, it can prevent wasting more considerable time, money, and effort during the main study (Mason & Zuercher, 1995).

In the present study, data collection for the pilot-test stage was conducted after finalising the questionnaire based on the expel panellists' comments and feedback. It was through an online survey. Dynata HK Ltd Online Survey Company was hired to help to distribute the questionnaire. It was a special collaboration. The Ph.D. candidate performed the online survey programming procedure by herself in December 2020. The Qualtrics platform

was used to scrip as SHTM provides free access to all its professors and students on this platform.

Dillman's approach propose that a 'respondent-friendly' questionnaire might be helpful to minimise the occurrence of non-response amongst those who less probably reply (Dillman, 1991; Dillman et al., 1974). From this perspective, the online questionnaire's hypertext link was first sent to nine persons with different educational backgrounds for free criticism and suggestions about the design. They include two Ph.D. students and two professors at the School of Hotel and Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University; one Ph.D. candidate at School of Design, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University; one Ph.D. in Metal engineering at the City University of Hong Kong; one M.A. in Education field; one M.A. in Medical Librarianship field; and one Software Developer. Their invaluable insights about the questionnaire design, such as font, size, colour, etc., were applied on the link to make sure the questionnaire is 'respondent-friendly'. After designing the online questionnaire, the survey link has been shared with Dynata Online survey company to distribute to its panel based on the sample specification as described below.

The survey was launched from the end of December 2020 to the beginning of January 2021. The criteria for the pilot-test sampling were similar to the main survey. So, respondents should pass the following criteria (as the screening question in the survey) to make sure they are the target sample for this study:

- Nationality: Only Australia, the United Kingdom, and the United States of America[1].
- People who have travelled to the Middle East region before –Bahrain, Cyprus, Egypt, Iran, Jordan, Kuwait, Iraq, Lebanon, Oman, Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Israel, Syria, Turkey, Yemen, United Arab Emirates.
- In the past five years, they should visit at least one of ten ME destinations include Egypt, Iran, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Israel, and United Arab Emirates.

[1]The rational of only focusing on these three nationalities out of seven target markets is the language. It is better for respondents to answer the survey in their local languages to avoid any misunderstanding and to make sure all respondents could grasp the questions/statements. The questionnaire is originally in English, therefore, for pilot-test only English-speaking market countries have been chosen. The translation process of final questionnaire for main survey will be explained in chapter four.

- They should not have any of these ME countries' passports or right of abode there.
- They should not have lived in any of these ME countries for more than six months.

The last two screening questions have been designed to make sure all respondents were tourists, not permanent or temporary residents there. According to Connelly (2008), a pilot study sample should be at least 10% of the main survey sample size. A sample of 83 respondents based on the above criteria has been collected, which is higher than the minimum required sample size (340 × 10% = 34). The results of the pilot test will be explained in chapter four.

3.2.2.4. Sample for Main Survey

The final stage of data collection was the main survey. The same online survey company, Dynata HK Ltd., was hired to distribute the final questionnaire among respondents. As explained in 3.2.2.2., there are ten Middle Eastern countries as sample destinations and seven target-market countries as sample markets. Respondents were required to pass the following criteria (as the screening question in the survey) to make sure they are the target sample for this study:

- Nationality: Australia, Brazil, China, India, France, the United Kingdom, and the United States of America.
- People have travelled to the Middle East region before –Bahrain, Cyprus, Egypt, Iran, Jordan, Kuwait, Iraq, Lebanon, Oman, Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Israel, Syria, Turkey, Yemen, United Arab Emirates.
- In the past five years, they should visit at least one of 10 ME destinations include Egypt, Iran, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and United Arab Emirates.
- They should not have any of these ME countries' passports or right of abode there.
- They should not have lived in any of these ME countries for more than six months.

The rule of thumb for the minimum sample to run PLS-SEM is equal to the larger of the following: 1. ten times the largest number of formative indicators applied to measure one construct, or 2. ten times the largest number of structural paths directed at a specific latent construct in the structural model (Hair et al., 2011; 2014). In the present study, the first one is larger. The largest number of formative indicators is 34 for Destination Perceived Risk[1]. Therefore, the minimum sample size was 320 (32 × 10 = 320). As there are seven market countries, we decided to collect at least 100 samples from each country (Table 3.7). To ensure all ME destinations will be included, Dynata has been asked to collect at least 35 and a maximum of 100 samples per destination. It means, for example, we expect to have at least 35 respondents who have travelled to Lebanon in the past five years. In the end, 871 samples have been collected for the main survey, and the required range per destination has been achieved. More details will be provided in chapter five.

Table 3.7. The proposed sample size for each target-market country

Continent	Target-Market Countries	Sample Size
Asia	China	100
	India	100
Europe	France	100
	United Kingdom	100
North America	United States of America	100
South America	Brazil	100
Oceania	Australia	100
Total	7 market-countries	700

3.2.3. Instrument & Measurement

The key variables in this study are destination perceived risk, prior experience with risk, perceived local people/tour leader support, self-efficacy, task value, achievement emotions, and memorable tourism experience. In this section, measurements of each variable are explained, which have been designed based on previous literature.

There are many scales in tourism literature that tried to identify tourists' perception about the different type of risks in a destination (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Fuchs &

[1] It will be explained in the next section, 3.2.3, in details.

Reichel, 2006; Qi et al., 2009; Lepp & Gibson, 2011; Fuchs et al., 2013; Wang, 2017; Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009). But to measure the destination perceived risk (DPR) variable in the present study, we considered some features to choose the most appropriate scale. Finally, Fuchs and Reichel's (2006) destination risk perception scale has been selected. The reasons are, first, they have tested this scale on Israel, which is matched with a risky destination definition in the present study. Second, they introduced a "destination risk perception," not a "travel risk perception," which latter is not our research's aim. Third, their scale statements refer to tourists' perceptions before they arrived at a destination. It is exactly our focus, too; we intend to investigate tourists' perceptions before they arrive in the selected destination in the Middle East. And finally, this study is one of the most cited articles in tourist destination risk perception area, so their scale has been approved many times (Fuchs & Reichel, 2011; Karamustafa, Fuchs, & Reichel, 2013; Fuchs et al., 2013; Chew & Jahari, 2014; Yang et al., 2015; Wang, 2017; Khan, Khan, Amin, & Chelliah, 2020).

This scale consists of six subgroups: three items for overall risk perception and 29 items for physical risk, financial risk, performance risk, socio-psychological risk, and time risk (Table 3.8). Respondents could indicate their opinions about each statement in a seven-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree), except for one item in overall risk, which the answer should be in a seven-point Likert scale (1= very risky to 7 = very safe).

Table 3.8. Destination Perceived Risk (DPR) Component

	Item
	Overall Risk Perception
1	To what extent did your friends or relatives see this country as a risky place to visit? (1=very risky to 7=very safe)
2	I thought that my family/friends would worry about my safety while I was in this country.
3	Prior to my trip, I viewed this country as more dangerous than other places around the world.
	Physical Risk
Before traveling to this country, I was concerned …	
4	about food safety problems in this country.
5	that there might be epidemic diseases in this country.
6	about natural disasters in this country such as earthquakes, floods and storms.
7	about getting injured in a car accident in this country.
8	about crime (theft, robbery, pickpockets) in this country.
9	about terrorism in this country.
10	about being exposed to danger due to political unrest in this country.
11	that my behaviour would not be well received by some local people (including the way I customarily dress).
	Financial Risk
Before traveling to this country, I was concerned …	
12	that I would not receive good value for my money.
13	that the trip to this country would involve unexpected extra expenses (such as changes in exchange rates, extra costs in hotels).

14	that the trip to this country would be more expensive than other international trips.
15	that the trip to this country would involve more incidental expenses than I had anticipated, such as clothing, maps, sports equipment, babysitters.
16	that the trip to this country would have an impact on my financial situation.
Performance Risk	
Before traveling to this country, I was concerned …	
17	that the weather would be uncomfortable.
18	that the hotels in this destination would be unsatisfactory.
19	that sites would be too crowded.
20	that the food in this country would not be good.
21	about possible strikes (airport, railway station, buses) in this country.
22	that the tourist facilities available to the public in this country would not be acceptable.
23	that the local people would not be friendly.
24	that hospitality employees in this country would not be courteous to international tourists.
Socio-Psychological Risk	
Before traveling to this country, I was concerned …	
25	that a trip to this country would not be compatible with my self-image.
26	that my trip to this country would change the way my friends think of me.
27	that I would not receive personal satisfaction from the trip to this country.
28	that my trip to this country would change the way my family thinks of me.
29	that my trip to this country would not match my status in life (social class).
Time Risk	
Before traveling to this country, I was concerned …	
30	that the trip to this country would be a waste of time.
31	that my trip would waste my valuable vacation time.
32	that planning and preparing for the trip would take too much time.

Source: Fuchs and Reichel (2006)

Prior experience with risk (PER) variable has been designed based on Yang et al.'s (2015) study. It is a categorical variable and had two components, 1. had past experience with risk, and 2. not had past experience with risk. Option one includes tourists who either were repeat-visitor in the selected destination or visited other ME destinations before. And option two include tourists who were first-time visitors to the selected destination and did not visit other ME destinations before. As Table 3.9 shows, two questions have been designed to get the information for these two categories.

Table 3.9. Prior Experience with Risk (PER) Components

	Item	answers
1	How many times have you travelled to this destination?	1. once 2. 2-4 times 3. 5-7 times 4. 8-10 times 5. more than ten times*
2	Have you visited any of these countries in your entire life? *(the selected destination will not be shown here again.)*	1. Bahrain: Yes No 2. Cyprus: Yes No 3. Egypt: Yes No 4. Iran: Yes No 5. Iraq: Yes No 6. Israel: Yes No

		7. Jordan: Yes No 8. Kuwait: Yes No 9. Lebanon: Yes No 10. Oman: Yes No 11. Palestine: Yes No 12. Qatar: Yes No 13. Saudi Arabia: Yes No 14. Syria: Yes No 15. Turkey: Yes No 16. United Arab Emirates: Yes No 17. Yemen: Yes No 18. other: Please write any other visited countries that you perceived as risky destinations

Source: adopted based on Yang et al. (2015) and Sharifpour et al. (2014)

*This range has been designed based on these studies: Karamustafa, Fuchs, & Reichel (2013), Prentice et al. (1994), and Chew & Jahari (2014).

For the ***perceived local people/tour leader support (PLTS)*** variable, five items have been designed based on Lazarides and Buchholz (2019) and Burić (2015). This scale was originally related to perceived teacher support. As discussed in section 2.9, we can consider local people and tour leaders as teachers in a destination for tourists. Therefore, PLTS indicators have been designed to measure the degree of their perceived support by tourists in interacting, experiencing, understanding, and learning while traveling in the selected ME destination. It has five indicators, as Table 3.10 shows. Seven-point Likert Scale (1= strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree) has been used for this variable.

Table 3.10. Perceived Local People/Tour Leader Support (PLTS) Component

Indicators	
'During my trip in this destination...'	
1	Tour leader/local people were interested in the learning progress of every single tourist.
2	Tour leader/local people supported us/me further when I/we needed help.
3	Tour leader/local people supported us/me in the process of learning.
4	Tour leader/local people explained something until we/I understand it.
5	Tour leader/local people gave us/me the opportunity to say what we/I think.

Source: Lazarides and Buchholz (2019) and Burić (2015).

As Wang and Lopez (2020, p. 3) said: "self-efficacy is a personal judgment about one's own ability to complete a task successfully and achieve the expected outcome." In the present study, "task" means travelling to a risky destination on a major scale or any single challenge that possibly occurred during a trip to a risky destination on a minor scale. For the ***self-efficacy (SE)*** variable, seven items will be used based on Lee & Kim's (2018) scale. They

have applied a self-efficacy scale in the tourism context before, and it is similar to the self-efficacy scale introduced by Pintrich et al. (1991) in the education context. Items have been designed in the seven-point Likert Scale (1= strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree) (Table 3.11).

Table 3.11. Self-efficacy (SE) Components

items	
1	During my trip in this destination, I was able to successfully overcome many challenges.
2	I believed I could succeed at most any endeavour to which I set my mind for my trip to this destination.
3	During my trip in this destination, I was confident that I could perform effectively on many different tasks.
4	In general, I thought that I could obtain outcomes that are important to me in traveling to this destination.
5	When facing difficult tasks during my trip in this destination, I was certain that I will accomplish them.
6	Compared to other people, I could do most tasks very well in my trip to this destination.
7	I was able to achieve most of the goals that I had set for myself in traveling to this destination.

Source: Lee & Kim (2018)

As mentioned, learning via travel is occasionally intentional and planned; however, sometimes, it might be an accidental or even unintentional consequence of a travel experience (Falk et al., 2012; Mitchell, 1998). In some leisure and tourism context, people involved in learning experiences, not because of any instrumental purposes, but rather as they enjoy and value the procedure of learning itself. Thus, learning experiences can be considered as intrinsically or autotelic rewarding, and the experience per se is its own reward (Falk et al., 2012; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Packer, 2006).

Therefore, the present study has only focused on ***task value (TV)*** as intrinsic value. TV refers to the people's assessments of how interesting, important, or useful the task is (Pintrich et al., 1991). Here the "task" is travelling to a risky destination. For this variable, six items have been adopted from Pintrich et al.'s (1991) study, which has been applied in many studies in education (Pekrun et al., 2004; Artino, 2009; Pekrun et al., 2010; Pekrun et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2014; Rosas, 2015; Buil et al., 2016; Hutton et al., 2019). As they introduced this scale in the education field, we have sought experts' opinions about the adjusted TV scale in tourism (Table 3.12) before conducting the pilot test. It will explain more in chapter four. A seven-point Likert Scale (1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree) has been used for this variable.

Table 3.12. Task Value (TV) Components

	Original item in Pintrich et al.'s (1991) scale	Adjusted item in the tourism context
1	I think I will be able to use what I learn in this course in other courses.	I thought I would be able to use what I learn on this trip on other trips.
2	It is important for me to learn the course material in this class.	It was important for me to learn about the destination on this trip.
3	I am very interested in the content area of this course.	I was very interested in this destination context.
4	I think the course material in this class is useful for me to learn.	I thought the experience of this trip is useful for me to learn.
5	I like the subject matter of this course.	I liked the destination of this trip.
6	Understanding the subject matter of this course is very important to me.	Understanding about this destination was very important to me.

For ***Achievement Emotion (AE)*** components, Pekrun et al.'s (2005b) AEQ-M scale has been applied, which was introduced in education to test students' achievement emotions. The original instrument has 60 items in 7 scales to test seven emotions. After adjusting the scales in the tourism context, the instrument was reduced to 54 items. Tables 3.14 to 3.20 present the initial achievement emotions. Like the TV scale, first AE scales have been checked by expert panellists then tested through the pilot test. Seven-point Likert Scale (1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree) has been used for this variable.

Table 3.13. Achievement Anger Components

	Original item in AEQ	Adjusted item in the Tourism Context
1	I am annoyed during my math class. (D)	I was annoyed during my trip.
2	I am so angry during my math class that I would like to leave. (D)	I was so angry during my trip that I would like to leave.
3	I get angry because the material in mathematics is so difficult. (D)	I got angry because this destination was so difficult.
4	I get irritated by my math class. (D)	I got irritated by my trip.
5	My mathematics homework makes me angry. (D)	My trip made me angry.
6	I get angry because my math homework occupies so much of my time. (D)	I got angry because my trip occupied so much of my time.
7	I am so angry that I would like to throw my homework into the thrash. (D)	During my trip, I was so angry that I would like to throw my ticket into the trash.
8	I am annoyed that the teacher asks such difficult questions. (D)	During my trip, I was annoyed that the local people/tour leader asked such difficult questions.

(D: during)

Table 3.14. Achievement Anxiety Components

	Original item in AEQ	Adjusted item in the Tourism Context

1	I worry if the material is much too difficult for me. (D)	During my trip, I worried if it would be much too difficult for me.
2	I worry whether I will ever be able to completely understand the material. (D)	During my trip, I worried whether I will ever be able to completely understand this destination.
3	I start sweating because I am worried I cannot complete my assignments in time. (D)	During my trip, I started sweating because I was worried I could not complete my trip in time. (D)
4	I am tense and nervous. (D)	During my trip, I was tense and nervous.
5	When taking the math test, I worry I will get a bad grade. (D)	When taking this trip, I worried I would get a bad experience.
6	I am so anxious that I can't fully concentrate. (D)	During my trip, I was so anxious that I couldn't fully concentrate.

(D: during)

Table 3.15. Achievement Boredom Components

	Original item in AEQ	**Adjusted item in the Tourism Context**
1	I think the mathematics class is boring. (D)	During my trip, I thought this destination is boring.
2	I can't concentrate because I am so bored. (D)	During my trip, I couldn't concentrate because I was so bored.
3	I am so bored that I can't stay awake. (D)	During my trip, I was so bored that I couldn't stay awake.
4	My math homework bores me to death. (D)	My trip bored me to death.
5	I'm so bored that I don't feel like studying anymore. (D)	During my trip, I was so bored that I didn't feel like staying anymore.

(D: during)

Table 3.16. Achievement Enjoyment Components

	Original item in AEQ	**Adjusted item in the Tourism Context**
1	I enjoy my math class. (D)	I enjoyed my trip.
2	The material we deal with in mathematics is so exciting that I really enjoy my class. (D)	The destination we dealt with on this trip was so exciting that I really enjoyed my trip.
3	I enjoy my class so much that I am strongly motivated to participate. (D)	I enjoyed my trip so much that I was strongly motivated to participate.
4	When doing my math homework, I am in a good mood. (D)	When making my trip, I was in a good mood.
5	I am happy that I understand the material. (D)	I was happy that I understood about this destination.
6	I think that things are going great. (D)	During my trip, I thought that things were going great.

(D: during)

Table 3.17. Achievement Hopelessness Components

	Original item in AEQ	**Adjusted item in the Tourism Context**
1	During the math test, I feel hopeless. (D)	During my trip, I felt hopeless.
2	I keep thinking that I don't understand the material. (D)	During my trip, I kept thinking that I wouldn't understand this destination.

3	I would prefer to give up. (D)	During my trip, I would prefer to give up.
4	I have no energy. (D)	During my trip, I had no energy.

(D: during)

Table 3.18. Achievement Pride Components

	Original item in AEQ	**Adjusted item in the Tourism Context**
1	I think I can be proud of my knowledge in mathematics. (A)	I think I can be proud of my knowledge about this destination.
2	I am proud of my contributions to the math class. (A)	I am proud of my contributions to this trip.
3	I am very motivated because I want to be proud of my achievements in mathematics. (D)	During my trip, I was very motivated because I wanted to be proud of my achievements in this trip.
4	After a math test, I am proud of myself. (A)	After my trip, I am proud of myself.
5	I am proud of how well I have done on the math test. (A)	I am proud of how well I have done on my trip.

(D: during, A: after)

Table 3.19. Achievement Shame Components

	Original item in AEQ	**Adjusted item in the Tourism Context**
1	When I say something in my math class, I can tell that my face gets red. (D)	When I said something on my trip, I can tell that my face got red.
2	I am ashamed that I cannot answer my math teacher's questions well. (D)	During my trip, I was ashamed that I couldn't answer my tour leader' s/local people's questions well.
3	When I say something in my math class, I feel like embarrassing myself. (D)	When I said something on my trip, I felt like embarrassing myself.
4	I am embarrassed about my lack of knowledge in mathematics. (A)	I am embarrassed about my lack of knowledge about this destination.
5	When I don't understand something in my math homework, I don't want to tell anybody. (D)	During my trip, when I didn't understand something about the destination, I didn't want to tell anybody.
6	When I discuss the homework assignments with my classmates, I avoid eye contact. (D)	During my trip, when I discussed the destination with my travel companions, I avoided eye contact.
7	After taking a test in mathematics, I feel ashamed. (A)	After taking this trip, I feel ashamed.
8	I start sweating because my performance on the math exam embarrasses me. (D)	During my trip, I started sweating because of my performance at the destination embarrassed me.

(D: during, A: after)

For the ***Memorable Tourism Experience (MTE)*** variable, twenty-four items have been used based on Kim et al.'s (2012) scale. Previous studies believe that it is the most comprehensive scale for MTE (Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Kim & Chen, 2019; Sthapit, 2019). A seven-point Likert Scale (1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree) has been used for this variable.

Table 3.20. Memorable Tourism Experience (MTE) Components

	Item
Hedonism	
1	I was thrilled about having a new experience in this country.
2	I indulged in activities.
3	I really enjoyed the trip.
4	I had an exciting trip.
Novelty	
5	I had a once-in-a-lifetime experience.
6	I had a unique experience.
7	My trip was different from previous trips.
8	I experienced something new.
Local culture	
9	I had a good impression about the local culture.
10	I had a chance to closely experience the local culture.
11	The locals in this destination were friendly to me.
Refreshment	
12	I relieved stress during the trip.
13	I felt free from daily routine during the trip.
14	I had a refreshing experience.
15	I felt better after the trip.
Meaningfulness	
16	I felt that I did something meaningful.
17	I felt that I did something important.
18	I learned something about myself from the trip.
Involvement	
19	I visited a place that I really wanted to visit.
20	I enjoyed activities that I really wanted to do.
21	I was interested in the main activities offered.
Knowledge	
22	I gained a lot of information during the trip.
23	I gained a new skill (s) from the trip.
24	I experienced new culture (s).

Source: Kim, Ritchie & McCormick (2012)

Nine *travel characteristics* variables have also been designed: nationality, latest travel date to the selected destination, length of stay, accommodation, travel accompanies, number of travel accompanies, and purpose of the trip. The scale for the length of stay has been proposed based on Martínez-Garcia & Raya (2008) study. It includes 1-3 nights, 4-7 nights, 8-15 nights, 16-30 nights, 31-60 nights, more than 61 nights. The scale for travel companion has also been designed based on Wong & Liu (2011) study. It includes one person, 2-3 persons, 4-6 persons, more than seven persons. And the purpose of the trip question has been designed based on Park & Nicolau's (2019) study. It includes leisure, business, visits to friends/relatives, education, pilgrimage, health, and others.

After that, four *demographic characteristics* include age, gender, education, marital status, occupation, and salary, have been asked. For occupation, Chen & Tsai's (2007) scale has been used. It includes Civil servant, Service worker, Clerical worker, Self-employed, Student, Housework, and Others. For salary, Schroeder et al.'s (2013) range has been applied, which is in USD. It includes under $15,000; $15,000-24,999; $25,000-49,999; $50,000-74,999; $75,000-99,999; $100,000-124,999; $125,000-149,999; and $150,000 or more. Since seven countries were selected as target markets, this range has been considered as the reference range to convert into other currencies. The XE Foreign Exchange Company website has been used on 23 December 2020 to exchange the reference range into GBP (for participants from the United Kingdom), AUD (for Australia), BRL (for Brazil), CNY (for China), EUR (for France), and INR (for India).

Chapter Three Summary

To sum up, the purpose of this study is to understand tourist's achievement emotion in visiting a risky destination and its relationships with its antecedents and outcome in the tourist experience. This study selects the post-positivism philosophy and paradigm and PLS-SEM approach to achieve the seven objectives and test the twenty-seven hypotheses and proposed model. This chapter explains the administrative stages of this research, the unique sample of this study, and the instruments in detail. The next chapter describes the questionnaire validation process before conducting the main survey.

CHAPTER FOUR: QUESTIONNAIRE VALIDATION

4.1. Content Validity

As mentioned in the prior chapter, some variables' scales, e.g., PLTS, achievement emotions, TV, and SE have been borrowed from the education field. For the first time, they have been applied in the tourism context. Therefore, after adjusting the indicators by the Ph.D. student and before conducting the pilot test, expert panellists have validated them. This process, which is called content validity, is the extent to which the instrument's content thoroughly and rationally assesses all facets that planned to measure, simultaneously, does not embrace unnecessary items (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Haynes et al., 1995; Netemeyer et al., 2003).

First, the invitation emails and evaluation forms have been sent to 35 experts in tourism (17 professors and doctoral) and education/psychology (18 professors). Then after one week, a reminder email has been sent to anyone who didn't respond yet. In the end, 18 expert panellists – 12 tourism experts and six education/psychology experts – sent the completed evaluation forms. They were from the Hong Kong Polytechnic University, the University of Mazandaran (Iran), and Ludwig Maximilian University of Munich[1] (Germany).

The expert panellists were asked to assess each indicator based on its original version in terms of representativeness (Zaichkowsky,1985). They could express their opinions on a 3-point scale (3 = clearly representative; 2 = somewhat representative; 1= not representative) and also write comments/suggestions to improve each item. After receiving their evaluations and analysing their opinions, each variables' indicators ranked from high to low. For example, the representativeness for PLTS indicators was from 2.067 to 2.933, for SE ranged from 2.529 to 2.933, for TV were from 2.412 to 2.882, for achievement enjoyment ranged from 2.294 to 3.000, for pride achievement ranged from 2.250 to 2.824, for anger achievement ranged from 2.200 to 2.857, for anxiety achievement were from 1.857 to 2.929, for shame achievement ranged from 2.000 to 2.667, for hopelessness achievement ranged

[1] It was a big fortune for this study that one of the expert panellists was Prof. Reinhard Pekrun, who introduced the CVTAE for the first time and has many publications on this theory.

from 2.267 to 2.533, and for boredom, achievement ranged from 2.357 to 2.786 (Appendix 3).

In the next step, the top four indicators in each construct that got the highest score were selected to retain. Then, the retained statements were modified based on the expert panellists' comments (Appendix 4). All modified words are highlighted in **bold blue** to be recognisable easily. Based on expert panellists' comments, the PLTS were asked participants in the pilot-test and main survey as two separate questions. They believe there are two points to be considered, first tourists' opinions about tour leader support during their trip might be different than their opinions about local people supports. Second, some tourists may not experience any contact with tour leaders during their trip. Therefore, tour leader support (TLS) and local people support (LPS) were asked in the pilot-test and main survey separately. To avoid confusion and help respondents to pick the appropriate answer, they were asked to first tell about the way of travelling to this destination by answering the following question:

> "Before responding to the next question, please tell us that How did you travel to this destination?
>
> 1. in a group tour
> 2. independent traveller, experienced a local tour guide
> 3. independent traveller, NOT experienced a local tour guide."

Then based on their responses, appropriate questions –either PTS or PLS– have been displayed for them to reply.

For SE and TV, a few modifications have been made in the statement's wording to make them more clear and solid for the participant. Based on the expert panellists' comments, some modifications have also been made in seven achievement emotions indicators (Appendix 4). After finishing all modifications, the final questionnaire for the pilot test (Appendix 5) has been scripted via the Qualtrics platform by the Ph.D. student. Then, Dynata online survey company distributed it among its panel based on the sampling criteria explained in chapter three in detail. The results of the pilot-test analysis are present in the next section.

4.2. Pilot-Test

4.2.1. Data Screening

The final dataset shows that 274 people accessed the survey link. 180 were screened out, 122 because of screen questions, and 58 persons because of quota full. Finally, 94 completed surveys were received and 83 out of 94 questionnaires were acceptable based on the quality criteria. These criteria were set up before launching the survey and agreed on with the Dynata, the hired Online survey company. Therefore, any respondents with at least one of the following scenarios have been deleted and considered as not acceptable:

- the wrong response to one or more than one trapping question. There are six trapping questions in the questionnaire, such as “Please select number 3 on the scale.”
- Speeding: the minimum time duration for completing this survey is 420 seconds. Less than this is not acceptable. In the final dataset, the minimum time duration to answer the survey was 437 seconds, and the maximum was 9002 seconds.
- Straight lining: The respondent selects the same response for all or most of the survey or even for a nonsensical number of questions.
- Duplicate responses: it refers to more than one survey completed by the same person or same IP address.
- Random responding: e.g., gibberish and nonsensical,
- Illogical or inconsistent: e.g., highly contradictory selections,
- Bot Detection: prevent bots from accessing the survey. In order to achieve this, a CAPTCHA has been added to the beginning of the questionnaire.

After receiving the data, the researcher employed Excel 2016, SPSS 26 (Statistical Package for the Social Science), and SmartPLS 3 software to clean and analyse it. Checking the missing data was the next step of data screening. There were no missing data, as all questions in the Online questionnaire were set as compulsory to respond to. However, 38 out of 83 respondents whose Perceived Tour Leader Support (PTS) questions were “not applicable (N.A.)” as they did not experience tour guides during their trip to the selected

destination. The common approach to treat the N.A. items is the missing value (Lee & Graefe, 2003; Bentley et al., 2012).

The next step of data screening is checking for outliers. Outliers refer to extreme responses to questions (Hair et al., 2017a). Scholars believe that several sources can result in presenting the outliers. They outlined three groups of these sources: 1. the errors that happen during the data collection process, such as data recording error and errors in preparing data for the analysis stage, such as typo; 2. the unforeseeable measurement related errors from respondents such as guessing and inattentiveness which might be resulting from fatigue, and mis-responding which may happen when, for instance, respondents misunderstand the instruction; and 3. including participants who do not belong to the target sample (Liu et al., 2010; Liu & Zumbo, 2007).

In this study, to avoid type 1 error, after applying any changes in the online survey, the PhD student tested both the SPSS and excel outputs of the online survey to ensure there were no typos or mistakes in data recording. As a solution for type 2 error, each completed questionnaire was checked based on the quality criteria, as mentioned before. These criteria (trapping questions, speeding, and straight-lining) helped to make sure that respondents did not answer with inattentiveness or misunderstanding. Eleven questionnaires were deleted at this stage. Finally, to solve type 3 error, firstly, Dynata online survey company did all their best to find the most appropriate participants in their panel. Besides, the PhD student designed five strict screening questions to ensure only the target population could access the questionnaire. In this stage, 122 respondents were terminated.

All variables in this study were designed on a 7-point Likert scale. The Likert scale is considered as an ordinal variable. Scholars claim that there is difficulty in defining outliers in ordinal variables. For example, suppose univariate outliers are described as the observations distinct from the majority of the observations in a dataset for an ordinal variable corresponding to a ranking. In that case, no unit can be viewed as an outlier because each observation takes on a value from 1 to n. For instance, in an ordered categorical variable with k levels, a unit may have each of k, a priori, defined categories, and therefore no outlier could be detected (Riani, Torti, & Zani, 2012). Therefore, detecting outliers through statistical methods is not meaningful for Likert scale variables.

As a final step in data screening, the normality of the data was tested. It is important to check because the lack of normality in variable distributions can deform the outcomes of multivariate analysis. Although this issue is much less serious with PLS-SEM, scholars highly recommended checking the normality of the data before starting to analyse with PLS-SEM too (Hair et al., 2017a). Two tests are used to check the normality, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the Shapiro-Wilks test. They compare the data with a normal distribution that has identical mean and standard deviation like in the sample (Sarstedt & Mooi, 2014). Both tests, however, only illustrate whether the null hypothesis of normally distributed data ought to be rejected or not. There is a debate that the bootstrapping process can perform quite vigorously when data is not normal. But those two tests can merely offer partial help for determining whether the data is too distant from normally distributed or not. Researchers suggest two alternative measures of distributions, Skewness and Kurtosis (Hair et al., 2017a). The absolute cut-off value for Skewness is 3.0, whereas Kurtosis is 8.0 (Kline, 2011). Based on the results, the Skewness ranged from -1.891 to 2.424, and Kurtosis ranged from -1.315 to 6.667. So, these values show the normal distribution of data (Appendix 6).

4.2.2. Profile of Pilot-test Respondents

The demographic characteristics of pilot study respondents are shown in Appendix 7. There were 31 Australian, 29 British, and 23 American respondents. The number of male respondents (56.6%) were marginally greater than female respondents (43.4%). The distribution of the age group is quite interesting as 56.6% were more than 60 years, 20.5% were 30-39 years, and the minority group accounted for 4.8% (50.59 years). Around 70% of the respondents held a Bachelor's degree or postgraduate degree. More than 62% of respondents were married, an equal number were single or divorced (16.9% each). The respondents' occupation matched the age results, as around 35% were retired, and there was no student. Annual household income, 25.3% of respondents picked $25,000-$49,999, then 20.5% selected $25,000-$49,999, third group were 15.7% respondents for $75,000-$99,999, and the fourth group was 14.5% for more than $150,000. The lowest number of respondents was 1.2% for $15,000-$24,999.

The most visited Middle Eastern destination in the past five years was United Arab Emirates (74.7%), then Egypt (31.3%), Israel (25.3%), Turkey (24.1%), Qatar (22.9%), etc. The lowest visited were Syria and Yemen (1.2% each), and no respondents visited Iraq in the

past five years. This question showed that only 26.5% of respondents only visited one Middle Eastern destination in the past five years. 24.1% visited two destinations, 21.7% visited three destinations, and 27.7% visited more than three destinations.

Then, respondents should pick one Middle Eastern destination among these visited countries in the past five years to answer the rest of the questionnaire based on their experience there. There are ten target destinations in this study. In the end, each destination had at least one respondent. In this regard, we can say, there are four groups of destinations: first United Arab Emirates (34 respondents); second Egypt, Israel, and Qatar (10-12 respondents); third Jordan and Saudi Arabia (4-5 respondents); and fourth Iran, Kuwait, Oman, and Lebanon (1-2 respondent/s).

The main trip purpose for the majority of respondents was leisure (80.7%), then VFR (9.6%), business (8.4%), and pilgrimage (1.2%). There was no respondent whose purpose of visiting this destination is education or health. More than half of the respondents travelled to this destination with their spouse/partner, and around 20% travelled alone. The number of travel companions for participants who picked the rest was one person (14.5%), 2-3 persons (8.4%), more than seven persons (3.6%), and no one picked 4-6 persons.

38.6% of respondents stayed for 4-7 nights in the selected destination; the next group was 31.3% of respondents who stayed for 1-3 nights; after that, 24.1% of respondents stayed for 8-15 nights. Only 1.2% of respondents stayed for 1 to 2 months, and no tourists stayed for more than two months there. The majority of respondents (83.1%) picked the hotel as their accommodation type in the destination, then Relative/friend's house (9.6%), Airbnb (3.6%), and Camping/backpacking (1.2%). No tourist picked couch-surfing or Traditional hotel; however, 10.8% selected “other” types of accommodations.

The last part indicates that more than half of the respondents experienced tour guides during their travel in the destination as they travelled "in a group tour" or "independent traveller, experienced a local tour guide." And there were 45.8% of independent travellers who had not experienced a local tour guide in this destination (Appendix 8).

4.2.3. Measurement Model Evaluation

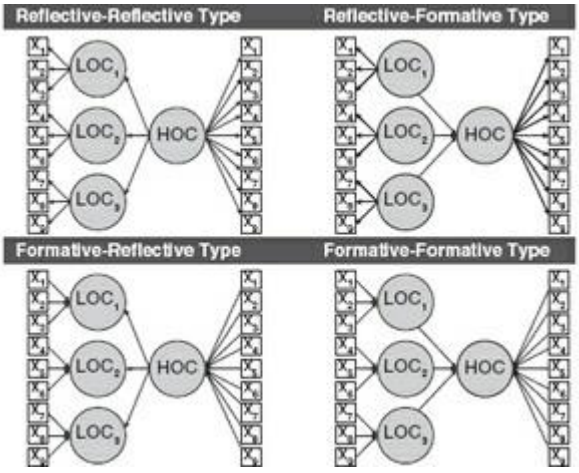
Measurement models consist of latent variables and indicators to measure its associated latent variables (Chin, 1998). There are two distinctive types of measurement specifications: formative and reflective measurement models. The *reflective measurement* model has a long history in social science, and it is exactly on the basis of classic test theory (Lord & Novick, 1968). Based on this theory, measures signify the impressions or demonstrations of a fundamental construct. Hence, the causal relationship is from the construct to its measures. Reflective indicators can be considered as a representative sample of the entire feasible dimensions existing inside the construct's conceptual domain (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Consequently, indicators related to a certain construct ought to be closely correlated with each other because a reflective measure determines that the same construct causes all indicator items. Besides, individual indicators ought to be exchangeable. It means, under the condition of having adequate reliability by construct, any particular indicator should be able to commonly be excluded in the absence of altering the construct meaning. The fact that the relationship drives from the construct to its measures illustrates that all indicators will alter simultaneously if the assessment of the latent trait changes (Hair et al., 2017a).

In contrast, *formative measurement* models are based on the supposition that causal indicators form the construct utilising linear combinations. Thus, scholars usually mention this type of measurement model as being a formative index. Not being interchangeable is an essential feature of formative indicators. Therefore, each formative construct's indicator captures an especial attribute of the construct's domain. Thus, the indicators eventually establish the meaning of the construct, which shows that omitting an indicator will transform the construct's nature and meaning. Consequently, the extent of construct's domain coverage is enormously essential to make sure that the content of the principal construct is sufficiently attained (Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001; Hair et al., 2017a).

In PLS-SEM, there are hierarchical component models (HCMs) or higher-order models (Lohmöller, 1989). Mostly it embraces assessing higher-order structures that have two layers of constructs. HCMs have two parts: the higher-order component (HOC) that seizes the more abstract higher-order unit, and the lower-order components (LOCs) that seize the sub-dimensions of the higher-order unit (Figure 4.1). Each type of HCM can be described by distinct associations between the HOC/LOCs and constructs/their indicators. There are four major sorts of HCMs: the *reflective-reflective* HCM, *formative-formative* HCM, *formative-*

reflective HCM, and *reflective-formative* HCM. For instance, the reflective-reflective HCM signifies a reflective association among the HOC and LOCs, and reflective indicators measure entire FO constructs. On the contrary, the reflective-formative HCM signifies formative relations among LOCs and the HOC. Entire FO constructs are gauged by reflective indicators (Hair et al., 2017a; Jarvis, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003; Ringle et al., 2012; Wetzels et al., 2009).

Figure 4.1. Four Types of Hierarchical Component Models



Source: Hair et al. (2017a)

The choice of the suitable type of HCM is based on prior accepted theoretical and conceptual considerations (Hair et al., 2017a). The proposed model for this study includes thirteen constructs. There are three exogenous latent variables. Two of them are reflective-formative constructs: Destination Perceived Risk (DPR) and Perceived Local People/Tour Leader Support (PLTS). And the third exogenous variable is Prior Experience with Risk (PER) as a categorical/single-item variable. One of the endogenous variables is reflective-reflective, which is Memorable Tourism Experience (MTE). The rest nine endogenous variables are measured reflectively. They include self-efficacy (SE), Task Value (TV), and seven Achievement Emotions; Anger, Anxiety, Boredom, Enjoyment, Hopelessness, Pride, and Shame. In this study, there are four HCMs. One is MTE as a reflective-reflective HCM, and two reflective-formative HCMs include DPR and PLTS. The measurement analysis for this study followed the guidelines for PLS-SEM suggested by Hair et al (2017), Becker et al. (2012), and Chin (1998).

As mentioned, there is a reflective single-item construct; prior experience with risk (PER). By its name implied, a single-item construct is not measured through a multi-item

measurement model. The relation between the single indicator and the latent variable is always 1. In other words, the single indicator and the latent variable have identical values. Therefore, the criteria for assessing measurement models do not apply to single-item constructs (Diamantopoulos et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2017a).

4.2.3.1. Reflective Constructs

As mentioned before, a reflective model is based on the classic theory, which shows that the measures are the manifestation or effects of a target latent construct. More precisely, the manifest indicators are effect ones and are not triggered constructs as in the formative models. Reflective measures mean the relationship progresses from the construct to the indicators, proposing that indicators are associated or direct together in the same way. The evaluation of reflective measurement models includes assessing the measures' reliability - both indicators and constructs reliability- and the validity, including convergent and discriminant validity (do Valle & Assaker, 2016; Ali et al., 2018).

To evaluate reflective indicators' reliability, the Composite Reliability (CR) and outer loadings of the reflective indicators ought to be examined (Hair et al., 2016). CR usually assesses the internal consistency reliability of the construct measures, while outer loadings are used to assess indicator reliability (Hair et al., 2014). Traditionally, researchers looked into Cronbach's alpha instead of CR, to ensure internal consistency. However, Cronbach's alpha has two shortcomings. First, Cronbach's alpha presumes that the loadings of indicators are all equal in population (Hair et al., 2014). Second, Cronbach's alpha tends to underestimate the reliability of the internal consistency because Cronbach's alpha is very sensitive to the number of indicators (Hair et al., 2016). CR overcomes the limitations of Cronbach's alpha by prioritising each indicator's reliability (Hair et al., 2016). Therefore, CR is considered to be a better means than Cronbach's alpha (Hair et al., 2012, 2014, 2016; Wong, 2013). Hair et al. (2017) believe that it is rational to examine and report both criteria. For checking and evaluating internal consistency reliability of the measures, typically, the exact reliability locates between Cronbach's alpha (showing the lower bound) and the composite reliability (presenting the upper bound). The threshold for both is 0.6 (Hair et al., 2016). Outer loadings refer to the correlation of the corresponding construct. The values of outer loadings should be higher than 0.5 (Hulland, 1999; Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2016).

To evaluate the validity of the reflective indicators, convergent validity and discriminant validity should be verified. The level to which the measurement indicators gauge what they are supposed to is reflected by validity (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Ayeh, 2012). Convergent validity represents the extent to which a group of indicators reflects a similar fundamental construct (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009). Chin (2010) explains it in another way that convergent validity is described as the extent to which blocks of indicators strongly agree (i.e., converge) in their depiction of the target construct to measure. Moreover, how great are each indicator's loading and whether they are more or less similar. do Valle & Assaker (2016) said convergent validity is the extent of association among the indicators and their relevant construct to see whether they signify the identical latent concept.

The average variance extracted (AVE) ought to be examined for convergent validity (Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2017b; do Valle & Assaker, 2016; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Ali et al., 2018). The validity evaluation of the reflective measurement models' main focus lies in the convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity determines whether a group of indicators under one construct belong to the construct (Wang et al., 2015). AVE values should be higher than 0.5, which indicates the appropriate level of convergent validity (Hair et al., 2011, 2016; Hulland, 1999). An AVE value higher than 0.5 signifies that "the latent variable explains more than half of its indicators' variance" and indicating the satisfactory degree of convergent validity (Ayeh, 2012; Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2011, p. 146; Hair et al., 2017b; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017; Ali et al., 2018).

This research includes nine reflective variables: *self-efficacy (SE), task value (TV),* and 7 Achievement Emotions; *Anger, Anxiety, Boredom, Enjoyment, Hopelessness, Pride, and Shame*. The outer loadings of each indicator have been examined to ensure indicator reliability. Outer loadings indicate correlations of each indicator to its designated construct. The threshold of outer loading is 0.5 (Chin, 2010). Therefore, an indicator with an outer loading of less than 0.5 should, as a rule of thumb, be deleted (Hulland, 1999). Besides, t-statistics of outer loadings should be larger than 1.96 to be significant (Wong, 2013). All indicators for these nine variables are above 0.5 as they ranged between 0.50 to 0.96. The *t*-statistics are higher than the threshold of 1.96 as they ranged from 3.292 to 124.811 with a *p*-value less than 0.001. Their Cronbach's α are ranged from 0.765 to 0.915, and the CR for them are 0.850 and 0.940, which are above the threshold. So, all *nine reflective variables* confirmed strong indicator reliability. Their AVE values are ranged from 0.595 and 0.797.

They are higher than the threshold of 0.5 and meet convergent validity requirements (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1. Reliability of reflective measurement model

Construct	item	Loadings	t-statistics	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE
Self-efficacy	During my trip in this country, I was able to overcome many challenges successfully.	0.77***	10.570	0.879	0.916	0.732
	I was able to achieve most of the goals that I had set for myself in travelling in this country.	0.89***	36.597			
	During my trip in this country, I was confident that I could do many different activities effectively.	0.91***	56.425			
	When facing difficult situations during my trip in this country, I was certain that I will resolve them.	0.84***	18.469			
Task value	I thought I will be able to use what I learned on this trip on other trips.	0.76***	11.699	0.913	0.940	0.797
	It was important for me to learn about this country on this trip.	0.91***	42.897			
	I thought the experience of this trip is useful for me to learn.	0.96***	124.811			
	Understanding this destination was very important to me.	0.92***	50.511			
Anger	I was so upset during my trip that I would like to leave.	0.86***	23.278	0.901	0.931	0.771
	I was often annoyed during my trip.	0.87***	17.125			
	During my trip, I got upset because everything in this country was so difficult to understand.	0.85***	14.769			
	During my trip in this country, I got irritated by my experience there.	0.93***	65.085			
Anxiety	During my trip, I was either tense or nervous.	0.80***	16.896	0.825	0.883	0.654
	During my trip, I worried I would have a bad experience.	0.79***	15.173			
	During my trip, I worried if this trip would be much too difficult for me.	0.85***	20.621			
	During my trip, I was so anxious that I couldn't fully concentrate.	0.80***	16.023			
Boredom	My trip bored me to death.	0.87***	22.010	0.915	0.940	0.797
	During my trip, I was so bored that I didn't feel like staying in this country anymore.	0.87***	20.414			
	During my trip, I thought this destination is boring.	0.94***	65.379			
	During my trip, I couldn't concentrate because I was so bored.	0.89***	17.215			
Enjoyment	I enjoyed my trip in this country.	0.84***	20.401	0.823	0.885	0.660

	This country as a destination on this trip was so exciting that I really enjoyed my trip.	0.91***	47.094			
	During my trip, I thought that things were going great.	0.67***	6.007			
	During my trip, I was happy that I gained knowledge about this country.	0.81***	16.398			
Hopelessness	During my trip, I felt hopeless.	0.86***	11.648	0.833	0.887	0.664
	During my trip, I would prefer to give up.	0.83***	14.764			
	During my trip, I had no energy.	0.76***	7.972			
	During my trip, I kept thinking that I wouldn't understand this destination.	0.81***	15.129			
Pride	I think I can be proud of my knowledge about this country.	0.84***	10.136	0.835	0.892	0.677
	After my trip, I am proud of myself.	0.91***	40.533			
	I am proud of how well I have done on my trip.	0.87***	22.927			
	I was very motivated during my trip because I wanted to be proud of my achievements on this trip.	0.65***	5.640			
Shame	I am embarrassed about my lack of knowledge about this country.	0.50***	3.292	0.765	0.850	0.595
	During my trip, when I didn't understand something about the destination, I didn't want to tell anybody.	0.91***	39.569			
	When I said something on my trip, I felt like I was embarrassing myself.	0.82***	14.865			
	I feel ashamed of travelling to this country.	0.79***	10.876			

***$p < 0.001$; based on two tailed test

The second validity criterion for a reflective variable is discriminant validity. It is described as “the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs by empirical standards” (Hair et al., 2016, p. 115). Researchers apply discriminant validity to assess the extent to which distinct indicators sufficiently gauge different theoretical concepts. Therefore, they indeed measure different constructs (do Valle & Assaker, 2016). In other words, discriminant validity demonstrates the extent to which each LV is distinctive from other constructs in the model (Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2017a; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2017). There are two common criteria for discriminant validity, the Fornell-Larcker criterion, and cross-loading. Fornell-Larcker criterion is based on the suggestion by Fornell and Larcker (1981). They stated that the square root of the AVE of each latent variable is larger than the other correlation values among the latent variables, which verifies discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2014; Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2017a).

Table 4.2 shows, there are some discriminant validity issues between reflective variables. The correlation between Anxiety and Anger, Hopelessness and Anger, and Shame and Hopelessness is higher than the square root of their AVE values. Based on Hair et al. (2017), there are various solutions to manage discriminant validity issues. They suggest eliminating indicators that have low correlations with other indicators calculating the identical construct. The correlation matrix for each pair of variables has been checked, and after deleting three indicators in three problematic constructs, the final Fornell-Larcker criterion is as Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. Fornell-Larcker criterion for the reflective measurement model

	Anger	Anxiety	Boredom	Enjoyment	Hopelessness	Pride	Self-efficacy	Shame	Task value
Anger	**0.878**								
Anxiety	0.817	**0.809**							
Boredom	0.824	0.676	**0.893**						
Enjoyment	-0.587	-0.594	-0.705	**0.813**					
Hopelessness	0.838	0.777	0.796	-0.624	**0.815**				
Pride	-0.324	-0.277	-0.441	0.589	-0.365	**0.823**			
Self-efficacy	-0.496	-0.522	-0.565	0.510	-0.475	0.583	**0.856**		
Shame	0.754	0.723	0.629	-0.500	0.802	-0.429	-0.443	**0.772**	
Task value	-0.488	-0.468	-0.561	0.597	-0.480	0.668	0.636	-0.511	**0.893**

Three omitted indicators are emtA_Shm1 (I am embarrassed about my lack of knowledge about this country.), emtD_Hps3 (During my trip, I would prefer to give up.), and emtD_Axy6 (During my trip, I was so anxious that I couldn't fully concentrate.). After eliminating these indicators, the discriminant validity issue has been solved (Table 4.3).

Table 4.3. Revised Fornell-Larcker criterion for reflective measurement model after deleting problematic Indicators one by one

	Anger	Anxiety	Boredom	Enjoyment	Hopelessness	Pride	Self-efficacy	Shame	Task value
Anger	**0.878**								
Anxiety	0.762	**0.837**							
Boredom	0.823	0.617	**0.893**						
Enjoyment	-0.587	-0.534	-0.705	**0.813**					
Hopelessness	0.788	0.640	0.784	-0.611	**0.836**				
Pride	-0.324	-0.249	-0.441	0.589	-0.385	**0.823**			

Self-efficacy	-0.496	-0.493	-0.565	0.510	-0.459	0.583	**0.856**		
Shame	0.765	0.642	0.633	-0.497	0.741	-0.418	-0.451	**0.852**	
Task value	-0.487	-0.482	-0.560	0.596	-0.487	0.668	0.636	-0.519	**0.893**

After omitting those three indicators, the nine reflective variables have been checked for the Cross-loading criterion. It is another common approach in evaluating discriminant validity. Discriminant validity is established when each indicators' outer loadings on the related construct are greater than those on other constructs (Ayeh, 2012; Chin, 1988; Henseler et al., 2009; Chin, 2010; do Valle & Assaker, 2016; Hair et al., 2014). Cross-loading results show that there is no issue in terms of discriminant validity (Appendix 9). Therefore, based on these two criteria, discriminant validity for these nine reflective constructs has been established.

4.2.3.2. Reflective-Reflective Construct

As mentioned, there are some HCMs or HOMs in this study. One of them is a memorable tourism experience (MTE), a reflective-reflective construct (Zhang, Wu, & Buhalis, 2018). The reasons that why MTE has been considered as a reflective-reflective construct are being explained in the following.

MTEs are those experiences that are selectively composed of tourist experiences and can be recalled and recollected after travel. So, there is no common deal with what comprises MTEs exactly (Zhang et al., 2018). Kim et al.'s (2012) scale used in this study has seven dimensions: Novelty, Local Culture, Hedonism, Refreshment, Involvement, Meaningfulness, and Knowledge. This scale has been selected because these seven experience elements are presumed as the MTEs that individuals recall most often (Zhang et al., 2018). Therefore, these reflect the tourists' memorable experiences, not from them. The reliability and validity for MTE's both FO components and SO components have been measured as follows.

4.2.3.2.1. First-order Component Evaluation

Memorable Tourism Experience (MTE) is a reflective-reflective HOC. It has seven FO reflective components include hedonism (4 indicators), involvement (3 indicators),

knowledge (3 indicators), local culture (3 indicators), meaningfulness (3 indicators), novelty (4 indicators), and refreshment (4 indicators). As Table 4.4. shows the outer loadings for all these indicators are in the acceptable range of more than 0.5 (Chin, 2010). They ranged from 0.722 to 0.936. The t-statistics are higher than the threshold of 1.96 as they ranged from 6.800 to 62.246 with a p-value less than 0.001. These results confirmed strong indicator reliability. The Cronbach's α for these seven constructs ranged from 0.762 to 0.941, and the CR. were from 0.862 to 0.958. So, these two reliability criteria also above the threshold of 0.6 (Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2014, 2017). For checking the convergent validity, AVE has been measured. The seven AVE values ranged between 0.654 to 0.850 above the threshold of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2011, 2017; Hulland, 1999) (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4. Reliability of first-order constructs of Memorable Tourism Experience

Construct	Indicators	Loadings	t-values	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE
Hedonism	I was thrilled about having a new experience there.	0.843***	15.913	0.888	0.923	0.752
	I indulged in activities.	0.759***	10.272			
	I really enjoyed the trip.	0.933***	61.538			
	I had an exciting trip.	0.922***	62.246			
Involvement	I visited a place that I really wanted to visit.	0.876***	20.696	0.886	0.929	0.815
	I enjoyed the activities that I really wanted to do.	0.936***	60.343			
	I was interested in the main activities offered.	0.895***	37.083			
Knowledge	I gained a lot of information during the trip.	0.892***	40.296	0.762	0.862	0.679
	I gained a new skill (s) from the trip.	0.695***	9.239			
	I experienced new culture (s).	0.871***	24.099			
Local Culture	I had a good impression of the local culture.	0.916***	50.000	0.895	0.935	0.826
	I had a chance to experience the local culture closely.	0.909***	40.524			
	The locals in this country were friendly to me.	0.902***	26.926			
Meaningfulness	I felt that I did something meaningful.	0.897***	31.501	0.806	0.884	0.720
	I felt that I did something important.	0.898***	35.377			
	I learned something about myself from the trip.	0.740***	7.732			

Novelty	I had a once-in-a-lifetime experience.	0.921***	49.797	0.941	0.958	0.850
	I had a unique experience.	0.943***	62.236			
	My trip was different from previous trips.	0.892***	29.767			
	I experienced something new.	0.929***	49.189			
Refreshment	I relieved stress during the trip.	0.722***	6.800	0.824	0.883	0.654
	I felt free from my daily routine during the trip.	0.805***	13.338			
	I had a refreshing experience.	0.888***	28.716			
	I felt better after the trip.	0.811***	12.469			

****p < 0.001*; based on two-tailed test

Then, two approaches were employed to evaluate the discriminant validity of the constructs, first the Fornell-Larcker criterion. Its results show that each construct provides more variance with its group of indicators than other constructs signifying a distinct set of indicators (Table 4.5). Based on the second criterion for discriminant validity, the cross-loadings (Appendix 10), no indicator loads greater on any opposing construct (Hair et al., 2017). Both approaches provide support for the discriminant validity of the FO constructs of MTE.

Table 4.5. Fornell-Larcker criterion for the first-order constructs of Memorable Tourism Experience

	Hedonism	**Involvement**	**Knowledge**	**Local Culture**	**Meaningfulness**	**Novelty**	**Refreshment**
Hedonism	0.867						
Involvement	0.802	0.903					
Knowledge	0.660	0.783	0.824				
Local Culture	0.722	0.737	0.727	0.909			
Meaningfulness	0.769	0.746	0.722	0.719	0.848		
Novelty	0.813	0.753	0.704	0.709	0.710	0.922	
Refreshment	0.723	0.719	0.634	0.711	0.795	0.644	0.809

4.2.3.2.2. Second-order Component Evaluation

The SO component of MTE is also reflectively measured. All indicators from the LOCs have been assigned to the HOC as a repeated indicators approach (Hair et al., 2017a). After

running the algorithm and bootstrapping schemes in PLS-SEM, all path coefficients of the FO construct to MTE are above the threshold of 0.5 (Chin, 2010). All these outer loadings ranged from 0.833 to 0.910. The t-statistics for seven FO constructs were higher than the threshold of 1.96; they ranged from 17.855 to 44.205 with *p*-values less than 0.001. The Cronbach's α was 0.967, and the CR was 0.970. So, these two reliability criteria also above the threshold of 0.6 (Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2014) (Table 4.6). Hair et al. (2017b, p. 70), in their book, "Advanced Issues in Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling," suggest calculating the AVE for reflective-reflective HCM manually through the following formula:

$$AVE = (\text{path coefficient}_1)^2 + (\text{path coefficient}_2)^2 + \ldots + (\text{path coefficient}_n)^2 / n$$

As Table 4.6 shows, AVE for MTE as the SO construct is 0.766, above the threshold of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2011; Hulland, 1999). Therefore, there is no convergent validity issue in this HCM construct.

Table 4.6. Reliability of reflective second-order construct (MTE)

Second-order Construct	First- order Constructs	Path Coefficient	t-values	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE
Memorable Tourism Experience (MTE)	Hedonism	0.910***	44.205	0.967	0.970	0.766
	Involvement	0.901***	36.120			
	Knowledge	0.833***	17.855			
	Local Culture	0.865***	20.011			
	Meaningfulness	0.879***	21.608			
	Novelty	0.888***	28.205			
	Refreshment	0.847***	18.587			

****p < 0.001*; based on two tailed test

Fornell-Larcker criterion has been applied to check the discriminant validity of MTE and other reflective variables. As mentioned before, this study has nine reflective variables: self-efficacy, task value, anger, anxiety, boredom, enjoyment, hopelessness, pride, and shame, whose reliability and validity have been checked in the previous section, and MTE as a HOC. The cross-loading criterion is not meaningful here because MTE is a HOC, but those nine variables are not. The Fornell-Larcker criterion showed that entire indicators' outer loadings on their construct are higher than their loadings on the opposing construct except MTE and Enjoyment (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7. Fornell-Larcker criterion for the reflective measurement model

	Anger	Anxiety	Boredom	Enjoyment	Hopelessness	MTE	Pride	Self-efficacy	Shame	Task value
Anger	**0.878**									
Anxiety	0.762	**0.837**								
Boredom	0.823	0.617	**0.893**							
Enjoyment	-0.587	-0.534	-0.705	**0.813**						
Hopelessness	0.788	0.640	0.784	-0.611	**0.836**					
MTE	-0.636	-0.557	-0.730	0.771	-0.588	**0.761**				
Pride	-0.324	-0.249	-0.441	0.589	-0.385	0.662	**0.823**			
Self-efficacy	-0.496	-0.493	-0.565	0.510	-0.459	0.649	0.583	**0.856**		
Shame	0.765	0.642	0.633	-0.497	0.741	-0.516	-0.418	-0.451	**0.852**	
Task value	-0.487	-0.482	-0.560	0.596	-0.487	0.645	0.668	0.636	-0.519	**0.893**

To solve this discriminant validity issue, the indicator that has low correlations with other indicators measuring the Enjoyment construct but a higher correlation with MTE components has been eliminated (Hair et al., 2017a). It was emtD_Ejt3 (During my trip, I thought that things were going great.). As Table 4.8 shows, omitting this indicator helps to solve the discriminant validity issue.

Table 4.8. Fornell-Larcker criterion for the reflective measurement model

	Anger	Anxiety	Boredom	Enjoyment	Hopeless	MTE	Pride	Self-efficacy	Shame	Task value
Anger	**0.878**									
Anxiety	0.762	**0.837**								
Boredom	0.823	0.617	**0.893**							
Enjoyment	-0.547	-0.503	-0.673	**0.882**						
Hopeless	0.788	0.640	0.784	-0.548	**0.836**					
MTE	-0.636	-0.557	-0.730	0.740	-0.588	**0.761**				
Pride	-0.324	-0.249	-0.441	0.580	-0.385	0.662	**0.823**			
Self-efficacy	-0.496	-0.493	-0.565	0.461	-0.459	0.649	0.583	**0.856**		
Shame	0.765	0.642	0.633	-0.481	0.741	-0.516	-0.418	-0.451	**0.852**	
Task value	-0.487	-0.482	-0.560	0.601	-0.487	0.645	0.668	0.636	-0.519	**0.893**

4.2.3.3. Reflective-Formative Construct

In the previous section, one of the HOC as a reflective-reflective construct was explained. In this study, two other HCMs include *Destination Perceived Risk* (DPR) and *Perceived Local People/Tour Leader Support* (PLTS). They are established as reflective-formative constructs. DPR is in line with how previous studies operationalized the 'perceived risk' variable (M. J. Kim et al., 2020). But PLTS has been introduced by the present study as a parallel concept to 'teacher' in the education field. As discussed in chapter two, local people and tour leaders deliver information about the destination to tourists (Cohen, 1988; Prentice et al., 1994; McKercher & du Cros, 2002; Tsaur and Teng, 2017; Van Winkle & Lagay, 2012). And some scholars believe they play the role of teacher for tourists (Fine & Speer, 1985; Holloway, 1981; Mancini, 2000; Pearce, 1982).

Scholars suggest referring to theoretical reasons as the principal means to choose whether to determine a measurement model reflectively or formatively (Hair et al., 2017a, b). It is also suggested referring to measurement criteria introduced by Jarvis et al. (2003). Some of these criteria for formative construct include indicators that are defining characteristics of the construct; indicators require not be interchangeable, modification in one of the indicators is not necessarily related to alteration in the other indicators, etc. These features have been observed in second-order constructs of both DPR and PLTS. However, statisticians propose a PLS-SEM based statistical analysis that could provide further empirical evidence and verification of the choices. The most common test is the confirmatory tetrad analysis in PLS-SEM (CTA-PLS; Gudergan et al., 2008). CTA-PLS enables researchers to empirically assess whether the measurement model specification chosen based on theoretical grounds is supported by the data (Hair et al., 2017b).

The CTA-PLS is proposed based on the concept of tetrads (τ), which describes the association between pairs of covariances (Bollen & Ting, 1993). Suppose only one tetrad value in a measurement model is significantly different from zero, which means it does not vanish. In that case, the researcher must reject the reflective measurement model supposition and presume the alternative formative one. Otherwise stated, the CTA-PLS is a statistical test considering the hypothesis H_0: $\tau = 0$ (means the tetrad equals zero and vanishes) and the alternative hypothesis H_1: $\tau \neq 0$ (means the tetrad does not equal zero) (Hair et al., 2017b). A two-stage approach was used based on Becker et al. (2012)'s suggestion. Besides, there are two requirements to run CTA-PLS are:

1- at least some of the measurement model's indicators are significantly correlated,
2- there are at least four indicators per measurement model.

DPR had six dimensions, and all were significantly correlated with each other ($p < 0.001$, Appendix 11). Therefore, there was no issue in terms of those two requirements for this variable. However, PLTS had only two dimensions. Scholars suggest that a measurement model with less than four manifest indicators requires the integration of indicators from another latent construct/variable to constitute a set of four manifest indicators to run CTA-PLS (Bollen & Ting, 2000; Gudergan et al., 2008). So, two indicators (SE and TV) were added to the higher-order construct of PLTS. All four dimensions were significantly correlated with each other ($p < 0.05$ and 0.001, Appendix 11). Therefore, two requirements to run CTA-PLS were also achieved for PLTS.

CTA-PLS were run with 5,000 subsamples for the bootstrapping routine and two-tailed testing at a significance level of 0.10 based on Hair et al.'s (2017b) recommendation. Table 4.9 shows that the bias-corrected and Bonferroni-adjusted confidence interval for τ_{4152}, τ_{4256}, and τ_{4165} in DPR and the τ_{3412} for PLTS are significantly different from zero. Therefore, CTA-PLS confirmed that DPR and PLTS are formative second-order constructs.

Table 4.9. CTA-PLS Results for DPR and PLTS

DPR	Tetrad value	T value	P Values	CI_{adj}
τ_{4213}	-0.071	0.945	0.345	[-0.266, 0.118]
τ_{4231}	0.088	1.593	0.111	[-0.049, 0.233]
τ_{4215}	-0.17	1.901	0.057	[-0.403, 0.051]
τ_{4152}	0.213	2.611	0.009	[0.014, 0.428]
τ_{4216}	-0.187	2.069	0.039	[-0.425, 0.035]
τ_{4235}	-0.015	0.215	0.83	[-0.196, 0.163]
τ_{4256}	0.219	2.581	0.01	[0.011, 0.442]
τ_{4136}	0.185	2.336	0.02	[-0.009, 0.394]
τ_{4165}	0.357	3.158	0.002	[0.083, 0.657]
PLTS	Tetrad value	T value	P Values	CI_{adj}
τ_{3412}	-0.20	2.08	0.038	[-0.397, -0.02]
τ_{3421}	-0.037	0.674	0.50	[-0.148, 0.07]

It is statistically approved that DPR and PLTS are reflective-formative HOCs. Their FOCs, therefore, have been measured based on the evaluation of reflective measurement model criteria, and the SOCs have been estimated based on the evaluation of formative

measurement model criteria. In the following sections, the results of these evaluations are reported.

4.2.3.3.1. First-order Components Evaluation

Reliability & Validity of Reflective constructs

Destination Perceived Risk

Destination Perceived Risk (DPR) is a reflective-formative HOC. It has six FO reflective components include overall risk (5 indicators), physical risk (8 indicators), financial risk (5 indicators), performance risk (8 indicators), socio-psychological risk (5 indicators), and time risk (3 indicators). The outer loadings for all these indicators are acceptable, as they are greater than 0.5 (Chin, 2010). They ranged from 0.628 to 0.956. Their t-statistics are higher than the threshold of 1.96 as they ranged from 4.205 to 68.553 with p-values less than 0.001. The Cronbach's α for these six constructs ranged from 0.782 to 0.937, and the CR were 0.838 to 0.952. These two reliability criteria are also above the threshold of 0.6 (Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2014, 2017a). These results confirmed strong indicator reliability for DPR. For checking the convergent validity, AVE has been measured. The six AVE values ranged between 0.509 to 0.866 above the threshold of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2011, 2017a; Hulland, 1999) (Table 4.10).

Table 4.10. Reliability of the first-order constructs of Destination Perceived Risk

Construct	Indicator	Loading	t-value	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE
Financial Risk	that I would not receive good value for my money.	0.801***	14.482	0.924	0.943	0.769
	that the trip to this country would involve unexpected extra expenses (such as changes in exchange rates or extra costs in hotels).	0.927***	58.535			
	that the trip to this country would be more expensive than other international trips.	0.879***	27.527			
	that the trip to this country would involve more incidental expenses than I had anticipated, such as clothing, maps, sports equipment, and babysitters.	0.896***	32.241			
	that the trip to this country would have an impact on my financial situation.	0.875***	28.720			

Overall Risk	To what extent did your friends or relatives see this country as a risky place to visit?	0.518**	3.066	0.629	0.795	0.575
	I thought that my family/friends would worry about my safety while I was in this country.	0.832***	12.700			
	Prior to my trip, I viewed this country as more dangerous than other places around the world.	0.874***	24.451			
Performance Risk	that the weather would be uncomfortable.	0.739***	13.459	0.922	0.936	0.648
	that the hotels in this country would be unsatisfactory.	0.800***	11.676			
	that sites would be too crowded.	0.749***	12.619			
	that the food in this country would not be good.	0.850***	27.220			
	about possible strikes (airport, railway station, buses) in this country.	0.805***	15.687			
	that the tourist facilities available to the public in this country would not be acceptable.	0.842***	18.770			
	that the local people would not be friendly.	0.787***	15.086			
	that hospitality employees in this country would not be courteous to international tourists.	0.859***	24.173			
Physical Risk	about food safety problems in this country.	0.718***	12.028	0.898	0.918	0.585
	that there might be epidemic diseases in this country.	0.843***	21.784			
	about natural disasters in this country, such as earthquakes, floods, and storms.	0.836***	23.220			
	about getting injured in a car accident in this country.	0.799***	16.170			
	about crime (theft, robbery, pickpockets) in this country.	0.749***	13.748			
	about terrorism in this country.	0.740***	12.449			
	about being exposed to danger due to political unrest in this country.	0.784***	13.668			
	that my behavior would not be well received by some local people (including the way I customarily dress).	0.628***	8.568			
Socio-Psychological Risk	that a trip to this country would not be compatible with my self-image.	0.910***	43.518	0.937	0.952	0.798
	that my trip to this country would change the way, my friends think of me.	0.907***	35.761			
	that I would not receive personal satisfaction from the trip to this country.	0.862***	18.991			
	that my trip to this country would change the way, my family thinks of me.	0.905***	30.258			

	that my trip to this country would not match my status in life (social class).	0.881***	27.015			
Time Risk	that the trip to this country would be a waste of time.	0.953***	59.379	0.922	0.951	0.866
	that my trip would waste my valuable vacation time.	0.956***	68.553			
	that planning and preparing for the trip would take too much time.	0.880***	19.254			

****p < 0.001, **p < 0.01*; based on two tailed test

Table 4.11 represents the Fornell-Larcker criterion's finding for the FO components of DPR. There is a discriminant validity issue between physical risk and performance risk. The square root of AVE of physical risk is not larger than the correlation values with performance risk.

Table 4.11. Fornell-Larcker criterion of the first-order constructs of Destination Perceived Risk

	Financial Risk	**Overall Risk**	**Performance Risk**	**Physical Risk**	**Socio-Psychological Risk**	**Time Risk**
Financial Risk	**0.877**					
Overall Risk	0.430	**0.758**				
Performance Risk	0.701	0.586	**0.805**			
Physical Risk	0.736	0.717	0.798	**0.785**		
Socio-Psychological Risk	0.689	0.436	0.727	0.655	**0.893**	
Time Risk	0.658	0.383	0.688	0.628	0.884	**0.931**

To solve this discriminant validity issue, two indicators with low correlations with other indicators measuring the Physical Risk but higher correlation with Performance Risk have been eliminated one by one (Hair et al., 2017a). They were DPR1_PhR3 (I concerned about natural disasters in this country, such as earthquakes, floods, and storms.) and DPR1_PhR8 (I concerned that hospitality employees in this country would not be courteous to international tourists.). As Table 4.12 shows, omitting these indicators helps to solve the discriminant validity issue. The results of cross-loadings (Appendix 12) show that entire indicators' outer loadings on the related construct are greater than any of their cross-loadings on other constructs. So, the results of these two criteria suggest that discriminant validity for these six reflective LOCs of DPR has been established.

Table 4.12. Final Fornell-Larcker criterion for reflective measurement model after deleting two problematic indicators

	Financial Risk	Overall Risk	Performance Risk	Physical Risk	Socio-Psychological Risk	Time Risk
Financial Risk	**0.877**					
Overall Risk	0.430	**0.714**				
Performance Risk	0.701	0.586	**0.805**			
Physical Risk	0.681	0.699	0.772	**0.785**		
Socio-Psychological Risk	0.689	0.436	0.727	0.578	**0.893**	
Time Risk	0.658	0.383	0.688	0.556	0.884	**0.931**

Perceived Local People/Tour Leader Support

The second reflective-formative HOC, in this study, is Perceived Local People/Tour leader Support (PLTS). Two FO reflective components include Perceived Local People Support and Perceived Tour Leader Support; each has four indicators. The outer loadings for these eight indicators ranged from 0.900 to 0.961which are higher than the 0.5 thresholds (Chin, 2010). The t-statistics were also greater than 1.96, ranged between 21.801 to 65.628 with p-values less than 0.001. The Cronbach's α for these two constructs ranged were 0.937 and 0.961, and the CR were 0.955 and 0.972, respectively. These two reliability criteria are also above the threshold of 0.6 (Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2014, 2017). These results confirmed strong indicator reliability for PLTS. The AVE was 0.841 and 0.895 above the threshold of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2011, 2017; Hulland, 1999) (Table 4.13). So there is also no convergent validity issue for these two reflective constructs.

Table 4.13. Reliability of the first-order constructs of PLTS

Construct	Indicator	Loading	t-value	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE
Perceived Local People Support (PLS)	Local people offered me further assistance when I needed help.	0.908***	31.261	0.937	0.955	0.841
	Local people explained something about this country until I understand it.	0.900***	29.966			
	Local people gave me the opportunity to say what I think.	0.922***	42.018			
	Local people supported me to learn more about this country.	0.939***	65.628			

Perceived Tour Leader Support (PTS)	The tour leader offered me further assistance when I needed help.	0.935***	22.469	0.961	0.972	0.895
	The tour leader explained something about this country until I understand it.	0.944***	23.327			
	The tour leader gave me the opportunity to say what I think.	0.944***	21.801			
	The tour leader supported me to learn more about this country.	0.961***	22.978			

****p < 0.001*; based on two tailed test

Table 4.14 shows PLS's AVE's square root is greater than its highest correlation with PTS and vice versa (Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2017a). Therefore, the results of the Fornell-Larcker criterion does not show any discriminant validity issue between these two FO constructs of PLTS. According to second discriminant validity criterion, Cross-loadings, results present that all four indicators' outer loadings on the PLS were greater than their loadings on PTS and vice versa (Appendix 13). So, there was no issue in terms of this discriminant validity criterion too. Fornell-Larcker and cross-loading both results confirmed that discriminant validity for two reflective LOCs of PLTS was established.

Table 4.14. Fornell-Larcker criterion for the first-order constructs of PLTS

	Perceived Local People Support (PLS)	Perceived Tour Leader Support (PTS)
Perceived Local People Support (PLS)	**0.917**	
Perceived Tour Leader Support (PTS)	0.254	**0.774**

4.2.3.3.2. Second-order Component Evaluation

A formative model, dissimilar to the reflective model, does not presume that a solo fundamental construct causes the measures. Conversely, the supposition for formative models is that whole measures influence (or cause) the latent construct (Ayeh, 2012). It means the "direction of causality flows from the indicators to the latent construct, and the indicators, as a group, jointly determine the conceptual and empirical meaning of the construct" (Jarvis, et al., 2003; p. 201). Formative measures mean the relation goes from the indicators to the construct, signifying employed indicators to measure the single construct are not correlated

and have different contribution in establishing their target construct (do Valle & Assaker, 2016).

The indicators, in a formative structural model, present independent foundations of a theoretical concept and do not require to be correlated. Therefore, researchers believe it does not there is no require also it does not make sense to follow the reflective outer models' evaluation, that in evaluating a formative outer model and assess the reliability and validity. Instead, the first facet in assessing these models is checking its theoretical logic and the experts' judgement (Ayeh, 2012; Bollen, 1989; Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001; Henseler et al., 2009; Petter, Straub, & Rai, 2007). Second, it is required to check some statistical benchmarks. Therefore, the validation of formative measures involves a distinct process than the one used for reflective constructs. Researchers recommend assessing the formative constructs' validity on two levels: the indicator level and the construct level. It includes the examination of indicator validity, construct validity, and multicollinearity (Henseler et al., 2009; Hair et al., 2011; Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001; do Valle & Assaker, 2016; Ali et al., 2018; Ayeh, 2012).

It is unacceptable to follow the reflective measurement models and modify formative measurement models merely based on statistical outcomes (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010). Therefore, scholars recommend to thoroughly review its relevance based on a content validity perspective prior omitting an indicator from the formative outer model (Ayeh, 2012; do Valle & Assaker, 2016). However, as non-significant indicators might indicate a scarcity of theoretical relevance, Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001) advice to removed them on the condition of preserving content validity. In this way, the rest items can measure the whole domain of the latent construct. Moreover, Henseler et al. (2009) debate that non-significant formative indicator ought to be retained in the scale, if it is conceptually justifiable.

Researchers suggest assessing the indicator's contribution to the LV as an indicator validity by assessing indicators' weight and loading, the significance of the item weights, and variance inflation factor (VIF) (Cohen, 1988; Gefen et al., 2000; Petter et al., 2007; Henseler et al., 2009; Ayeh, 2012; do Valle & Assaker, 2016; Ali et al., 2018). Then, by using SmartPLS 3.0, the partial least squares (PLS) bootstrapping technique will be used to achieve the formative items' weights and their equivalent t-values. This technique will also be used to check the significance of the item weights (Hair et al., 2011, 2017b; Ayeh, 2012; do Valle &

Assaker, 2016; Aguirre-Urreta and Rönkkö, 2018; Streukens and Leroi-Werelds, 2016; Ali et al., 2018).

A significance level of at least 0.05 indicates that the measurement indicator is relevant for the formative construct (Ayeh, 2012). Weights of 0.100 and higher are considered as desirable coefficients, however, the cut-off lower limit is agreed as 0.05 (Lohmöeller, 1989; Wold, 1982). Acceptable values for indicators' VIF in a single construct ought to be less than 10 (Cohen, 1988; Gefen et al., 2000) and a stricter cut-off range for VIF is < 3.3 - 4.0 (Diamantopoulos, Riefler & Roth, 2008; Petter et al., 2007; Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006).

In PLS-SEM, construct validity for a formative indicator is commonly assessed by two tests redundancy analysis or inter-construct correlations and nomological validity (Ali et a., 2018). Redundancy analysis will test the relation between each formative construct and the same construct measured by a single global item or by reflective items. Correlations between the formative and the rest of constructs in the model ought to be less than 0.71 (Mackenzie, Podsakoff, & Jarvis, 2005; Henseler et al., 2016; Hair et al., 2017a).

Nomological validity shows that the construct performs as anticipated and as adequately referred to in previous literature. Nomological validity needs that: first, information is gathered for minimum one more construct in addition the one seized by the formative construct, second, this other construct is assessed through reflective indicators, and third, it is possible to hypothesize a theoretical association between the constructs (Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001; Straub et al., 2004; Petter et al., 2007; Henseler et al., 2009; Ayeh, 2012).

When the SO constructs are formative, their assessment should follow the formative measurement model evaluation. The criteria for reflective measurement models are not able to be thoroughly utilized for formative measurement models. Hair et al. (2017, p. 161) believe there are three steps in Formative Measurement Models Assessment Procedure:

Step 1: Assess the convergent validity of formative measurement models

Step 2: Assess formative measurement models for collinearity issues

Step 3: Assess the significance and relevance of the formative indicators

Scholars have suggested different metrics for evaluating formative measures' convergent validity, the significance and relevance of indicator weights, and the presence of collinearity among indicators (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006; Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000; Hair et al., 2017a). In the following sections, these three steps with the chosen metrics will be explained.

Convergent Validity

This study opted to use the redundancy analysis proposed by Chin (1998) and recommended by Hair et al. (2017) to test the convergent validity for formative measurement models. Based on this method, it needs to investigate whether the formatively measured construct is strongly correlated with a reflective measure of the same construct. The term redundancy analysis derives from the information in the model. The measure is redundant if it is existed in the formative construct and also in the reflective construct. It needs to employ the formative construct as an exogenous latent variable predicting an endogenous latent variable which is one or several reflective indicators. The strength of the path coefficient connecting two constructs illustrates the validity of the specified group of formative indicators in picking the target construct. An ideal magnitude of 0.80, but at a minimum of 0.70 and above, is required for the path between the formative construct and reflective indicators (Chin, 1998; Hair et al., 2017a).

The convergent validity results for two formative SO components in this study are explained as the following. Perceived Local People/Tour Leader Support does not need convergent validity. It consists of two FO constructs; one represents the Local People aspect, representing the Tour Leader aspect of this SO construct.

Destination Perceived Risk (DPR)

To find a suitable reflective indicator of the construct to apply the redundancy analysis, Sarstedt et al. (2013) suggest using a global item summarizing the construct's essence of the formative indicators supposed to measure. So, we selected the DPR_ovR5; "Prior to my trip, I viewed this country as more dangerous than other places around the world." as a global item. This reflective indicator can summarize the essence of DPR because, in this study, DPR refers to a tourist's perceived risk about a specific destination before travelling there

(Glossary of the Terms in Chapter 1). The path coefficient between DPR and DPR_ovR5 is 0.821, which is higher than the threshold of 0.7 (Chin, 1998; Hair et al., 2017a). So DPR has no convergent validity issue (Appendix 14).

Collinearity, Significance & Relevance

As mentioned, the second and third steps for formative measurement model evaluation are checking the collinearity and significance & relevance. The measure to evaluate the collinearity is the variance inflation factor (VIF), termed the tolerance's reciprocal (Hair et al., 2017a). As Table 4.14 shows, the VIF values for all FO constructs, as the predictors of three SO constructs in this study, were below the suggested threshold of 10 (Hair et al., 1998; Lei & Lam, 2015; Wang & Hung, 2015; Wu et al., 2017; Huang, Hung, & Chen, 2018; Kim, Kim, & Suveatwatanakul; 2020; Wang et al., 2020). VIF values for DPR ranged from 2.148 to 5.466, and for PLTS were 1.165 for each of the two constructs. These results indicate that the issue of multicollinearity was absent.

Next, outer weight is used as an essential criterion for assessing the contribution of a formative indicator, and thus its relevance. The outer weight results from multiple regression by considering the latent variable as the dependent variable and the formative indicators as the independent variables (Hair et al., 1998). Table 4.15 shows that all standardised weights are statistically significant (p <0.001) and relevant. Moreover, all t-values were greater than 1.96, as they ranged from 5.012 to 20.888.

Table 4.15. Collinearity, Significance, & Relevance of the Second-Order Measurement Models

Second-order Constructs	First- order constructs	Weight	t- value	VIF
Destination Perceived Risk (Formative)	Financial Risk	0.218***	13.056	2.606
	Overall Risk	0.083***	5.323	2.148
	Performance Risk	0.308***	17.645	3.628
	Physical Risk	0.199***	13.889	3.850
	Socio-Psychological Risk	0.230***	11.439	5.466
	Time Risk	0.130***	9.190	4.756
Perceived Local People/Tour Leader Support (Formative)	Perceived Local People Support (PLS)	0.680***	11.160	1.165
	Perceived Tour Leader Support (PTS)	0.680***	14.150	1.165

****p < 0.001*; based on two tailed test

4.3. Revision for Main-Survey

Based on the results of the pilot study, slight amendments were made to the measurement instrument. Six indicators were deleted because of the discriminant validity issues. They include one indicators of Physical Risk, DPR1_PhR3 “I was concerned about natural disasters in this country.” one indicator of Performance Risk, DPR1_Per8 “I was concerned that hospitality employees in this country would not be courteous to international tourists.”; one indicator of Anxiety construct, emtD_Axy6 “During my trip, I was so anxious that I couldn’t fully concentrate”; one indicator of Enjoyment construct, emtD_Ejt3 “During my trip, I thought that things were going great.”; one indicator of Hopelessness construct, emtD_Hps3 “During my trip, I would prefer to give up.”; and one indicator of Shame, emtA_Shm1 “I am embarrassed about my lack of knowledge about this country.” In addition, minor wording revisions were applied to some statements and introductions of the questionnaire. The final version was proceeding to the questionnaire translation step.

4.4. Questionnaire Translation Process

There are four processes recommended for translating an instrument: one-way translation, double/back translation, translation by the committee, and decentering (McGorry, 2000). Van de Vijver (2001, p. 3002) stressed that “…because a literal translation does not always guarantee linguistic equivalence, it has become increasingly popular to utilise adaptations…[where]…parts are changed (instead of literally translated) to improve an instrument’s suitability for a target group”. Back translation is adaption-based. This is whereby the translation is through a bi-lingual translator whose native language is the language into which the item is translated. After that, this version is re-translated back into the original language by a bi-lingual who is of the original language (Werner & Campbell, 1970). Comparison of the two versions can easily identify problematic items.

The back-translation method is also helpful to avoid the “item bias” (McGorry, 2000; Werner & Campbell, 1970). Item bias or differential item function refers to the misrepresentations at the item level. More specifically, these biased items have distinctive psychological meanings across cultures (Triandis, 1994). Item bias is mainly caused by inadequate translation, ambiguities in the original item, and low suitability or understanding of the item content and wording (van de Vijver, & Tanzer, 2004). To ensure consistency, the

process can be repeated twice, with the two resulting instruments being crosschecked, as recommended by Werner and Campbell (1970) and Brislin (1976).

Malhotra et al. (1996) also recommended several repeat translations and back-translations to develop equivalent questionnaires. On the one hand, this process may be expensive and may require more time. On the other, it is an effective and efficient process as it gives a good deal of control over the development effort of the questionnaire, adding/dropping during the process and making the final questionnaire academic/culturally specific. Numerous researchers (Kim & Petrick, 2021; Kim & Hall, 2020; Li & Wang, 2020; Wu et al., 2021) have successfully adopted the back-translation procedure.

There are seven target markets for the main survey in the present study: Australia, China, Brazil, France, India, the United Kingdom, United States of America. In order to get more accurate data, it is planned to distribute the questionnaire in participants' local languages. Therefore, the original English questionnaire has been planned to be translated into five languages. These include Chinese (for China market), Brazilian Portuguese (for Brazil market), French (for France market), Bengali, and Hindi (for India market).

By applying the back-translation method, the following process has been done respectively for each target language:

Step 1: Hired a professional native translator in the target language with an excellent command of English to translate the questionnaire from English into the target language,

Step 2: Hired a professional native translator in the target language with an excellent command of English to translate the questionnaire from the target language into English,

Step 3: The Ph.D. student (I) compared the back-translated one with the original English for any inconsistencies, mistranslations, meaning, cultural gaps and/or lost words or phrases (McGorry, 2000),

Step 4: Hired a professional native translator in the target language with an excellent command of English to proofread the target language version,

Step 5: Hired a professional native translator in the target language with an excellent command of English to translate the proofread version into English,

Step 6: The Ph.D. student (I) compared the latest English version with the original English,

Step 7: In the case of any differences between translated English version and original English, the translator in step 5 has been asked to proofread based on the Ph.D. student's comments or explain whether the current translation is acceptable or not,

Step 8: Hired a professional native translator in the target language with an excellent command of English to check the final target translated version based on the original English and revise/proofread if needed.

For Chinese translation, one post-doctoral fellow and one Ph.D. candidate in the travel and tourism field were hired to help with steps 1 and 2, respectively. Both were native Chinese speakers with an excellent command of English. Professional translators did the rest. All steps for all languages have been done by an independent translator, except steps 5 and 7. In the end, around 25 professional translators have been hired to do the translations process for these five languages.

After that, the finalised translated questionnaires need to be validated by native speakers before conducting the main survey. In this way, we can be completely sure about its accuracy, understanding, and transparency. For each language, six native speakers with different educational backgrounds in different majors have been hired to read and answer the translated questionnaire. Then, they have been asked for their feedback. In most cases, they approved the quality of translation, and they didn't find any issue in terms of its accuracy, understanding, and transparency. Therefore, the validation step has been done with the help of 30 native speakers. The procedure confirmed the clarity and comprehensiveness of the measurement items and maximised the content validity of the questionnaire.

After finalising all translations, the final versions have been designed in the Qualtrics platform as added language plus English. The final survey link has been shared with Dynata online survey company to distribute it for the main survey. In the next chapter, the main survey results are reported.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS

The main survey was conducted to acquire a new set of data to test the conceptual model proposed in this study. The main survey also took a quantitative approach through an online questionnaire survey. The data collection was done during March and early April 2021. The final dataset shows that a total of 4523 people accessed the survey link. 3216 were screened out, 3066 because of screen questions, and 150 persons because of quota full. One hundred one respondents did not complete their survey; therefore, they have been omitted. Finally, 1206 completed surveys were received. 871 out of 1206 questionnaires were acceptable to analyse based on the quality criteria which were explained in the prior chapter.

The PLS-SEM approach using SmartPLS 3.0 software was adopted to analyse the main data set. Reporting of the results of the main survey followed two steps. The first step focused on the measurement model (outer model). In this step, the reliability and validity of the indicators that measure the constructs need to be completed to proceed to the second phase, which investigates the structural model (inner model). The assessment of the structural model determines whether the proposed model is capable of predicting target constructs.

5.1. Data Screening

Usually, before starting to analyse data, four steps should be done: first, the missing data will be solved; second, the common method bias (CMB); third, outliers, and fourth, normality (Kline, 2011). As it was an online survey, all questions were set as need to answer; otherwise, it was not possible for respondents to go to the next section. Therefore, there was no missing data.

Common method bias (CMB) is a potential concern (Podsakoff et al., 2003) when collecting behavioural and attitudinal data from self-report questionnaires at a one-time point (Chang et al., 2010). Based on Lin et al.'s (2019) recommendation, this study will adopt several techniques to avoid this. First, participants will be told that their answers were anonymous, and they will not know the exact purpose of the survey. Second, they will be told that there are no right or wrong answers, and they could answer questions honestly. Third, the questions on the questionnaire will be randomised. Finally, two main statistical tests will be applied to test the CMB.

Harman's single-factor test is the most common method to test the CMB (Podsakoff et al., 2003), especially in tourism researches that applied PLS-SEM for analysing data (Chiu et al., 2014; Carlson et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2016; Abror et al., 2019; Lin et al., 2019; Lochrie et al., 2019; Wong et al., 2019; Min et al., 2020; Oliveira et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020; Boukamba et al., 2021). Based on Harman's test, we will run a factor analysis for one factor-model. If the factor produces a variance percentage of less than 50%; therefore, it corroborates the absence of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2012). And the second test is variance inflated factors (VIF) (Kock & Lynn, 2012). If all VIFs scores are less than 10, it implies the absence of CMB, too (Boukamba et al., 2021; Oliveira et al., 2020). The result of one factor-model shows a 32.8% variance which is less than 50%. VIFs results were also lower than 10[1]. Therefore, these two criteria approve the absence of CMB.

Outliers signified as extreme responses are caused by "mechanical faults, changes in system behaviour, fraudulent behaviour, human error, instrument error or simply through natural deviations in populations" (Hodge & Austin, 2004, p. 85). Therefore, the data should be examined carefully based on the study context and the provided information (Hair et al., 2017). As mentioned in the previous chapter, all variables have been examined on a 7-point Likert Scale in the present study. There was no response out of this scale, so statistically, there was no outlier. However, considering the concept of an outlier as extreme responses, all three steps (mentioned in the previous chapter) were also applied during the main survey. In addition, quality criteria helped us detect 335 questionnaires with trapping, speeding, or straight-lining issues to ensure that the respondent did not answer with inattentiveness or misunderstanding. Besides, to ensure all respondents adequately represented the target population, 3216 surveys were terminated after failing to reply to five screening questions accurately.

Normality is a basic assumption in multivariate analysis. Although PLS-SEM does not assume data normality, checking data normality is essential to develop a better understanding of data characteristics used for the analysis. The normality test assessed the skewness and kurtosis of distribution (Kim, 2013). The absolute cut-off value of 3.0 is for skewness and 8.0 for kurtosis (Kline, 2011). As Table 5.1 shows, the skewness range was from -1.815 to 2.248 and Kurtosis range was from -1.184 to 5.243. Therefore, both skewness and kurtosis statistics verified that the data was normally distributed.

[1] Details VIFs for each factor will be presented in the next sections.

Interestingly, the descriptive statistics showed tourists experienced positive achievement emotions during and after travel to a risky destination more than negative achievement emotions. The means for Enjoyment and Pride indicators were between 5.35 to 6.25; on the contrary, means for five negative emotions (Shame, Anger, Anxiety, Boredom, and Hopelessness) were between 1.72 to 3.14 in 7-point Likert Scale (1=strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree).

Table 5.1. Descriptive Statistics of the Main Constructs

Construct	Indicator	Min	Max	Mean	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis
Destination Perceived Risk (DPR)	To what extent did your friends or relatives see this country as a risky place to visit?*	1	7	5.124	1.606	-0.684	-0.573
	I thought that my family/friends would worry about my safety while I was in this country.	1	7	4.231	1.830	-0.196	-1.053
	Prior to my trip, I viewed this country as more dangerous than other places around the world.	1	7	3.491	1.826	0.294	-1.020
	I was concerned about food safety problems in this country.	1	7	3.354	1.815	0.374	-1.022
	I was concerned that there might be epidemic diseases in this country.	1	7	3.047	1.738	0.618	-0.609
	I was concerned about natural disasters in this country, such as earthquakes, floods, and storms.	1	7	2.805	1.683	0.833	-0.248
	I was concerned about getting injured in a car accident in this country.	1	7	2.966	1.671	0.686	-0.375
	I was concerned about crime (theft, robbery, pickpockets) in this country.	1	7	3.488	1.772	0.149	-1.166
	I was concerned about terrorism in this country.	1	7	3.805	1.868	0.018	-1.184
	I was concerned about being exposed to danger due to political unrest in this country.	1	7	3.579	1.814	0.149	-1.120
	I was concerned that my behavior would not be well received by some local people (including the way I customarily dress).	1	7	3.689	1.840	0.115	-1.129
	I was concerned that I would not receive good value for my money.	1	7	3.180	1.597	0.481	-0.540
	I was concerned that the trip to this country would involve unexpected extra expenses (such as changes in exchange rates or extra costs in hotels).	1	7	3.518	1.729	0.206	-1.036
	I was concerned that the trip to this country would be more expensive than other international trips.	1	7	3.551	1.684	0.197	-0.975
	I was concerned that the trip to this country would involve more incidental expenses than I had anticipated, such as clothing, maps, sports equipment, and babysitters.	1	7	3.269	1.665	0.362	-0.871
	I was concerned that the trip to this country would have an impact on my financial situation.	1	7	2.944	1.644	0.594	-0.557

	I was concerned that the weather would be uncomfortable.	1	7	3.456	1.740	0.236	-1.078
	I was concerned that the hotels in this country would be unsatisfactory.	1	7	3.041	1.653	0.494	-0.729
	I was concerned that sites would be too crowded.	1	7	3.356	1.651	0.264	-0.910
	I was concerned that the food in this country would not be good.	1	7	3.047	1.687	0.427	-0.838
	I was concerned about possible strikes (airport, railway station, buses) in this country.	1	7	2.873	1.606	0.606	-0.607
	I was concerned that the tourist facilities available to the public in this country would not be acceptable.	1	7	3.030	1.616	0.467	-0.808
	I was concerned that the local people would not be friendly.	1	7	3.259	1.696	0.391	-0.847
	I was concerned that hospitality employees in this country would not be courteous to international tourists.	1	7	2.920	1.640	0.651	-0.504
	I was concerned that a trip to this country would not be compatible with my self-image.	1	7	2.667	1.621	0.813	-0.275
	I was concerned that my trip to this country would change the way, my friends think of me.	1	7	2.509	1.632	0.988	0.029
	I was concerned that I would not receive personal satisfaction from the trip to this country.	1	7	2.683	1.587	0.865	-0.066
	I was concerned that my trip to this country would change the way, my family thinks of me.	1	7	2.442	1.629	1.104	0.301
	I was concerned that my trip to this country would not match my status in life (social class).	1	7	2.401	1.580	1.121	0.378
	I was concerned that the trip to this country would be a waste of time.	1	7	2.215	1.487	1.300	0.937
	I was concerned that my trip would waste my valuable vacation time.	1	7	2.245	1.489	1.291	0.902
	I was concerned that planning and preparing for the trip would take too much time.	1	7	2.626	1.602	0.852	-0.230
Local People/Tour leader support (PLTS)	Local people offered me further assistance when I needed help.	1	7	5.495	1.236	-0.760	0.569
	Local people explained something about this country until I understand it.	1	7	5.361	1.322	-0.845	0.598
	Local people gave me the opportunity to say what I think.	1	7	5.123	1.406	-0.602	0.035
	Local people supported me to learn more about this country.	1	7	5.482	1.347	-0.896	0.607
	Tour leader offered me further assistance when I needed help.	1	7	5.929	1.080	-1.003	1.057
	Tour leader explained something about this country until I understand it.	1	7	5.903	1.068	-1.189	1.946

	Tour leader gave me the opportunity to say what I think.	1	7	5.669	1.200	-1.010	1.060
	Tour leader supported me to learn more about this country.	1	7	5.925	1.115	-1.218	1.794
Self-efficacy (S.E.)	During my trip in this country, I was able to successfully overcome many challenges.	1	7	5.333	1.288	-0.690	0.327
	I was able to achieve most of the goals that I had set for myself in traveling in this country.	1	7	5.819	1.023	-0.972	1.376
	During my trip in this country, I was confident that I could do many different activities effectively.	1	7	5.595	1.191	-0.893	0.867
	When facing difficult situations during my trip in this country, I was certain that I will resolve them.	1	7	5.354	1.204	-0.610	0.355
Task Value (T.V.)	I thought I will be able to use what I learned on this trip on other trips.	1	7	5.559	1.141	-0.618	0.001
	It was important for me to learn about this country on this trip.	1	7	5.868	1.083	-0.934	0.973
	I thought the experience of this trip is useful for me to learn.	1	7	5.897	1.038	-0.925	1.015
	Understanding this destination was very important to me.	1	7	5.902	1.057	-0.927	0.858
Achievement Emotion (A.E.)	During my trip, I was either tense or nervous.	1	7	2.383	1.504	1.071	0.364
	During my trip, I worried I would have a bad experience.	1	7	2.592	1.606	0.909	-0.180
	During my trip, I worried if this trip would be much too difficult for me.	1	7	2.633	1.549	0.829	-0.155
	During my trip, I was so anxious that I couldn't fully concentrate.	1	7	2.209	1.406	1.346	1.377
	My trip bored me to death.	1	7	1.715	1.200	2.248	5.243
	During my trip, I was so bored that I didn't feel like staying in this country anymore.	1	7	2.002	1.342	1.633	2.330
	During my trip, I thought this destination is boring.	1	7	2.173	1.476	1.430	1.352
	During my trip, I couldn't concentrate because I was so bored.	1	7	2.154	1.458	1.516	1.738
	During my trip, I felt hopeless.	1	7	1.913	1.309	1.766	2.757
	During my trip, I would prefer to give up.	1	7	1.901	1.332	1.863	3.152
	During my trip, I had no energy.	1	7	2.015	1.238	1.568	2.387
	During my trip, I kept thinking that I wouldn't understand this destination.	1	7	2.502	1.438	0.936	0.140
	I enjoyed my trip in this country.	1	7	6.248	1.023	-1.815	4.542
	This country as a destination on this trip was so exciting that I really enjoyed my trip.	1	7	5.839	1.314	-1.305	1.568
	During my trip, I thought that things were going great.	1	7	5.649	1.412	-1.407	1.706
	During my trip, I was happy that I gained knowledge about this country.	1	7	5.897	1.350	-1.563	2.325
	I was so upset during my trip that I would like to leave.	1	7	1.987	1.362	1.554	1.854

	I was often annoyed during my trip.	1	7	2.381	1.546	1.225	0.801
	During my trip, I got upset because everything in this country was so difficult to understand.	1	7	2.253	1.410	1.289	1.217
	During my trip in this country, I got irritated by my experience there.	1	7	2.238	1.489	1.392	1.332
	During my trip, when I didn't understand something about the destination, I didn't want to tell anybody.	1	7	2.679	1.478	0.817	0.141
	When I said something on my trip, I felt like I was embarrassing myself.	1	7	2.292	1.450	1.167	0.697
	I am embarrassed about my lack of knowledge about this country.	1	7	3.139	1.602	0.358	-0.739
	I feel ashamed of traveling to this country.	1	7	1.819	1.322	2.041	3.921
	During my trip, I was very motivated because I wanted to be proud of my achievements on this trip.	1	7	5.352	1.397	-0.896	0.604
	I think I can be proud of my knowledge about this country.	1	7	5.788	1.165	-1.017	1.062
	After my trip, I am proud of myself.	1	7	5.768	1.180	-0.864	0.492
	I am proud of how well I have done on my trip.	1	7	5.646	1.217	-0.889	0.657
	In general, I consider my travel to this country as an achievement for myself. (global item for A.E. convergent validity)	1	7	5.951	1.148	-1.141	1.135
Memorable Tourism Experience (MTE)	I was thrilled about having a new experience there.	1	7	6.186	0.988	-1.582	3.463
	I indulged in activities.	1	7	5.707	1.206	-1.064	1.125
	I really enjoyed the trip.	2	7	6.270	0.957	-1.585	3.086
	I had an exciting trip.	1	7	6.103	1.066	-1.388	1.992
	I had a once-in-a-lifetime experience.	1	7	5.898	1.224	-1.213	1.174
	I had a unique experience.	1	7	5.980	1.122	-1.230	1.641
	My trip was different from previous trips.	1	7	5.780	1.101	-0.826	0.685
	I experienced something new.	1	7	6.119	0.996	-1.387	2.603
	I had a good impression of the local culture.	1	7	5.991	1.090	-1.412	2.529
	I had a chance to experience the local culture closely.	1	7	5.666	1.180	-0.890	0.914
	The locals in this country were friendly to me.	1	7	5.825	1.161	-1.073	1.251
	I relieved stress during the trip.	1	7	5.361	1.305	-0.686	0.275
	I felt free from my daily routine during the trip.	1	7	5.828	1.127	-1.127	1.606
	I had a refreshing experience.	1	7	5.918	1.113	-1.208	1.704
	I felt better after the trip.	1	7	5.792	1.166	-1.058	1.059
	I felt that I did something meaningful.	1	7	5.907	1.110	-1.136	1.408
	I felt that I did something important.	1	7	5.786	1.168	-0.903	0.554
	I learned something about myself from the trip.	1	7	5.373	1.349	-0.661	-0.061
	I visited a place that I really wanted to visit.	1	7	5.969	1.197	-1.339	1.821

	I enjoyed the activities that I really wanted to do.	2	7	5.990	1.036	-1.087	1.122
	I was interested in the main activities offered.	1	7	6.005	0.997	-0.994	0.993
	I gained a lot of information during the trip.	2	7	6.003	1.036	-1.121	1.240
	I gained a new skill (s) from the trip.	1	7	5.187	1.490	-0.674	-0.099
	I experienced new culture (s).	1	7	6.053	1.027	-1.223	1.892

**7-point Likert Scale: 1=very risky to 7= very safe; the rest items are 1=strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree.*

5.2. Profile of Main Survey Respondents

As mentioned before, respondents are tourists from seven target countries who travelled to at least one of the ME destinations in the past 5 years. Table 5.2 represents the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents. There are more than 100 respondents from each target country, the lowest is 112 respondents from China and the highest is 140 from India. Among them, 58.4% were female and 41.4% were male. 32.7% were 30 - 39 years old and second group belongs to more than 60 years old (27.3%), and the young people (18 - 29 years) had the lowest number (9.8%) among others. In terms of education, 42.1% as the highest number chose postgraduate degree, then 35.4% picked bachelor degree, and the third group were some college/associated degree (14.4%). Majority of respondents were married (76%) and only 15% were single. For occupation, 26.3% were skilled worker, second group were retired (20.1%), third was clerical worker (14.9%). Only 1.5% of respondents were housework and 1.3% were students. Annual Household Income shows that the aggregation is mostly in the middle, the highest group is $50,000 – $74,999 (22.3%), second was $25,000 – $49,999 (19.6%), third was $75,000 – $99,999 (17.1%), and lowest was less than $15,000 (4.7%).

Among selected ME Countries visited in the past 5 years, the top popular was United Arab Emirates (56.7%), then Egypt (44.2%), after that Turkey (32.6%), next Israel (30.8%) and Qatar (30.3%). The lowest visited ones were Yemen (2.2%), Syria (5.3%) and Iraq (5.5%). The results of this question demonstrate that more than half of the respondents (58.6%) travelled to 2-4 ME countries, second group was 18.4% of respondents who visited 5-7 ME countries, and only 16.8% of respondents visited one ME country in the past 5 years. In order to answer to the questionnaire, respondents were requested to select the most recent ME countries that the travelled to and had at least one night stay there. Results of this question shows, the range of respondents for each ME destinations is between 67 to 112, Oman and UAE respectively. In terms of their purpose of trip, majority of respondents

(77.6%) travelled there for leisure, 12.5% travelled for business, 5.9% for VFR, 2.3% for pilgrimage, 0.5% for education, and 0.3% for health. Travel companion questions shows, 41.1% of respondents travelled there with spouse/partner, 18.8% travelled alone, 16.9% travelled with their family and kids, and only 11.3% travelled with friends. 44.4% of respondents had one travel companion which is matched with the last question. Among respondents, the most popular length of stay was 4-7 nights (45.5%). Majority of respondents (79%) stayed in hotel and three least popular accommodation types were couch-surfing (0.2%), camping/backpacking (0.6%), and traditional hotel (3%). However, 30.4% of respondents travelled there in a group tour but 35.8% of independent travellers experienced a local tour guide too.

Table 5.2. Profile of Main Survey Respondents

Profile Category		Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Nationality	Australia	125	14.4
	Brazil	126	14.5
	China	112	12.9
	France	119	13.7
	India	140	16.1
	United Kingdom	132	15.2
	United States of America	117	13.4
Gender	Female	509	58.4
	male	361	41.4
	transgender	1	0.1
	other	0	0.0
Age	18 - 29 years	85	9.8
	30 - 39 years	285	32.7
	40 - 49 years	152	17.5
	50 - 59 years	111	12.7
	60 years or more	238	27.3
Education	high school or below	67	7.7
	some college / associated degree	125	14.4
	Bachelor’s degree	308	35.4
	postgraduate degree	367	42.1
	other	4	0.5
Marital Status	single	131	15.0
	married	662	76.0
	divorced	42	4.8
	widowed	23	2.6
	other	13	1.5
Occupation	skilled worker	229	26.3

	service worker	82	9.4
	clerical worker	130	14.9
	self-employed	109	12.5
	teacher/professor	57	6.5
	student	11	1.3
	civil servant	25	2.9
	housework	13	1.5
	retired	175	20.1
	other	40	4.6
Annual Household Income (USD)	less than $15,000	41	4.7
	$15,000 – $24,999	82	9.4
	$25,000 – $49,999	171	19.6
	$50,000 – $74,999	194	22.3
	$75,000 – $99,999	149	17.1
	$100,000 – $124,999	92	10.6
	$125,000 – $149,999	74	8.5
	$150,000 or more	68	7.8
Middle Eastern Countries Visited Past 5 Years	Bahrain	98	11.3
	Cyprus	108	12.4
	Egypt	385	44.2
	Iran	108	12.4
	Jordan	204	23.4
	Kuwait	139	16.0
	Iraq	48	5.5
	Lebanon	173	19.9
	Oman	158	18.1
	Palestine	99	11.4
	Qatar	264	30.3
	Saudi Arabia	214	25.6
	Israel	268	30.8
	Syria	46	5.3
	Turkey	284	32.6
	Yemen	19	2.2
	United Arab Emirates	494	56.7
Num. of Middle Eastern Countries Visited Past 5 Years	1 country	146	16.8
	2 - 4 countries	510	58.6
	5 - 7 countries	160	18.4
	8 - 10 countries	31	3.6
	more than 10 countries	24	2.8
Selected Middle Eastern Destination	Egypt	108	12.4
	Iran	78	9.0
	Israel	94	10.8
	Jordan	87	10.0
	Kuwait	84	9.6

	Lebanon	92	10.6
	Oman	67	7.7
	Qatar	81	9.3
	Saudi Arabia	68	7.8
	United Arab Emirates	112	12.9
First-time vs Repeat visitor in the Selected Destination	First-time visitor	403	46.3
	Repeat visitor	468	53.7
Main Trip Purpose	Leisure	676	77.6
	Business	109	12.5
	Visiting Friends/Relatives	51	5.9
	Education	4	0.5
	Pilgrimage	20	2.3
	Health	3	0.3
	others	8	0.9
Travel Companions	Alone	164	18.8
	spouse/partner	358	41.1
	family with kid	147	16.9
	family without kid	21	2.4
	friends	98	11.3
	in a group tour	72	8.3
	other	11	1.3
Number of Travel Companions	Alone	164	18.8
	1 person	387	44.4
	2 - 3 persons	163	18.7
	4 - 6 persons	103	11.8
	7 persons or more	54	6.2
Length of Stay	1-3 nights	168	19.3
	4-7 nights	396	45.5
	8-15 nights	245	28.1
	16-30 nights	51	5.9
	31-60 nights	7	0.8
	61 nights or more	4	0.5
Accommodation Types	Hotel	688	79.0
	Airbnb	54	6.2
	Couch-surfing	2	0.2
	Relative/friend's house	48	5.5
	Camping/backpacking	5	0.6
	Traditional hotel*	26	3.0
	other	48	5.5
Group vs. independents	in a group tour	265	30.4
	Independent traveller, experienced a local tour guide	312	35.8
	Independent traveller, not experienced a local tour guide	294	33.8

**The old, traditional houses which were renovated and used as a hotel.*

As mentioned before, this study will use structural equation modelling (SEM; Rigdon, 1998) to analyse the data and conceptual model. SEM is one of the most prominent research methods throughout diverse disciplines. It can concurrently test a sequence of interrelated dependence relations among a group of constructs. This capability represents by multiple variables whereas explaining measurement error has an important role in the SEM's well-known application (Ali et al., 2018).

Partial least square is a component-based SEM technique and was primarily introduced by Wold (1975) and then it designed by Lohmöller (1989) as NIPALS (nonlinear iterative partial least squares). PLS-SEM is part of a family of alternating least squares algorithms that expand the principal component analysis and canonical correlation analysis to examine associations between latent constructs (Henseler et al., 2009). The method is designed as a substitute for the CB-SEM to highlight the prediction of endogenous constructs. Simultaneously, it has been proposed to address various limitations of the CB-SEM, for instance, conditional multivariate normality, model complexity, identification concerns, and sample size demands (Hair et al., 2012; Jöreskog & Wold, 1982; Ayeh, 2012).

The assessment of PLS-SEM results involves a two-step approach:

Step 1. the measurement model or outer model evaluation; and

Step 2. the structural model or inner model evaluation (Chin, 2010; do Valle & Assaker, 2016; Ali et al., 2018). These two steps will be explained in the following sections.

5.3. Outer Model Evaluation

The first phase of the PLS-SEM data analysis begins with outer model or measurement model evaluation. It identifies the relations among an unobserved or latent variable (LV) and its observed or manifest variables, otherwise stated, it determines the relations between the observed measures and their proposed underlying constructs (Ayeh, 2012; do Valle & Assaker, 2016).

The measurement model evaluation includes the evaluation of construct measures' reliability and validity. This evaluation uses distinct measures, subject to either a construct is measured reflectively or formatively (Sarstedt et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2014; Ali et al., 2018). In Table 5.3., five differences between reflective and formative measurements have been

mentioned. The main difference is that in reflective measurement indicators manifest the construct but in formative measurement, indicators define the construct.

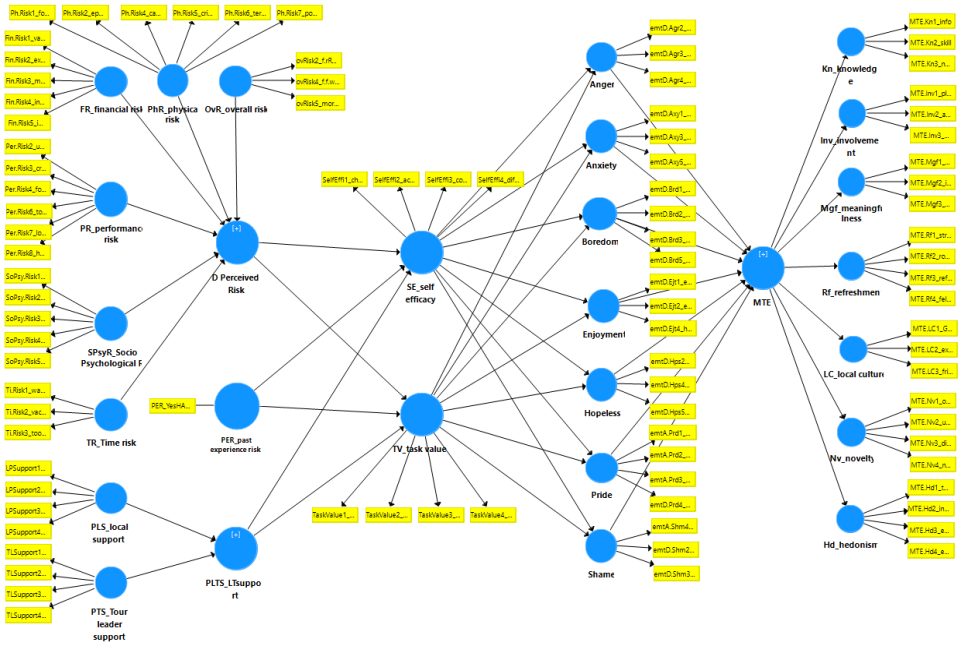
Table 5.3. Comparison between formative and reflective measurement models

	Characteristics	Reflective measurement model	Formative measurement model
1	Nature of relationships (theoretically)	• From construct to indicators • Indicators *manifest* the construct	• From indicators to construct • Indicators *define* the construct
2	Impact of changes	• Indicators are reflections of the construct thus changes in the indicators should not cause changes in the construct • However, changes in the construct should change the indicators	• Indicators cause the construct; therefore, changes in the indicators should change the construct • On the other hand, changes in the construct do not necessarily change the indicators
3	Indicators interchangeability	• Yes, because indicators may share a common theme	• No, because indicators are in different themes
4	Indicators' covariation	• Indicators are expected to covary • Should be highly correlated with each other	• Indicators do not necessarily covary • Low correlations are expected (to avoid multicollinearity)
5	Nomological net of the construct indicators	• Should be similar • Indicators are required to have the same antecedents and consequence	• Should differ • Same antecedents and the consequence is not required

Source: Jarvis et al. (2003), Petter et al. (2007)

Based on the above definitions and differences, in this study, reflective indicators are Self-efficacy, Task Value, Anger, Anxiety, Boredom, Enjoyment, Hopelessness, Pride, Shame, and MTE and its FO constructs. Formative indicators are DPR and PLTS (Figure 5.1).

Figure 5.1. The Proposed Model in PLS-SEM



5.3.1. Reflective Constructs

As mentioned in the pilot-test chapter, composite reliability and outer loadings of the reflective indicators ought to be examined to evaluate indicators' reliability (Hair et al., 2016). Composite reliability is employed to assess the internal consistency reliability of the construct measures, while outer loadings are used to assess indicator reliability (Hair et al., 2014). The values of composite reliability range from 0 to 1. A greater value signifies higher reliability with the threshold of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2016). Outer loadings refer to the correlation of the corresponding construct (Chin, 2010). The values of outer loadings should be higher than 0.5. Besides, t-statistics of outer loadings should be larger than 1.96 to be significant (Wong, 2013). AVE is examined to assess convergent validity. AVE values of 0.5 and higher indicate that the construct explains more than half of the variance of the indicators (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2011, 2016).

This research includes nine reflective variables: S*E, TV, Anger, Anxiety, Boredom, Enjoyment, Hopelessness, Pride, and Shame*. All indicators for these nine variables have outer loadings above 0.5 as they ranged between 0.652 to 0.901. The *t*-statistics are higher than the threshold of 1.96 as they ranged from 18.576 to 99.117 with a *p*-value less than 0.001. Their Cronbach's α are ranged from 0.780 to 0.902, and the CR for them are ranged 0.865 to 0.932, which are above the threshold. So, all *nine reflective variables* confirmed strong indicator reliability. Their AVE values are ranged from 0.616 to 0.774. They are higher than the threshold of 0.5 and meet convergent validity requirements (Table 5.4).

Table 5.4. Reliability of reflective measurement model

Construct	Indicator	Loadings	t-statistics	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE
Self-efficacy	During my trip in this country, I was able to successfully overcome many challenges.	0.652***	18.576	0.794	0.865	0.616
	I was able to achieve most of the goals that I had set for myself in travelling in this country.	0.838***	62.728			
	During my trip in this country, I was confident that I could do many different activities effectively.	0.874***	87.728			
	When facing difficult situations during my trip in this country, I was certain that I will resolve them.	0.755***	26.510			
Task value	I thought I will be able to use what I learned on this trip on other trips.	0.757***	34.898	0.861	0.906	0.708
	It was important for me to learn about this country on this trip.	0.871***	85.841			

	I thought the experience of this trip is useful for me to learn.	0.863***	55.739			
	Understanding this destination was very important to me.	0.867***	80.121			
Anger	I was so upset during my trip that I would like to leave.	0.862***	52.955	0.888	0.922	0.748
	I was often annoyed during my trip.	0.828***	42.241			
	During my trip, I got upset because everything in this country was so difficult to understand.	0.866***	64.226			
	During my trip in this country, I got irritated by my experience there.	0.901***	99.117			
Anxiety	During my trip, I was either tense or nervous.	0..855***	70.456	0.806	0.884	0.718
	During my trip, I worried I would have a bad experience.	0.846***	45.821			
	During my trip, I worried if this trip would be much too difficult for me.	0.809***	36.798			
Boredom	My trip bored me to death.	0.861***	55.567	0.902	0.932	0.774
	During my trip, I was so bored that I didn't feel like staying in this country anymore.	0.908***	70.537			
	During my trip, I thought this destination is boring.	0.872***	53.810			
	During my trip, I couldn't concentrate because I was so bored.	0.877***	52.525			
Enjoyment	I enjoyed my trip in this country.	0.845***	47.666	0.780	0.872	0.695
	This country as a destination on this trip was so exciting that I really enjoyed my trip.	0.887***	73.251			
	During my trip, I was happy that I gained knowledge about this country.	0.765***	28.178			
Hopelessness	During my trip, I felt hopeless.	0.890***	80.698	0.824	0.895	0.741
	During my trip, I had no energy.	0.880***	73.885			
	During my trip, I kept thinking that I wouldn't understand this destination.	0.810***	38.597			
Pride	I think I can be proud of my knowledge about this country.	0.878***	83.028	0.873	0.914	0.726
	After my trip, I am proud of myself.	0.889***	98.976			
	I am proud of how well I have done on my trip.	0.871***	65.232			
	During my trip, I was very motivated because I wanted to be proud of my achievements on this trip.	0.766***	29.562			
Shame	During my trip, when I didn't understand something about the destination, I didn't want to tell anybody.	0.817***	35.908	0.785	0.875	0.700

When I said something on my trip, I felt like I was embarrassing myself.	0.887***	71.017
I feel ashamed of travelling to this country.	0.804***	35.001

*Note: ***p < 0.001; based on two tailed test*

Fornell-Larcker criterion and cross-loadings are investigated for discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2016). For the Fornell-Larcker criterion, the square root of the AVE of each construct ought to be greater than the correlation values with any other constructs (Wong, 2013; Hair et al., 2011). At the indicator level, cross-loadings specify discriminant validity. The loading of each indicator ought to be higher than the cross-loadings (Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2011, 2014; Henseler et al., 2009; Wong, 2013).

Table 5.5. shows, there are some discriminant validity issues between reflective variables. The correlation between Boredom and Anger is greater than the square root of its AVE value. Based on Hair et al. (2017a), one solution to solve this issue is to remove indicators that have low correlations with other indictors measuring the identical construct. The correlation matrix for each pair of variables has been checked, and after deleting one indicator in the Anger construct, the issue has been solved (Table 5.6).

Table 5.5. Fornell-Larcker criterion for the reflective measurement model

	Anger	Anxiety	Boredom	Enjoyment	Hopelessness	Pride	Self-efficacy	Shame	Task value
Anger	**0.865**								
Anxiety	0.768	**0.847**							
Boredom	0.876	0.714	**0.880**						
Enjoyment	-0.498	-0.440	-0.539	**0.834**					
Hopeless	0.839	0.775	0.818	-0.490	**0.861**				
Pride	-0.360	-0.268	-0.415	0.692	-0.355	**0.852**			
Self-efficacy	-0.328	-0.329	-0.305	0.580	-0.328	0.584	**0.785**		
Shame	0.835	0.722	0.819	-0.455	0.823	-0.316	-0.296	**0.837**	
Task value	-0.371	-0.298	-0.386	0.641	-0.373	0.671	0.680	-0.336	**0.841**

As table 5.6 shows, now, all the square root of AVE of each construct are greater than the correlation values with any other constructs. The omitted indicator was emtD_Agr1 (I was so upset during my trip that I would like to leave.) which had a higher correlation with the Boredom construct than its own. The results of cross-loadings as the second criterion for discriminant validity show that the loading of each indicator is higher than the cross-loadings

(Appendix 15). Therefore, both criteria approve of the lack of discriminant validity issue in reflective constructs.

Table 5.6. Fornell-Larcker Criterion for Reflective Measurement Model after Deleting Problematic Indicators

	Anger	Anxiety	Boredom	Enjoyment	Hopelessness	Pride	Self-efficacy	Shame	Task value
Anger	**0.882**								
Anxiety	0.769	**0.847**							
Boredom	0.849	0.714	**0.880**						
Enjoyment	-0.485	-0.440	-0.539	**0.834**					
Hopeless	0.827	0.775	0.818	-0.490	**0.861**				
Pride	-0.358	-0.268	-0.415	0.692	-0.355	**0.852**			
Self-efficacy	-0.319	-0.329	-0.305	0.580	-0.328	0.584	**0.785**		
Shame	0.820	0.722	0.819	-0.455	0.823	-0.316	-0.296	**0.837**	
Task value	-0.357	-0.298	-0.386	0.641	-0.373	0.671	0.680	-0.336	**0.841**

Henseler et al. (2015) suggest evaluating the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) to remedy any deficiency of Fornell-Larcker and cross-loading criteria. The HTMT, as a more conservative criterion for discriminant validity, is the mean of all correlations of indicators across constructs measuring distinct constructs relative to the mean of the average correlations of indicators measuring the same construct. Technically, the HTMT approach estimates the true correlation between two constructs if they were perfectly measured or reliable. A true correlation between two constructs close to value 1 signifies the lack of discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2017a, b).

The exact threshold level of the HTMT is arguable. Scholars believe between three HTMT criteria ($HTMT_{.85}$, $HTMT_{.90}$, and $HTMT_{inference}$), the actual selection of criterion depends upon the model set-up. Although some constructs are conceptually distinct, they might be challenging to differentiate empirically in all research settings. Thus, the choice of a more liberal HTMT criterion, which is $HTMT_{inference}$ seems warranted (Henseler et al., 2015). Moreover, PLS-SEM does not lean on any distributional suppositions. Therefore, standard parametric significance examines cannot be utilized to check whether the HTMT statistic is significantly different from value 1. Researchers, rather, have to rely upon a bootstrapping procedure to obtain a distribution of the HTMT statistic. They refer to it as $HTMT_{inference}$. Therefore, this study applied the $HTMT_{inference}$ criterion as the third discriminant validity test.

In bootstrapping, subsamples are randomly obtained with replacement from the original dataset. Then, each subsample is employed to estimate the proposed model. This procedure is repeated until a massive number of random subsamples have been generated, usually about

5000. The confidence interval is the range into which the actual HTMT population value will be located. Here, it means presuming a certain confidence level, for example, 95%. A confidence interval including value 1 illustrates the lack of discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2017a, b).

Table 5.7. $HTMT_{inference}$ Criterion for Reflective Measurement Models

	Anger	Anxiety	Boredom	Enjoyment	Hopelessness	Pride	Self-efficacy	Shame	Task value
Anger									
Anxiety	[.88, .96]								
Boredom	[.93, .98]	[.78, .88]							
Enjoyment	[.51, .67]	[.46, .62]	[.57, .72]						
Hopelessness	**[.95, 1.01]**	[.91, .98]	[.91, .97]	[.53, .69]					
Pride	[.34, .48]	[.24, .39]	[.39, .53]	[.79, .88]	[.35, .48]				
Self-efficacy	[.27, .43]	[.31, .45]	[.25, .40]	[.61, .78]	[.29, .45]	[.63, .75]			
Shame	**[.96, .1.02]**	[.85, .94]	**[.94, 1.003]**	[.50, .67]	**[.98, 1.05]**	[.30, .46]	[.27, .43]		
Task value	[.34, .48]	[.27, .42]	[.36, .50]	[.71, .84]	[.36, .51]	[.72, .82]	[.76, .86]	[.32, .48]	

Table 5.7 shows that CI of Anger & Shame, Boredom & Shame, Hopelessness & Anger, and Shame & Hopelessness contains value 1. As mentioned before, Hair et al. (2017a) suggest omitting the items that have low correlations with other items measuring the same construct to decrease the $HTMT_{inference}$. After eliminating the problematic indicators in each construct, the final CI of the $HTMT_{inference}$ for Hopelessness-Anger was [0.86, 0.96], Shame-Anger was [0.89, 0.98], Boredom-Shame was [0.86, 0.95], and Hopelessness-Shame was [0.89, 0.97]. Deleted indicators were emtA_Shm4 (I feel ashamed of traveling to this country.), emtD_Agr3 (During my trip, I got upset because everything in this country was so difficult to understand.), emtD_Hps5 (During my trip, I kept thinking that I wouldn't understand this destination). Therefore, the final $HTMT_{inference}$ confirmed the lack of discriminant validity issue in the nine reflective constructs.

5.3.2. Reflective-Reflective Construct

As mentioned before, there are some hierarchical component models (HCMs) or higher-order models (Lohmöller, 1989) in this study; Memorable Tourism Experience (MTE) is the reflective-reflective HCM. Checking the outer model reliability and validity should be done in both first-order constructs (FOC) and second-order constructs (SOC). Its results have been presented in the following sections.

5.3.2.1. First-order Component Evaluation

There are seven FO reflective constructs for MTE: Refreshment, Hedonism, Knowledge, Meaningfulness, Involvement, Local Culture, and Novelty. All indicators for these seven variables have outer loadings above 0.5 as they ranged between 0.735 to 0.916. The *t*-statistics are higher than the threshold of 1.96 as they ranged from 31.409 to 135.306 with a *p*-value less than 0.001. Their Cronbach's α are ranged from 0.764 to 0.878, and the CR for them are ranged from 0.864 to 0.920, which are above the threshold. So, all seven FO reflective constructs confirmed strong indicator reliability. Their AVE values are ranged from 0.656 to 0.792. They are higher than the threshold of 0.5 and meet convergent validity requirements (Table 5.8).

Table 5.8. Reliability for First-order Constructs of Memorable Tourism Experience

Construct	Indicators	Loadings	t-statistics	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE
Hedonism	I was thrilled about having a new experience there.	0.865***	58.939	0.876	0.916	0.732
	I indulged in activities.	0.750***	33.302			
	I really enjoyed the trip.	0.895***	101.186			
	I had an exciting trip.	0.904***	111.489			
Involvement	I visited a place that I really wanted to visit.	0.872***	76.631	0.869	0.920	0.792
	I enjoyed the activities that I really wanted to do.	0.902***	94.343			
	I was interested in the main activities offered.	0.895***	96.338			
Knowledge	I gained a lot of information during the trip.	0.872***	92.158	0.764	0.864	0.681
	I gained a new skill (s) from the trip.	0.735***	34.050			
	I experienced new culture (s).	0.861***	79.841			
Local Culture	I had a good impression of the local culture.	0.877***	94.653	0.829	0.898	0.745
	I had a chance to experience the local culture closely.	0.834***	54.432			
	The locals in this country were friendly to me.	0.879***	72.316			
Meaningfulness	I felt that I did something meaningful.	0.893***	89.343	0.817	0.892	0.735
	I felt that I did something important.	0.916***	135.306			
	I learned something about myself from the trip.	0.753***	35.005			
Novelty	I had a once-in-a-lifetime experience.	0.881***	90.775	0.878	0.917	0.733
	I had a unique experience.	0.893***	86.949			
	My trip was different from previous trips.	0.806***	37.880			

	I experienced something new.	0.843***	51.034			
Refreshment	I relieved stress during the trip.	0.737***	31.409	0.825	0.884	0.656
	I felt free from my daily routine during the trip.	0.802***	47.025			
	I had a refreshing experience.	0.870***	92.176			
	I felt better after the trip.	0.825***	47.978			

****p < 0.001; based on two tailed test*

As Table 5.9. shows there is no discriminant validity issue in terms of the Fornell-Larcker criterion. In all FOCs for MTE, the square root of the AVE of each latent variable is higher than the other correlation values amongst the latent variables. Based on the second discriminant validity criteria, cross-loading, discriminant validity is established as each indicator's outer loadings on the related construct are higher than those on other constructs (Appendix 16).

Table 5.9. Fornell-Larcker Criterion for First-order Constructs of Memorable Tourism Experience

	Hedonism	**Involvement**	**Knowledge**	**Local Culture**	**Meaningfulness**	**Novelty**	**Refreshment**
Hedonism	0.855						
Involvement	0.818	0.890					
Knowledge	0.720	0.747	0.825				
Local Culture	0.764	0.759	0.750	0.863			
Meaningfulness	0.704	0.716	0.766	0.706	0.857		
Novelty	0.779	0.747	0.764	0.740	0.723	0.856	
Refreshment	0.733	0.746	0.721	0.729	0.759	0.705	0.810

Table 5.10 illustrates an issue between Meaningfulness & Knowledge in terms of $HTMT_{inference}$ ratio. Value 1 is included in their bootstrap CI [0.93, 1.02]. After eliminating the problematic indicator, MTE_Mgf3 (I learned something about myself from the trip.), the CI changed to [0.81, 0.93]. Therefore, the final $HTMT_{inference}$ ratio confirms the lack of discriminant validity in FOCs of MTE.

Table 5.10. $HTMT_{inference}$ ratio for First-order Constructs of Memorable Tourism Experience

	Hedonism	**Involvement**	**Knowledge**	**Local Culture**	**Meaningfulness**	**Novelty**	**Refreshment**
Hedonism							
Involvement	[.90, .96]						
Knowledge	[.82, .90]	[.85, .93]					

Local Culture	[.85, .92]	[.83, .93]	[.89, .97]				
Meaningfulness	[.76, .86]	[.78, .89]	[.93, 1.02]	[.79, .90]			
Novelty	[.84, .91]	[.81, .88]	[.88, .95]	[.82, .89]	[.79, .89]		
Refreshment	[.80, .88]	[.83, .90]	[.85, .94]	[.83, 91]	[.87, .95]	[.77, .85]	

5.3.2.2. Second-order Component Evaluation

In order to assess the reliability of the SOC of MTE, the path coefficient of FOC on SOC will be considered as their out loadings. So, it should be greater than the 0.7 cut-off point. As table 5.9. shows path coefficients ranged between 0.861 to 0.902. Its Cronbach's α is 0.966 and CR is 0.968, which are greater than 0.6. All t-values are greater than 1.96 as they ranged between 63.356 to 113.695 with a p-value less than 0.001. As mentioned before, Hair et al. (2017a, p. 70) suggest calculating AVE for reflective-reflective constructs manually. It is 0.779, which is higher than 0.5. Therefore, all criteria approve the reliability and validity for SOC of MTE.

Table 5.11. Reliability and Validity for Second-Order of Memorable Tourism Experience

Second-order Construct	First- order constructs	Path Coefficient	t-statistics	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE
Memorable Tourism Experience (MTE)	Hedonism	0.902***	107.323	0.966	0.968	0.779
	Involvement	0.897***	113.695			
	Knowledge	0.875***	98.889			
	Local Culture	0.878***	95.570			
	Meaningfulness	0.861***	63.356			
	Novelty	0.891***	110.529			
	Refreshment	0.872***	83.024			

5.3.3. Reflective-Formative Construct

As mentioned in the last chapter, there are two reflective-formative constructs in the present study; include DPR and PLTS. The following sections will present the reliability and validity assessment of FOC and SOC for these two reflective-formative constructs.

5.3.3.1. First-order Component Evaluation

Reliability & Validity of Reflective constructs

Destination Perceived Risk

In the present study, Destination Perceived Risk (DPR), as one of the reflective-formative constructs, has six FOC: overall risk, financial risk, physical risk, psychological risk, performance risk, and time risk. Same with pilot-test analysis, before analysing data, three positive statements in the overall risk construct have been reverse coded to keep the consistency between all five indicators. Table 5.10. shows the reliability analysis for FOCs of DPR. The outer loadings ranged between 0.715 to 0.941, which are greater than the threshold of 0.5, except for dgrOrisk_1 in overall risk "To what extent did your friends or relatives see this country as a risky place to visit?" It was 0.365 which is lower than threshold. So, this indicator has been deleted from the analysis.

T-values are also higher than 1.96 as they ranged between 37.027 to 196.039 with a p-value less than 0.001. Their Cronbach's α ranged from 0.754 to 0.930, and CRs ranged from 0.890 to 0.947. Therefore, all these criteria approve of the reliability of the FOC of DPR. AVE results also confirm the convergent validity of these FOCs as they ranged between 0.628 to 0.833. They exceeded the threshold 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 5.12. Reliability for First-Order Constructs of DPR

Construct	Indicator	Loadings	t-statistics	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE
Financial Risk	that I would not receive good value for my money.	0.836***	64.259	0.919	0.939	0.755
	that the trip to this country would involve unexpected extra expenses (such as changes in exchange rates or extra costs in hotels).	0.885***	91.179			
	that the trip to this country would be more expensive than other international trips.	0.856***	65.477			
	that the trip to this country would involve more incidental expenses than I had anticipated, such as clothing, maps, sports equipment, and babysitters.	0.897***	104.849			
	that the trip to this country would have an impact on my financial situation.	0.870***	94.401			
Overall Risk	To what extent did your friends or relatives see this country as a risky place to visit?	0.365	13.108	0.623	0.782	0.572
	I thought that my family/friends would worry about my safety while I was in this country.	0.881***	31.408			

	Prior to my trip, I viewed this country as more dangerous than other places around the world.	0.897***	30.265			
After Omitting the First Indicator	I thought that my family/friends would worry about my safety while I was in this country.	0.877***	75.242	0.754	0.890	0.801
	Prior to my trip, I viewed this country as more dangerous than other places around the world.	0.913***	143.771			
Performance Risk	that the weather would be uncomfortable.	0.715***	37.027	0.915	0.931	0.628
	that the hotels in this country would be unsatisfactory.	0.835***	68.992			
	that sites would be too crowded.	0.748***	42.786			
	that the food in this country would not be good.	0.799***	53.564			
	about possible strikes (airport, railway station, buses) in this country.	0.776***	47.800			
	that the tourist facilities available to the public in this country would not be acceptable.	0.836***	60.130			
	that the local people would not be friendly.	0.784***	48.109			
	that hospitality employees in this country would not be courteous to international tourists.	0.838***	71.441			
Physical Risk	about food safety problems in this country.	0.822***	63.425	0.927	0.940	0.661
	that there might be epidemic diseases in this country.	0.833***	71.907			
	about getting injured in a car accident in this country.	0.820***	64.719			
	about crime (theft, robbery, pickpockets) in this country.	0.852***	76.488			
	about terrorism in this country.	0.808***	59.614			
	about being exposed to danger due to political unrest in this country.	0.837***	73.310			
Socio-Psychological Risk	that a trip to this country would not be compatible with my self-image.	0.887***	90.804	0.930	0.947	0.780
	that my trip to this country would change the way, my friends think of me.	0.895***	88.804			
	that I would not receive personal satisfaction from the trip to this country.	0.866***	74.537			
	that my trip to this country would change the way, my family thinks of me.	0.878***	61.147			
	that my trip to this country would not match my status in life (social class).	0.890***	89.724			
Time Risk	that the trip to this country would be a waste of time.	0.919***	110.102	0.900	0.937	0.833
	that my trip would waste my valuable vacation time.	0.941***	196.039			
	that planning and preparing for the trip would take too much time.	0.877***	78.027			

***p < 0.001; based on two-tailed test

For discriminant validity, the Fornell-Larcker criterion shows an issue among performance risk – Financial risk and Physical risk – Performance risk. The reason is that the square root of the AVE of each latent variable is lower than the other correlation values amongst the latent variables (Table 5.11).

Table 5.13. Fornell-Larcker Criterion for First-Order Constructs of DPR

	Financial Risk	Overall Risk	Performance Risk	Physical Risk	Socio-Psychological Risk	Time Risk
Financial Risk	**0.869**					
Overall Risk	0.468	**0.895**				
Performance Risk	0.793	0.511	**0.792**			
Physical Risk	0.732	0.652	0.805	**0.829**		
Socio-Psychological Risk	0.707	0.437	0.774	0.679	**0.883**	
Time Risk	0.657	0.430	0.727	0.611	0.823	**0.913**

To solve the discriminant validity issue, two indicators have been deleted one by one. They had low correlations with other indicators measuring the same construct (Hair et al., 2017a). These indicators include Per.Risk1 (I was concerned that the weather would be uncomfortable.) and Per.Risk5 (I was concerned about possible strikes (airport, railway station, buses) in this country.) both are at performance risk. Table 5.12. shows the final Fornell-Larcker results after deleting these problematic indicators. As the second criterion for discriminant validity, cross-loading results also approve the absence of discriminant validity issue in FOCs of DPR (Appendix 17). Each indicator's outer loadings on the related construct are higher than those on other constructs (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 5.14. Fornell-Larcker Criterion for First-Order Constructs of DPR After Deleting Problematic Items

	Financial Risk	Overall Risk	Performance Risk	Physical Risk	Socio-Psychological Risk	Time Risk
Financial Risk	**0.869**					
Overall Risk	0.466	**0.895**				
Performance Risk	0.770	0.511	**0.817**			
Physical Risk	0.732	0.652	0.786	**0.829**		
Socio-Psychological Risk	0.707	0.437	0.757	0.678	**0.883**	
Time Risk	0.657	0.430	0.719	0.610	0.823	**0.913**

The third criterion, $HTMT_{inference}$, also confirmed the lack of discriminant validity issue in FOCs of DPR. All CI bias corrected were less than value 1 (Table 5.15). Therefore, all six risk perception types were conceptually distinct.

Table 5.15. $HTMT_{inference}$ Ratio for First-Order Constructs of DPR

	Financial Risk	Overall Risk	Performance Risk	Physical Risk	Socio-Psychological Risk	Time Risk
Financial Risk						
Overall Risk	[.48, .61]					
Performance Risk	[.81, .88]	[.54, .67]				
Physical Risk	[.78, .85]	[.72, .83]	[.84, .91]			
Socio-Psychological Risk	[.71, .79]	[.44, .57]	[.77, .83]	[.68. .77]		
Time Risk	[.67, .76]	[.44, .57]	[.74, .82]	[.62, .72]	[.86, .92]	

Perceived Local People/Tour Leader Support

The second reflective-formative construct is Perceived Local People/Tour Leader Support (PLTS) in the present study. Two FOCs include Perceived Local People Support (PLS) and Perceived Tour Leader Support (PTS), each with four indicators. Outer loadings ranged between 0.845 to 0.904 with t-statistics above 1.96 as ranged between 47.482 to 117.447 with a p-value less than 0.001. Their Cronbach's α are 0.897 and 0.908, and CR is 0.928 and 0.935. Therefore, both FOCs of PLTS confirmed strong indicator reliability. In terms of convergent validity, both AVEs are higher than 0.5 as they are 0.764 and 0.784. So, there is no validity issue for FOCs of PLTS too.

Table 5.16. Reliability for First-Order Constructs of PLTS

Construct	Indicator	Loadings	t-statistics	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE
Perceived Local People Support (PLS)	Local people offered me further assistance when I needed help.	0.846***	55.313	0.908	0.935	0.784
	Local people explained something about this country until I understand it.	0.891***	90.677			
	Local people gave me the opportunity to say what I think.	0.899***	110.710			
	Local people supported me to learn more about this country.	0.904***	117.447			
Perceived Tour Leader Support (PTS)	The tour leader offered me further assistance when I needed help.	0.875***	61.942	0.897	0.928	0.764
	The tour leader explained something about this country until I understand it.	0.886***	62.828			

The tour leader gave me the opportunity to say what I think.	0.845***	47.482
The tour leader supported me to learn more about this country.	0.888***	77.523

****p < 0.001; based on two tailed test*

Table 5.14. illustrates the square root of AVE for PLS is greater than its highest correlation with PTS and vice versa (Chin, 2010; Hair et al., 2017a). Therefore, the results of the Fornell-Larcker criterion does not show any discriminant validity issue between these two FOCs of PLTS. Cross-loadings results for FOCs of PLTS show that all four indicators' outer loadings on the PLS were greater than their loadings on PTS and vice versa (Appendix 18). So there was no issue in terms of this discriminant validity criterion too. Fornell-Larcker and cross-loading, both results confirmed that discriminant validity for two reflective LOCs of PLTS was established.

Table 5.17. Fornell-Larcker Criterion for First-Order Constructs of PLTS

	Perceived Local People Support (PLS)	Perceived Tour Leader Support (PTS)
Perceived Local People Support (PLS)	**0.885**	
Perceived Tour Leader Support (PTS)	0.462	**0.874**

5.3.3.2. Second-order Component Evaluation

As mentioned before, the SOCs for DPR and PLTS are formative. The formative models' assumption is that the entire measures effect or trigger the latent construct (Ayeh, 2012). Otherwise stated, the "direction of causality flows from the indicators to the latent construct, and the indicators, as a group, jointly determine the conceptual and empirical meaning of the construct" (Jarvis et al., 2003; p. 201). Formative measures mean the relation goes from the items to the construct, implying that items employed to measure the construct are not correlated and play different roles in forming their target construct (do Valle & Assaker, 2016).

The indicators in a formative outer model present independent instigates of a theoretical concept and are not required to be correlated. Therefore, researchers believe that it is not

required and even it does not make sense, to assess a formative outer model by evaluating the reliability and validity, like reflective outer model evaluation. Instead, the first important in assessing these models is their theoretical rationality and the experts' opinions (Bollen, 1989; Henseler et al., 2009; Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001; Petter et al., 2007; Ayeh, 2012). Second important facet is to check some statistical criteria. Therefore, the formative measures' validation needs a distinct approach than what has been used for reflective constructs. Hair et al. (2017a) suggest three steps for Formative Measurement Models Evaluation Process:

Step 1: Assess the convergent validity of formative measurement models

Step 2: Assess formative measurement models for collinearity issues

Step 3: Assess the significance and relevance of the formative indicators

Scholars have suggested different metrics to evaluate formative measures. It includes convergent validity, the significance and relevance of indicator weights, and the manifestation of collinearity amongst indicators (Diamantopoulos, 2006; Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000; Hair et al., 2017a). In the following sections, these three steps with the chosen metrics will be explained.

Convergent Validity

In PLS-SEM, construct validity for a formative indicator is commonly assessed by two tests: redundancy analysis or inter-construct correlations and nomological validity (Ali et a., 2018). Redundancy analysis will test the relation among each formative construct and the same construct measured by a single global item or by reflective items. Correlations between the formative and the rest constructs in the model ought to be below 0.71 (Mackenzie et al., 2005; Hair et al., 2017b; Henseler et al., 2016).

Nomological validity shows that the construct performs as supposed and as adequately referred to in previous literature. Nomological validity needs that: first, information is gathered for minimum another construct in addition to the one described by the formative construct, second, this different construct needs to be measured by reflective indicators, and lastly, it should be possible to hypothesise a theoretical relation between the constructs

(Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001; Henseler et al., 2009; Petter et al., 2007; Straub et al., 2004; Ayeh, 2012).

This study opted to use the redundancy analysis proposed by Chin (1998) and recommended by Hair et al. (2017a) to test the convergent validity for formative measurement models. Based on this method, it needs to investigate if, in the same construct, the formatively measured construct is greatly correlated with a reflective measure. The term redundancy analysis derives from the information in the model. The measure is redundant if it is existed in the formative construct and also in the reflective one. It needs to employ the formative construct as an exogenous latent construct to predict an endogenous latent construct which is one or several reflective indicators. The intensity of the path coefficient connecting two constructs illustrates the validity of the specified group of formative indicators in picking the target construct. An ideal level of 0.80 or a minimum of 0.70 and more is preferred for the path between the formative construct and reflective indicators (Chin, 1998; Hair et al., 2017a). According to the redundancy analysis, the path coefficient among the formative and reflective indicators is 0.708 (Appendix 19), which is higher than the threshold of 0.7. This result approves there is no convergent validity issue for SOC of DPR. The results of redundancy analysis for SOC of PLTS also approve the lack of convergent validity issue in PLTS. The path coefficient among the formative construct and reflective indicator is 0.748; it is higher than the threshold of 0.7 (Appendix 20).

Collinearity, Significance & Relevance

As Hair et al. (2017a) suggest, the second step of formative construct assessment is checking the collinearity issues. In this order, the variance inflation factor (VIF) will be applied. The minimum values for indicators' VIF ought to be lower than 10 (Cohen, 1988; Gefen et al., 2000). After that, by going to the third step of formative measurement model assessment, the significance and relevance of the formative indicators should be examined. Researchers suggest assessing the indicator's contribution to the LV as an indicator validity by assessing indicators' weight and loading and the significance of the item weights (Cohen, 1988; Henseler et al., 2009; do Valle & Assaker, 2016). The bootstrapping technique in SmartPLS 3.0 is usually applied to check the significance of the item weights (Hair et al., 2011, 2017b). A significance level of at least 0.05 indicates that the measurement item is

relevant for the formative construct (Ayeh, 2012). The desirable coefficients of weights are 0.100 and above; however, the cut-off lower point is 0.05 (Lohmöeller, 1989; Wold, 1982).

Table 5.15. shows there is no collinearity issue in neither DPR's nor PLTS's SOCs. All are less than 10 as they ranged between 1.835 to 4.039 for DPR and 1.272 for PLTS. Besides, all weights of SOCs of DPR and PLTS are greater than the cut-off point of 0.05 as they ranged between 0.097 to 0.245 for DPR and 0.545 and 0.624 for PLTS. Thus, all weights are significant at the level of 0.001. The t-statistics are also higher than 1.96. For DPR, they ranged from 13.130 to 55.933, and for PLTS, they are 35.002 and 39.950. These approve the significance and relevance of FOCs for SOCs.

Table 5.18. Collinearity, Significance, & Relevance of the Second-Order Measurement Models

Second-order Constructs	First- order constructs	Weight	t- value	VIF
Destination Perceived Risk (Formative)	Financial Risk	0.220***	45.841	2.947
	Overall Risk	0.063***	20.389	1.756
	Performance Risk	0.259***	52.134	4.003
	Physical Risk	0.245***	47.746	3.764
	Socio-Psychological Risk	0.228***	44.572	3.993
	Time Risk	0.133***	34.991	3.373
Perceived Local People/Tour Leader Support (Formative)	Perceived Local People Support (PLS)	0.624***	35.002	1.272
	Perceived Tour Leader Support (PTS)	0.545***	39.950	1.272

****p < 0.001*; based on two-tailed test

5.3.4. External Validity

External validity investigates whether an observed causal relationship can be generalized to and across diverse persons, times, settings, and measures (Calder et al., 1982). Equipping the measurement scale with external validity will enhance its credibility and construct validity (Chi & Chi, 2020). Researchers believe that using several case studies or replicating a study in a different cultural context can enhance the external validity of research findings or developed framework because of cross-validation (Leung et al., 2015; Chi & Chi, 2020). The worldwide perspective for market sampling helped increase the measurement items' external validity in this study. Having participants from seven countries ensures the nonexistence of cultural bias and rises the external validity of the new theory in tourism and introduced indicators.

From the statistical perspective, the external validity of the constructs and indicators can be checked by two criteria; convergent validity and criterion validity (Cao et al., 2019). The former has been discussed in previous sections, which showed acceptable results. Criterion validity can be examined through correlations coefficients (Hung & Petrick, 2010). The correlations of anger, anxiety, boredom, enjoyment, hopelessness, pride, shame, TV, PLS, and PTS with DPR dimensions (finical risk, performance risk, socio-psychological risk, time risk), SE, and MTE dimensions (hedonism, involvement, knowledge, local culture, novelty, meaningfulness, refreshment) were tested. The Pearson correlation coefficients were statistically significant ($p < 0.001$, or 0.01, or 0.05) (Appendix 21). Therefore, the criterion validity of the measurements was acceptable, and the external validity was established.

5.3.5. Single-Item Construct

As mentioned before, PLS-SEM is able to manage both reflective and formative measurement models and single-item measures lacking any further requisites or restrictions. As the name indicates, a single-item construct is not characterised through a multi-item measurement model. The relations or correlation among the single indicator and the latent construct is constantly equal to 1. In other words, the single indicator and the latent construct have the same values. Therefore, the criteria for the evaluation of measurement models cannot be applied for single-item constructs (Hair et al., 2017a).

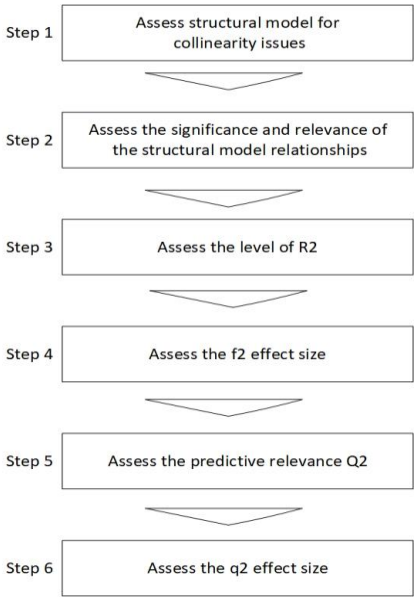
The categorical variables are typically dummy coded (such as 0-1), and the code zero presents the reference category. Thus, before starting the analysis, it needs to create one less dummy variable than the number of categories in the categorical independent variable (Hair et al., 2017a). There is a categorical variable in the conceptual model in the present study, Prior Experience with Risk (PER). It includes two main categories, 1. had past experience with risk, and 2. not had past experience with risk. Option one includes tourists who either were repeat-visitor in the selected destination or visited other ME destinations before. And option two include tourists who were first-time visitors to the selected destination and did not visit other ME destinations before (Appendix 22). Only 5.6% of respondents had no past experience with risk. Only 49 out of 871 tourists were first-time visitors to the selected destination and did not visit other ME destinations before.

5.4. Inner Model Evaluation

The suitability of the outer model (measurement model) estimations further allows inner model evaluation. Based on the satisfying measurement model evaluation results, the next step is evaluating the structural model. The structural model or widely known as an inner model represents the relations between the latent variables. In other words, the structural model specifies the causal relationships between the constructs, which is supposed as the conceptual model (Chin, 2010; Ayeh, 2012). Inner models are usually anchored to the theories that the studies are testing and estimating latent variables' relationships. To assess the structural model, PLS-SEM was conducted employing SmartPLS 3.0 software.

In PLS-SEM, the structural model is predominantly evaluated by heuristic criteria instead of examining the goodness-of-fit, which are established by the model's predictive capabilities. These criteria cannot be applied to assessing the overall goodness of fit in a CB-SEM logic. Instead, the model is evaluated in respect of how great it predicts the endogenous variables or constructs. There are six main steps to assess the structural model (Figure 5.2). The important criteria for evaluating the structural model in PLS-SEM include the significance of the path coefficients (Step 2), the level of the R^2 values (Step 3), the f^2 effect size (Step 4), the predictive relevance Q^2 (Step 5), and the q^2 effect size (Step 6) (Hair et al., 2017a). Each step will be explained, and the related results will be reported in the following sections.

Figure 5.2. Structural Model Assessment Procedure



Source: Hair et al. (2017a)

5.4.1. Collinearity

The first phase in structural model evaluation is examining the collinearity of the structural model (Hair et al., 2017a). To evaluate collinearity, the similar measures as in the assessments of formative measurement models, Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) need to be applied. VIF values lower than the widely accepted threshold of 5 indicate the absence of detrimental collinearity (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006; Hair et al., 2011, 2017; Henseler et al. 2009; Gefen et al., 2000; do Valle & Assaker, 2016; Ayeh, 2012; Ali et al., 2018). Table 5.16 shows the VIF values of all exogenous variables for their related endogenous variables in the inner model. All the values are obviously less the threshold value of 5, implying that collinearity amongst the exogenous variables is not a concern in the inner model.

Table 5.19. VIF values in the inner model

	Self-Efficacy	Task value	Anger	Anxiety	Boredom	Enjoyment	Hopeless-ness	Pride	Shame	Memorable Tourism Experience
Destination Perceived Risk	1.034	1.034								
Prior Experience with Risk	1.002	1.002								
Perceived Local People/tour leader support	1.032	1.032								
Self-efficacy			1.859	1.859	1.859	1.859	1.859	1.859	1.859	
Task Value			1.859	1.859	1.859	1.859	1.859	1.859	1.859	
Anger										3.718
Anxiety										2.737
Boredom										4.482
Enjoyment										2.305
Hopelessness										3.572
Pride										1.962
Shame										2.959

5.4.2. Path Coefficient

The second step of the inner model evaluation procedure is to look into the path coefficients representing the inner model relationships (Hair et al., 2016). Using the PLS-SEM algorithm, estimations are attained for the structural model relations, such as the path coefficients that represent the hypothesised relations between the constructs. The path coefficients have standardised values roughly among –1 and +1. In fact, values could be larger or smaller, but typically it is within these limits. Assessed path coefficients nearby +1

demonstrate robust positive associations, contrariwise for negative values. If the estimated coefficients are closer to value 0, their relationships are weaker. A significant coefficient is eventually subject to its standard error. Standard errors are obtained by employing bootstrapping analysis. The bootstrap standard error allows researchers to compute the empirical t-values and p-values for entire structural path coefficients. If an empirical t-value is greater than the critical value, it concludes that the coefficient is statistically significant at a particular error probability such as significance level. Broadly operated critical values for two-tailed tests are 1.96 (significance level = 5%), and 2.57 (significance level = 1%) (Hair et al., 2017a). The model's significant path coefficients specify that the proposed causal relationships are supported empirically (Hair et al., 2011). Although the relationships are significant, it may not be worth noticing from the managerial point of view until the relevance of significant relationships is verified because the size might be too small to draw attention (Hair et al., 2014, 2016).

Table 5.20 shows that twenty out of twenty-seven hypothesised relations in the inner model are statistically significant. Entire structural path estimates corresponded to the assumed direction. The insignificant path coefficients are the relationship between SE and Boredom, PER and SE, PER and TV, Anxiety and MTE, Boredom and MTE, Hopelessness and MTE, and Shame and MTE.

Table 5.20. Path Coefficient and significance

Hypothesis		Path Coefficient	t-value	Supported
H1-1	Self-efficacy to Anger	-0.146**	2.810	**Yes**
H1-2	Self-efficacy to Anxiety	-0.234***	4.637	**Yes**
H1-3	Self-efficacy to Boredom	-0.078	1.583	No
H1-4	Self-efficacy to Enjoyment	0.267***	5.948	**Yes**
H1-5	Self-efficacy to Hopelessness	-0.120**	2.410	**Yes**
H1-6	Self-efficacy to Pride	0.238***	6.004	**Yes**
H1-7	Self-efficacy to Shame	-0.152*	3.125	**Yes**
H2-1	Task value to Anger	-0.246***	5.544	**Yes**
H2-2	Task value to Anxiety	-0.139**	3.065	**Yes**
H2-3	Task value to Boredom	-0.332***	7.998	**Yes**
H2-4	Task value to Enjoyment	0.460***	11.722	**Yes**
H2-5	Task value to Hopelessness	-0.281***	6.109	**Yes**
H2-6	Task value to Pride	0.509***	13.986	**Yes**

H2-7	Task value to Shame	-0.216***	4.735	**Yes**
H3-1	Destination Perceived Risk to Self-efficacy	-0.112***	4.005	**Yes**
H3-2	Destination Perceived Risk to Task value	-0.167***	6.421	**Yes**
H4-1	Prior Experience with Risk to Self-efficacy	0.004	0.193	No
H4-2	Prior Experience with Risk to Task value	0.040	1.382	No
H5-1	Perceived Local people/Tour Leader Support to Self-efficacy	0.661***	28.661	**Yes**
H5-2	Perceived Local people Tour Leader Support to Task value	0.593***	24.650	**Yes**
H6-1	Anger to MTE	-0.098*	2.439	**Yes**
H6-2	Anxiety to MTE	-0.013	0.413	No
H6-3	Boredom to MTE	-0.075	1.639	No
H6-4	Enjoyment to MTE	0.377***	8.537	**Yes**
H6-5	Hopelessness to MTE	0.015	0.339	No
H6-6	Pride to MTE	0.411***	11.995	**Yes**
H6-7	Shame to MTE	0.030	0.856	No

****p < 0.001, **p < 0.005; based on two tailed test*

Hypothesis 1-1 proposed that "*Self-efficacy is negatively related to Anger as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination*." The hypothesis was analysed by assessing the path coefficient between Self-efficacy and Anger. As shown in Table 5.17, the path coefficient from Self-efficacy to Anger is negative and significant (β = -0.146, t = 2.810, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, hypothesis 1-1 is supported.

Hypothesis 1-2 specified that "*Self-efficacy is negatively related to Anxiety as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination*." The hypothesis was examined by evaluating the path coefficient between Self-efficacy and Anxiety. The path coefficient from Self-efficacy to Anxiety is negative and significant (β = -0.234, t = 4.637, $p < 0.001$). Therefore, hypothesis 1-2 is supported.

Hypothesis 1-3 posited that "*Self-efficacy is negatively related to Boredom as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination*." The hypothesis was tested by calculating the path coefficient between Self-efficacy and Boredom. The path coefficient from Self-efficacy to Boredom is negative but not significant (β = -0.078, t = 1.583, p = 0.111). Therefore, hypothesis 1-3 is not supported.

Hypothesis 1-4 postulated that "*Self-efficacy is positively related to Enjoyment as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination*." The hypothesis was investigated by examining the path coefficient between Self-efficacy and Enjoyment. The path coefficient from Self-efficacy to Enjoyment is positive and significant (β = 0.267, t = 5.948, $p < 0.001$). Therefore, hypothesis 1-4 is supported.

Hypothesis 1-5 proposed that "*Self-efficacy is negatively related to Hopelessness as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination*." The hypothesis was checked by assessing the path coefficient between Self-efficacy and Hopelessness. The path coefficient from Self-efficacy to Hopelessness is negative and significant (β = -0.120, t = 2.410, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, hypothesis 1-5 is supported.

Hypothesis 1-6 specified that "*Self-efficacy is positively related to Pride as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination*." The hypothesis was tested by analysing the path coefficient between Self-efficacy and Pride. The path coefficient from Self-efficacy to Pride is positive and significant (β = 0.238, t = 6.004, $p < 0.001$). Therefore, hypothesis 1-6 is supported.

Hypothesis 1-7 posited that "*Self-efficacy is negatively related to Shame as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination*." The hypothesis was examined by calculating the path coefficient between Self-efficacy and Shame. The path coefficient from Self-efficacy to Shame is negative and significant (β = -0.152, t = 3.125, $p < 0.05$). Therefore, hypothesis 1-7 is supported.

Hypothesis 2-1 postulated that "*Task-value is negatively related to Anger as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination*." The hypothesis was assessed by investigating the path coefficient between Task-value and Anger. The path coefficient from Task-value to Anger is negative and significant (β = -0.246, t = 5.544, $p < 0.001$). Therefore, hypothesis 2-1 is supported.

Hypothesis 2-2 proposed that "*Task-value is negatively related to Anxiety as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination*." The hypothesis was analysed by assessing the path coefficient between Task-value and Anxiety. The path coefficient from Task-value to Anger is negative and significant (β = -0.139, t = 3.065, $p < 0.01$). Therefore, hypothesis 2-2 is supported.

Hypothesis 2-3 posited that "*Task-value is negatively related to Boredom as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination*." The hypothesis was tested by calculating the path coefficient between Task-value and Boredom. The path coefficient from Task-value to Boredom is negative and significant (β = -0.332, t = 7.998, p < 0.001). Therefore, hypothesis 2-3 is supported.

Hypothesis 2-4 specified that "*Task-value is positively related to Enjoyment as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination*." The hypothesis was examined by analysing the path coefficient between Task-value and Enjoyment. The path coefficient from Task-value to Enjoyment is positive and significant (β = 0.460, t = 11.722, p < 0.001). Therefore, hypothesis 2-4 is supported.

Hypothesis 2-5 postulated that "*Task-value is negatively related to Hopelessness as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination*." The hypothesis was tested by examining the path coefficient between Task-value and Hopelessness. The path coefficient from Task-value to Hopelessness is negative and significant (β = -0.281, t = 6.109, p < 0.001). Therefore, hypothesis 2-5 is supported.

Hypothesis 2-6 proposed that "*Task-value is positively related to Pride as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination*." The hypothesis was checked by assessing the path coefficient between Task-value and Pride. The path coefficient from Task-value to Pride is positive and significant (β = 0.509, t = 13.986, p < 0.001). Therefore, hypothesis 2-6 is supported.

Hypothesis 2-7 specified that "*Task-value is negatively related to Shame as an achievement emotion of visiting a risky destination*." The hypothesis was assessed through evaluating the path coefficient between Task-value and Shame. The path coefficient from Task-value to Shame is negative and significant (β = -0.216, t = 4.735, p < 0.001). Therefore, hypothesis 2-7 is supported.

Hypothesis 3-1 posited that "*Destination perceived risk (DPR) is negatively related to the self-efficacy (SE) of visiting a risky destination."* The hypothesis was examined by calculating the path coefficient between DPR and Self-efficacy. The path coefficient from DPR to Self-efficacy is negative and significant (β = -0.112, t = 4.005, p < 0.001). Therefore, hypothesis 3-1 is supported.

Hypothesis 3-2 postulated that "*DPR is negatively related to the task value (TV) of visiting a risky destination negatively."* The hypothesis was analysed by calculating the path coefficient between DPR and Task-value. The path coefficient from DPR to Task-value is negative and significant (β = -0.167, t = 6.421, p < 0.001). Therefore, hypothesis 3-2 is supported.

Hypothesis 4-1 proposed that "*Prior experience with risk (PER) is positively related to the self-efficacy (SE) of visiting a risky destination."* The hypothesis was tested by assessing the path coefficient between PER and Self-efficacy. The path coefficient from PER to Self-efficacy is positive but not significant, and even the t-value is less than the threshold of 1.96 (β = 0.004, t = 0.193, p = 0.873). Therefore, hypothesis 4-1 is not supported.

Hypothesis 4-2 specified that *"PER is positively related to the task value (TV) of visiting a risky destination."* The hypothesis was examined by analysing the path coefficient between PER and Task value. The path coefficient from PER to Task value is positive but not significant, and even the t-value is less than the threshold of 1.96 (β = 0.040, t = 1.382, p = 0.172). Therefore, hypothesis 4-2 is not supported.

Hypothesis 5-1 posited that *"Perceived Local People/Tour Leader Support (PLTS) is positively related to the Self-efficacy of visiting a risky destination."* The hypothesis was investigated by evaluating the path coefficient between PLTS and Self-efficacy. The path coefficient from PLTS to Self-efficacy is positive and significant (β = 0.661, t = 28.661, p < 0.001). Therefore, hypothesis 5-1 is supported.

Hypothesis 5-1 postulated that *"PLTS is positively related to the Task value of visiting a risky destination."* The hypothesis was tested by analysing the path coefficient between PLTS and Task value. The path coefficient from PLTS to Task value is positive and significant (β = 0.593, t = 24.650, p < 0.001). Therefore, hypothesis 5-2 is supported.

Hypothesis 6-1 specified that "*Anger, as an achievement emotion, is related to Memorable Tourism Experience (MTE) of visiting a risky destination."* The hypothesis was analysed by calculating the path coefficient between Anger and MTE. The path coefficient from Anger to MTE is negative and significant (β = -0.098, t = 2.439, p < 0.05). Therefore, hypothesis 6-1 is supported.

Hypothesis 6-2 posited that "*Anxiety, as an achievement emotion, is related to MTE of visiting a risky destination."* The hypothesis was investigated by assessing the path

coefficient between Anxiety and MTE. The path coefficient from Anxiety to MTE is negative but not significant, and even the t-value is less than the threshold of 1.96 (β = -0.013, t = 0.413, p = 0.681). Therefore, hypothesis 6-2 is not supported.

Hypothesis 6-3 proposed that "*Boredom, as an achievement emotion, is related to MTE of visiting a risky destination."* The hypothesis was tested by examining the path coefficient between Boredom and MTE. The path coefficient from Boredom to MTE is negative but not significant, and even the t-value is less than the threshold of 1.96 (β = -0.075, t = 1.639, p = 0.103). Therefore, hypothesis 6-3 is not supported.

Hypothesis 6-4 postulated that "*Enjoyment, as an achievement emotion, is related to MTE of visiting a risky destination."* The hypothesis was analysed by calculating the path coefficient between Enjoyment and MTE. The path coefficient from Enjoyment to MTE is positive and significant (β = 0.377, t = 8.537, p < 0.001). Therefore, hypothesis 6-4 is supported.

Hypothesis 6-5 posited that "*Hopelessness, as an achievement emotion, is related to MTE of visiting a risky destination."* The hypothesis was examined by assessing the path coefficient between Hopelessness and MTE. The path coefficient from Hopelessness to MTE is positive but not significant, and even the t-value is less than the threshold of 1.96 (β = 0.015, t = 0.339, p = 0.582). Therefore, hypothesis 6-5 is not supported.

Hypothesis 6-6 proposed that "*Pride, as an achievement emotion, is related to MTE of visiting a risky destination."* The hypothesis was tested by analysing the path coefficient between Pride and MTE. The path coefficient from Pride to MTE is positive and significant (β = 0.411, t = 11.995, p < 0.001). Therefore, hypothesis 6-6 is supported.

Hypothesis 6-7 specified that "*Shame, as an achievement emotion, is related to MTE of visiting a risky destination."* The hypothesis was assessed by examining the path coefficient between Shame and MTE. The path coefficient from Shame to MTE is positive but not significant, and even the t-value is less than the threshold of 1.96 (β = 0.030, t = 0.856, p = 0.903). Therefore, hypothesis 6-7 is not supported.

5.4.3. Predictive Power (R^2)

The third step in the structural model evaluation procedure examines the coefficient of determination (R^2 value). This coefficient calculates the predictive power of the model and is computed as the squared correlation among actual and predicted values of a particular endogenous construct. The coefficient presents the mixed influences of the exogenous latent variables on the endogenous latent variable. It also illustrates the amount of variance in the endogenous constructs explained by entire exogenous constructs connected to it. R^2 portrays a measure of in-sample predictive power because of two points. First, it is the squared correlation of actual and predicted values, second, it contains entire data that have been employed for model estimation and assess predictive power of the model (Rigdon, 2012; Sarstedt et al., 2014).

The R^2 value vary from 0 to 1, which higher levels demonstrate greater levels of predictive accuracy. It is not easy to offer rules of thumb for acceptable R^2 values because it relies on the intricacy of model and the study context (Henseler et al., 2009; Hair et al., 2011). As a rough rule of thumb, substantial, moderate, and weak R^2 values are 0.67, 0.33, and 0.19, respectively, in the PLS path models (Chin, 1998). In the consumer behaviour discipline, R^2 values of 0.2 for target constructs in the inner model are considered to be high (Hair et al., 2011, 2016). According to Hair et al. (2011), R^2 values should be high for the key endogenous latent variables because the purpose of PLS-SEM, which is prediction-oriented, is to clarify the variance of the target constructs.

Hair et al. (2016) claim that focusing on the R^2 value alone is not a decent approach because including many exogenous constructs increases the R^2 value even though they are insignificant. Thus, using the adjusted coefficient of determination (R^2_{adj}) could avoid bias toward model complexity. R^2_{adj} is a modified value according to the number of exogenous constructs relative to the sample size. Thus, R^2_{adj} values reduce R^2 values. However, R^2_{adj} values could not be interpreted as R^2 values. R^2_{adj} values are employed to compare PLS-SEM results when various numbers of exogenous latent variables are included in the path models (Hair et al., 2016). The value is formally defined as:

$$R^2_{adj} = 1 - (1 - R^2) \times ((n - 1) / (n - k - 1)).$$

In this formula, *n* presents the sample size and *k* represents the number of exogenous latent variables employed to predict the selected endogenous latent variable. The R^2_{adj} value diminishes the R^2 value by the number of explaining constructs and the sample size.

Therefore, it systematically balances for including insignificant exogenous constructs only to boost the explained variance R^2 (Hair et al., 2017a).

Table 5.21 shows that *Memorable Tourism Experience* has the highest predictive power with an R^2 value of 0.691, followed by *Pride* with an R^2 value of 0.480, *Self-efficacy* with an R^2 value of 0.473, *Enjoyment* with an R^2 value of 0.450, and *Task value* with an R^2 value of 0.414. The predictive powers of the rest are moderate, as they are less than 0.2. The lowest predictive power belongs to Anxiety, with an R^2 value of 0.118. All R^2 value is significant with the p-value of less than 0.001 and t-value ranged from 4.994 to 26.240.

Table 5.21. Coefficient of Determination of Endogenous Latent Variables

Endogenous Latent Variable	R^2	t value	R^2_{adj}	t value
Self-efficacy	**0.473*** **	17.036	**0.471*** **	16.911
Task Value	**0.414*** **	14.710	**0.412*** **	14.588
Anger	**0.130*** **	5.295	**0.128*** **	5.202
Anxiety	**0.118*** **	5.160	**0.116*** **	5.060
Boredom	**0.152*** **	6.286	**0.150*** **	6.191
Enjoyment	**0.450*** **	11.957	**0.448*** **	11.895
Hopelessness	**0.140*** **	5.755	**0.138*** **	5.661
Pride	**0.480*** **	15.221	**0.479*** **	15.148
Shame	**0.115*** **	4.985	**0.113*** **	4.886
Memorable Tourism Experience	**0.695*** **	27.343	**0.692*** **	27.027

****p < 0.001*; based on two-tailed test

5.4.4. Effect Size (f^2)

The fourth phase in the inner model evaluation procedure is to assess the f^2 effect size, which indicates an exogenous latent variable's contribution to an endogenous latent variable's R^2 value. Besides assessing the R^2 values of entire endogenous constructs, the alteration in the R^2 value can be checked. By deleing a certain exogenous construct from the model, it can be assessed whether the excluded construct has an essential effect on the endogenous constructs or not (Hair et al., 2016; 2017). The effect size can be measured as:

$$f^2 = (R^2_{included} - R^2_{excluded}) / (1 - R^2_{included})$$

In this formula, $R^2_{included}$ and $R^2_{excluded}$ are the R^2 values of the endogenous latent variable when a certain exogenous latent variable is included in or excluded from the model. The alteration in the R^2 values is technically computed by assessing the PLS path model two times. First, it is calculated with the exogenous latent variable embraced (producing $R^2_{included}$) and the second time with the exogenous latent variable eliminated (producing $R^2_{excluded}$). f^2 value determines the effect size of the eliminated exogenous construct for the associated endogenous construct (Hair et al., 2014). f^2 values 0.35, 0.15, and 0.02 represent a large, medium, and small effect, respectively (Chin, 2010; Cohen, 1988; Henseler et al., 2009). A high f^2 value indicates the strong contribution of an exogenous latent variable to a particular endogenous latent variable (Hair et al., 2014).

Table 5.22 shows that PLTS has the highest contribution to Self-efficacy and Task value with a f^2 value of 0.804 and 0.583, respectively, which are large effect. The second group with a medium effect include Pride to MTE with a f^2 value of 0.300, Task value to Pride with a f^2 value of 0.268, and Task value to Enjoyment with a f^2 value of 0.207, and Enjoyment to MTE with a f^2 value of 0.188. The third group with small effect include Self-efficacy to Enjoyment and Task value to Boredom with a f^2 value of 0.070, Self-efficacy to Pride with a f^2 value of 0.059, Task value to Hopelessness with a f^2 value of 0.050, DPR to Task Value with a f^2 value of 0.045, Task value to Anger with a f^2 value of 0.042, Task value to Shame with a f^2 value of 0.039, Self-efficacy to Anxiety with a f^2 value of 0.034, and DPR to Self-efficacy with a f^2 value of 0.022. The insignificant f^2 effect are Self-efficacy to Anger, to Boredom, to Hopelessness, and to Shame; Task value to Anxiety; PER to Self-efficacy and to Task value; Anger to MTE, Anxiety to MTE, Boredom to MTE, Hopelessness to MTE, and Shame to MTE.

Table 5.22. f^2 effect size

	f^2	t-value	p-value
SE to Ang	0.012	1.287	0.198
SE to Anx	**0.034***	2.185	0.029
SE to Br	0.004	0.713	0.476
SE to Enj	**0.070****	2.562	0.010
SE to Hp	0.012	1.274	0.203
SE to Pr	**0.059****	2.809	0.005
SE to Sh	0.014	1.183	0.237
TV to Ang	**0.037****	2.830	0.005
TV to Anx	0.012	1.469	0.142
TV to Br	**0.070*****	3.620	0.000
TV to Enj	**0.207*****	4.867	0.000

TV to Hp	**0.050****	3.003	0.003
TV to Pr	**0.268*****	5.208	0.000
TV to Sh	**0.028****	2.722	0.007
DPR to SE	**0.022****	2.076	0.038
DPR to TV	**0.045*****	3.245	0.001
PER to SE	0.000	0.017	0.987
PER to TV	0.003	0.580	0.562
PLTS to SE	**0.806*****	8.240	0.000
PLTS to TV	**0.584*****	8.005	0.000
Ang to MTE	0.008	1.055	0.291
Anx to MTE	0.000	0.107	0.915
Br to MTE	0.004	0.776	0.438
Enj to MTE	**0.203*****	3.275	0.001
Hp to MTE	0.000	0.169	0.866
Pr to MTE	**0.282*****	4.932	0.000
Sh to MTE	0.000	0.010	0.992

****p < 0.001, **p < 0.01, *p < 0.05; based on two tailed test*
Note: Ang = Anger, Anx = Anxiety, Br = Boredom, Enj = Enjoyment, Hp = Hopelessness, Pr = Pride, Sh = Shame

5.4.5. Predictive Relevance (Q^2)

The fifth step of the inner model evaluation procedure examines Q^2 values (Hair et al., 2011, 2014, 2016). Researchers believe that besides estimating the greatness of the R^2 values as a criterion of predictive accuracy; the Stone-Geisser's Q^2 value ought to be examined (Stone, 1974; Geisser, 1974). This value is an indicator of the model's out-of-sample predictive power or predictive relevance. If a PLS path model presents the predictive relevance, this measure precisely forecasts data not employed in the model estimation. In the structural model, Q^2 values greater than zero for a certain reflective endogenous latent variable designate the path model's predictive relevance for a particular dependent construct (Hair et al., 2017a).

The Q^2 value is attained by applying the blindfolding process for a specific omission distance D. Blindfolding is a sample recycle technique that deletes every d^{th} data point in the endogenous construct's indicators and evaluates the criteria with the rest data points (Henseler et al., 2009; Chin, 1998; Tenenhaus et al., 2005). The deleted data points are viewed as missing values and dealt with appropriately when operating the PLS-SEM algorithm. Then the subsequent evaluations are utilized to predict the deleted data points. Afterwards, the distinction between the true or excluded data points and the predicted ones is

employed as input for the Q^2 measure. Blindfolding is an iterative procedure that iterates until each data point has been deleted and the model re-estimated. The blindfolding process is typically used for endogenous constructs with a reflective measurement model specification and endogenous single-item constructs. Q^2 values higher than 0 illustrate that the model contains predictive relevance for a certain endogenous construct. On the contrary, values of 0 and less indicates the scarcity of predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2017a).

Accordingly, the blindfolding procedure with an omission distance of 7 (Hair et al., 2017a) was performed for the proposed model. The obtained Q^2 values of all endogenous variables are higher zero. They ranged from 0.386 for MTE to 0.081 for Anxiety (Table 5.20). Thereby indicating that the exogenous latent variables (DPR, PER, and PLTS) have predictive relevance for Self-efficacy, Task value, Anger, Anxiety, Boredom, Enjoyment, Hopelessness, Pride, Shame, and MTE in the model.

Table 5.23. Predictive Relevance (Q^2)

Endogenous Latent Variable	Q^2
Self-efficacy	0.289
Task Value	0.291
Anger	0.103
Anxiety	0.081
Boredom	0.115
Enjoyment	0.308
Hopelessness	0.117
Pride	0.345
Shame	0.089
Memorable Tourism Experience	0.395

5.4.6. Effect Size (q^2)

The sixth step of the inner model evaluation procedure is assessing the q^2 effect size, which could be used to compare the relative influence of predictive relevance (Hair et al., 2016). The concept is similar to the f^2 effect size approach in calculating R^2 (Hair et al., 2016). The q^2 effect size of an exogenous latent variable on the reflective endogenous latent variable can be derived by computing the PLS-SEM results of the model with the exogenous latent variable ($Q^2_{included}$) through the blindfolding procedure and then computing the path model without its exogenous latent variable ($Q^2_{excluded}$) (Hair et al., 2016).

Table 5.24. $Q^2_{excluded}$

Endogenous Latent Variable	Self-efficacy	Task Value	Anger	Anxiety	Boredom	Enjoy-ment	Hopeless-ness	Pride	Shame	Memorable Tourism Experience
when DPR is deleted	0.284	0.272								
when PER is deleted	0.289	0.290								
when PLTS is deleted	0.026	0.050								
when Self-efficacy is deleted			0.096	0.061	0.113	0.283	0.102	0.324	0.078	
when Task Value is deleted			0.077	0.074	0.07	0.230	0.078	0.246	0.059	
when Anger is deleted										0.385
when Anxiety is deleted										0.386
when Boredom is deleted										0.385
when Enjoyment is deleted										0.354
when Hopelessness is deleted										0.386
when Pride is deleted										0.334
when Shame is deleted										0.386

The computation has to be manual because the SmartPLS software program does not offer a q^2 effect size. q^2 values of 0.35, 0.15, and 0.02 illustrate a large, medium, and small predictive relevance, respectively, for a certain exogenous latent variable (Hair et al., 2016). In the previous section, Table 5.20 presents the Q^2 values for the whole model. So, they are $Q^2_{included}$. Table 5.21 provides the $Q^2_{excluded}$ values. The following formula calculates the q^2 effect size of DPR on Self-efficacy with these two values.

$$q^2_{\text{DPR on Self-efficacy}} = (Q^2_{included} - Q^2_{excluded}) / (1 - Q^2_{included}) = (0.288 - 0.284) / (1 - 0.288) = 0.006$$

The largest value of q^2 effect size in the model was the q^2 effect size of PLTS on Self-efficacy (0.368), followed by q^2 effect sizes of PLTS on Task value (0.338). Therefore, PLTS had large predictive relevance on SE and TV. The second group as medium predictive relevance is Task value on Pride (0.151), followed by Task value on Enjoyment (0.113),

Pride on MTE (0.085), Enjoyment on MTE (0.052), Self-efficacy on Enjoyment (0.036), and Self-efficacy on Pride (0.032). These q^2 values are beyond a small predictive relevance. The q^2 effect sizes of Task value on Anger (0.029), Task value on Shame (0.026), DPR on Task value (0.025), Self-efficacy on Anxiety (0.022) are small. Some variables had very marginal or even no predictive relevance, such as Self-efficacy on Anger (0.008) or Anxiety on MTE (0.000).

Table 5.25. q^2 effect size

Endogenous Latent Variable	Self-efficacy	Task Value	Anger	Anxiety	Boredom	Enjoy-ment	Hopeless-ness	Pride	Shame	Memorable Tourism Experience
Destination Perceived Risk	0.006	0.025								
Prior Experience with Risk	-0.001	0.000								
Perceived Local People/tour leader support	0.368	0.338								
Self-efficacy			0.008	0.022	0.002	0.036	0.008	0.032	0.005	
Task Value			0.029	0.008	0.051	0.113	0.035	0.151	0.026	
Anger										0.002
Anxiety										0.000
Boredom										0.002
Enjoyment										0.052
Hopelessness										0.000
Pride										0.085
Shame										0.000

5.4.7. Total Effect

The total effect is the aggregation of the direct and indirect influences in the association between two latent variables (Hair et al., 2017a). Looking into the total effect should be the core of the evaluation for supplementary explanations because it provides a reasonable ground to understand the relationships in the structural models (Henseler et al., 2009). The bootstrapping procedure in PLS-SEM offers both indirect and total effects with its respective t and p values.

Table 5.23 shows the total effects with the indirect and direct influences of the structural model paths. The greatest total effect in the structural model lies in the relation from PLTS to SE (β = 0.661, t = 28.858, p < 0.001), followed by the relationship from PLTS to TV (β = 0.594, t = 25.037, p < 0.001), from TV to Pride (β = 509, t = 13.689, p < 0.001), from Pride to MTE (β = 0.483, t = 12.208, p < 0.001), from PLTS to Pride (β = 0.459, t = 20.313, p < 0.001), from PLTS to Enjoyment (β = 0.449, t = 17.537, p < 0.001), from TV to MTE (β = 0.437, t = 13.610, p < 0.001), from TV to Enjoyment (β = 0.435, t = 11.716, p < 0.001), from PLTS to MTE (β = 0.406, t = 16.352, p < 0.001), from TV to Boredom (β = -0.335, t = 7.914, p < 0.001), from TV to Anger (β = -0.295, t = 5.985, p < 0.001), from TV to Hopelessness (β = -0.281, t = 6.347, p < 0.001), from PLTS to Hopelessness (β = -0.256, t = 10.594, p < 0.001), from Enjoyment to MTE (β = 0.254, t = 8.005, p < 0.001), from PLTS to Boredom (β = -0.249, t = 10.542, p < 0.001), from TV to Shame (β = -0.249, t = 5.682 , p < 0.001), from PLTS to Anger (β = 0.248, t = 10.255, p < 0.001), from SE to Enjoyment (β = 0.246, t = 5.836, p < 0.001), from SE to Pride (β = 0.238, t = 6.000, p < 0.001), from PLTS to Anxiety (β = -0.237, t = 10.015, p < 0.001), from PLTS to Shame (β = -0.231, t = 9.399, p < 0.001), from SE to MTE (β = 0.222, t = 6.315, p < 0.001), and from SE to Anxiety (β = -0.219, t = 4.675, p < 0.001) (Table 5.23).

The sizes of some total effects are small but significant. It includes the relationship from DPR to TV (β = -0.162, t = 6.770, p < 0.001), from TV to anxiety (β = -0.155, t = 3.072, p < 0.01), from SE to Hopelessness (β = -0.136, t = 2.716, p < 0.01), from Anger to MTE (β = -0.130, t = 2.298, p < 0.05), from SE to Anger (β = -0.127, t = 2.757, p < 0.01), DPR to Pride (β = -0.110, t = 6.722, p < 0.001), from DPR to SE (β = -0.108, t = 4.250, p < 0.001), from DPR to Enjoyment (β = -0.105, t = 6.294, p < 0.001), from DPR to MTE (β = -0.096, t = 6.327, p < 0.001), from SE to Shame (β = -0.093, t = 2.554, p < 0.05), from DPR to Boredom (β = 0.063, t = 5.261, p < 0.001), from DPR to Hopelessness (β = 0.061, t = 4.940, p < 0.001), from DPR to Anger (β = 0.058, t = 4.920, p < 0.001), from DPR to Shame (β = 0.055, t = 4.682, p < 0.001), and from DPR to Anxiety (β = 0.048, t = 4.296, p < 0.001) (Table 5.23).

However, there are some insignificant total effects. They include all total effects from PER to other endogenous variables (0.005 < β < -0.123, 0.122 < t < 1.631). Other insignificant total effects are from Boredom to MTE (β = -0.123, t = 1.631), from SE to Boredom (β = -0.081, t = 1.593), from Shame to MTE (β = -0.053, t = 1.122), from Anxiety to MTE (β = -0.035, t = 0.411), and from Hopelessness to MTE (β = -0.005, t = 0.551) (Table 5.26).

Table 5.26. Total Effect

	Direct effect	p-value	**Indirect effect**	p-value	**Total effect**	**t-value**	p-value
DPR to SE	-0.108	0.000			-0.108	4.250	0.000
DPR to TV	-0.165	0.000			-0.162	6.770	0.000
DPR to Anger			0.058	0.000	0.058	4.920	0.000
DPR to Anxiety			0.048	0.000	0.048	4.296	0.000
DPR to Boredom			0.063	0.000	0.063	5.261	0.000
DPR to Enjoyment			-0.105	0.000	-0.105	6.294	0.000
DPR to Hopelessness			0.061	0.000	0.061	4.940	0.000
DPR to Pride			-0.110	0.000	-0.110	6.722	0.000
DPR to Shame			0.055	0.000	0.055	4.682	0.000
DPR to MTE			-0.096	0.000	-0.096	6.327	0.000
PER to SE	0.004	0.873			0.005	0.160	0.873
PER to TV	0.040	0.172			0.041	1.365	0.172
PER to Anger			-0.011	0.280	-0.011	1.081	0.280
PER to Anxiety			-0.007	0.484	-0.007	0.700	0.484
PER to Boredom			-0.014	0.219	-0.014	1.229	0.219
PER to Enjoyment			0.020	0.288	0.020	1.063	0.288
PER to Hopelessness			-0.012	0.281	-0.012	1.079	0.281
PER to Pride			0.022	0.261	0.022	1.124	0.261
PER to Shame			-0.011	0.286	-0.011	1.066	0.286
PER to MTE			0.019	0.272	0.019	1.098	0.272
PLTS to SE	0.661	0.000			0.661	28.858	0.000
PLTS to TV	0.593	0.000			0.594	25.037	0.000
PLTS to Anger			-0.248	0.000	-0.248	10.255	0.000
PLTS to Anxiety			-0.237	0.000	-0.237	10.015	0.000
PLTS to Boredom			-0.249	0.000	-0.249	10.542	0.000
PLTS to Enjoyment			0.449	0.000	0.449	17.537	0.000
PLTS to Hopelessness			-0.256	0.000	-0.256	10.594	0.000
PLTS to Pride			0.459	0.000	0.459	20.313	0.000
PLTS to Shame			-0.231	0.000	-0.231	9.399	0.000
PLTS to MTE			0.406	0.000	0.406	16.352	0.000
SE to Anger	-0.141	0.006			-0.127	2.757	0.006
SE to Anxiety	-0.234	0.000			-0.219	4.675	0.000
SE to Boredom	-0.078	0.111			-0.081	1.593	0.111
SE to Enjoyment	0.267	0.000			0.246	5.836	0.000
SE to Hopelessness	-0.136	0.007			-0.136	2.716	0.007
SE to Pride	0.238	0.000			0.238	6.000	0.000
SE to Shame	-0.122	0.011			-0.093	2.554	0.011
SE to MTE			0.222	0.000	0.222	6.315	0.000
TV to Anger	-0.261	0.000			-0.295	5.985	0.000
TV to Anxiety	-0.139	0.002			-0.155	3.072	0.002

TV to Boredom	-0.332	0.000			-0.335	7.914	0.000
TV to Enjoyment	0.460	0.000			0.435	11.716	0.000
TV to Hopelessness	-0.281	0.000			-0.281	6.347	0.000
TV to Pride	0.509	0.000			0.509	13.689	0.000
TV to Shame	-0.253	0.000			-0.249	5.682	0.000
TV to MTE			0.437	0.000	0.437	13.610	0.000
Anger to MTE	-0.113	0.022			-0.130	2.298	0.022
Anxiety to MTE	-0.014	0.681			-0.035	0.411	0.681
Boredom to MTE	-0.079	0.103			-0.123	1.631	0.103
Enjoyment to MTE	0.366	0.000			0.254	8.005	0.000
Hopelessness to MTE	0.026	0.582			0.005	0.551	0.582
Pride to MTE	0.427	0.000			0.483	12.208	0.000
Shame to MTE	0.005	0.903			0.053	0.122	0.903

5.4.8. Total Effect of First-order Constructs

Each independent construct's sub-dimensions have been invested relating to the total effect of sub-dimensions on the dependent variables for a more detailed examination (Table 5.27 & 5.28). The total effect of all FOCs on endogenous variables are significant; however, some might be very marginal. For DPR's sub-dimensions, Performance risk has the strongest influence on all dependent variables, after that Physical risk and Overall risk has the weakest effect on them. For PLTS, Perceived Local People Support (PLS) has larger effects on all endogenous variables than Perceived Tour Leader Support (PTS).

Table 5.27. Total Effect of First-order Components on Endogenous Variables

construct	Sub-dimension	**SE**	t-value	**TV**	t-value	**Ang**	t - value	**Anx**	t - value	**Br**	t-value
DPR	Overall Risk	-0.011***	3.693	-0.017***	5.541	0.006***	4.104	0.006***	3.639	0.007***	4.381
	Physical Risk	-0.026***	4.273	-0.039***	6.792	0.014***	4.959	0.012***	4.336	0.015***	5.305
	Financial Risk	-0.023***	4.273	-0.035***	6.821	0.012***	4.958	0.010***	4.328	0.013***	5.306
	Performance Risk	-0.027***	4.242	-0.041***	6.748	0.015***	4.924	0.012***	4.304	0.016***	5.263
	Socio-psychological Risk	-0.024***	4.235	-0.037***	6.680	0.013***	4.892	0.011***	4.298	0.014***	5.217
	Time Risk	-0.015***	4.201	-0.023***	6.590	0.008***	4.831	0.007***	4.246	0.009***	5.131
PLTS	Perceived Local People Support	0.422***	24.403	0.379***	20.132	-0.185***	10.282	-0.151***	10.015	-0.159***	10.75

	Perceived Tour Leader Support	0.350***	23.752	0.314***	22.653	-0.131***	9.811	-0.126***	9.610	-0.132***	9.974

****p < 0.001*; based on two tailed test

Table 5.28. Total Effect of first-order components on endogenous variables (cont.)

construct	Sub-dimension	**Enj**	t-value	**Hp**	t -value	**Pr**	t-value	**Sh**	t-value	**MTE**	t-value
DPR	overall Risk	-0.011***	5.115	0.006***	4.137	-0.011***	5.390	0.006***	3.946	-0.010***	5.119
	Physical Risk	-0.025***	6.329	0.015***	4.977	-0.026***	6.767	0.013***	4.721	-0.023***	6.369
	Financial Risk	-0.022***	6.331	0.013***	4.959	-0.023***	6.802	0.012***	4.712	-0.018***	6.377
	Performance Risk	-0.026***	6.284	0.015***	4.947	-0.027***	6.685	0.014***	4.704	-0.024***	6.305
	Socio-psychological Risk	-0.024***	6.236	0.014***	4.914	-0.025***	6.641	0.012***	4.647	-0.022***	6.267
	Time Risk	-0.014***	6.132	0.008***	4.847	-0.015***	6.510	0.008***	4.610	-0.013***	6.148
PLTS	Perceived local people support	0.287***	16.751	-0.164***	10.530	0.293***	18.765	-0.147***	9.323	0.259***	15.62
	Perceived Tour Leader support	0.238***	16.152	-0.136***	10.182	0.243***	18.401	-0.122***	9.106	0.215***	15.32

****p < 0.001; based on two-tailed test*

5.4.9. PLS predict

The final step of the PLS-SEM analysis involved predictive validity assessment of the PLS path model through PLS predict function in SmartPLS 3. PLS predict performs k-fold cross-validation. A fold is a subgroup of the total sample, and k is the number of subgroups. The total dataset is randomly split into k equally sized subsets of data. For instance, for k = 5 folds, cross-validation will split the sample into 5 equally sized groups of data. Then, PLS predict will combine k - 1 subgroups into a single analysis sample that will be used to predict the fifth data subgroup. This last subgroup is the holdout sample for the first cross-validation process. This cross-validation process will be repeated k times -here, five times-, and each of the five subgroups will be employed once as the holdout sample. Therefore, each case in every holdout sample has a predicted value measured with a sample in which that case was not utilized to estimate the model parameters (Hair et al., 2019). Shmueli and his colleagues (2019) suggest setting k = 10; however, researchers must ensure the analysis sample for each subgroup (or fold) achieves the minimum sample size criterion. Based on the PLS-SEM rule

of thumb (Hair et al., 2017a), the minimum sample size for the structural model is 270 (27 × 10). There are 871 samples; therefore, to meet the minimum sample size for each fold, we selected K = 3 with the number of repetitions equal 3.

To interpret the PLS predict results, the Q2predict statistic should be assessed first to confirm if the predictions surpass the most naïve benchmark. It is defined as the indicator means from the analysis sample (Shmueli et al., 2019). Then, researchers require to examine the prediction statistics. Researchers must employ the root mean squared error (RMSE) in most instances. However, if the prediction error distribution is highly non-symmetric, the mean absolute error (MAE) is the more proper prediction statistic (Shmueli et al., 2019). Finally, researchers should contrast the RMSE (or MAE) values with a naïve benchmark. The suggested naïve benchmark employs a linear regression model (LM) to produce predictions for the manifest variables through performing a linear regression for each dependent construct's indicator on the indicators of the exogenous latent constructs in the PLS path model (Hair et al., 2019; Shmueli et al., 2019).

Table 5.29 shows the results of PLS predict. All $Q^2_{predict}$ statistics were greater than zero, suggesting that the proposed model accurately predicts data not utilized in the model. As data normality was confirmed before, we used the RMSE values to compare. Some of the indicators in the PLS-SEM analysis yielded higher prediction errors than the naïve LM benchmark. It indicates that the proposed model had a medium predictive power to be generally applicable to other samples (Karl et al., 2021; Krey et al., 2021; Mwesiumo et al., Ngahh et al., 2021; 2019; Shafiee & Tabaeeian, 2021; Shmueli et al. 2016).

Table 5.29. PLS predict

	PLS-SEM		**LM**	**PLS-SEM - LM**
Indicator	**RMSE**	**$Q^2_{predict}$**	**RMSE**	**RMSE**
SE1	1.128	0.233	1.109	0.019
SE2	0.838	0.331	0.851	-0.013
SE3	0.956	0.357	0.979	-0.023
SE4	1.062	0.223	1.095	-0.033
TV1	0.957	0.297	0.952	0.005
TV2	0.904	0.303	0.909	-0.005
TV3	0.878	0.284	0.879	-0.001
TV4	0.904	0.27	0.906	-0.002
Ang2	1.469	0.099	1.348	0.121
Ang4	1.395	0.122	1.212	0.183
Axy1	1.419	0.111	1.273	0.146

Axy3	1.532	0.091	1.353	0.179
Axy5	1.499	0.065	1.247	0.252
Brd1	1.14	0.102	1.005	0.135
Brd2	1.268	0.112	1.048	0.22
Brd3	1.399	0.103	1.184	0.215
Brd5	1.397	0.085	1.117	0.28
Enj1	0.892	0.24	0.899	-0.007
Enj2	1.115	0.28	1.105	0.01
Enj4	1.224	0.179	1.176	0.048
Hps2	1.237	0.109	1.094	0.143
Hps4	1.18	0.094	1.025	0.155
Prd1	1.000	0.264	1.011	-0.011
Prd2	1.033	0.234	1.06	-0.027
Prd3	1.054	0.252	1.074	-0.02
Prd4	1.252	0.2	1.262	-0.01
Shm2	1.41	0.091	1.288	0.122
Shm3	1.382	0.093	1.194	0.188
MTE.Hd1	0.864	0.236	0.849	0.015
MTE.Hd2	1.096	0.176	1.096	0.000
MTE.Hd3	0.815	0.275	0.762	0.053
MTE.Hd4	0.918	0.258	0.865	0.053
MTE.Inv1	1.066	0.208	1.056	0.01
MTE.Inv2	0.889	0.264	0.872	0.017
MTE.Inv3	0.866	0.245	0.847	0.019
MTE.Kn1	0.889	0.265	0.846	0.043
MTE.Kn2	1.355	0.174	1.295	0.06
MTE.Kn3	0.905	0.224	0.884	0.021
MTE.LC1	0.923	0.284	0.885	0.038
MTE.LC2	1.035	0.235	1.011	0.024
MTE.LC3	0.963	0.313	0.88	0.083
MTE.Mgf1	0.971	0.235	0.958	0.013
MTE.Mgf2	1.011	0.25	1.015	-0.004
MTE.Nv1	1.091	0.206	1.087	0.004
MTE.Nv2	0.981	0.236	0.953	0.028
MTE.Nv3	1.000	0.175	0.992	0.008
MTE.Nv4	0.877	0.227	0.856	0.021
MTE.Rf1	1.198	0.158	1.185	0.013
MTE.Rf2	1.009	0.197	1.017	-0.008
MTE.Rf3	0.946	0.278	0.928	0.018
MTE.Rf4	1.027	0.224	1.015	0.012

CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION

The discussion chapter is where the researcher delves into the meaning, importance and relevance of his results. This chapter represents the interpretation of findings from the main study. Initially, the model's overall performance is reviewed before examining each construct and its relationships in the proposed model. This chapter also presents discussions based on the findings, linking them to relevant literature and highlighting the gaps it filled.

6.1. Overall Model Performance

For the first time, this study applies the Control-Value Theory of Achievement Emotion (CVTAE) to investigate achievement from an emotion-perspective in a tourism context. The study's findings support the proposed model, which measures the influence of antecedents and appraisals of travelling to risky destinations on tourists' achievement emotions and the memorability of their travel experiences. These findings could be interpreted as aspects of cognitive appraisal theory, which emphasizes the crucial role of appraisals in arousing emotions and, consequently, the behaviours influenced by these emotions.

The assessment results for both the measurement and structural models demonstrated satisfactory indices at the indicator and construct levels. The factorial validity and reliability of the measurement model of each latent construct have been confirmed at two stages: the pilot test and the main study. This study's findings support the proposed structural model and hypothesised relationships. The R^2 value (predictive power) of the endogenous variables, f^2 effect size (the exogenous variables contribution to an endogenous variable's R^2 value), Q^2 (predictive relevance), q^2 (relative impact of predictive relevance) and total effect determined that the structural model substantially reflects the influence of tourists' learning environment on their appraisals, emotions and learning outcomes during and after travelling to a risky destination. Twenty out of twenty-seven hypothesised relationships were supported. Using Q^2 values, the model demonstrated high predictive relevance for the target constructs as all values were larger than zero. The exogenous variables in the proposed model strongly predicted tourists' self-efficacy and the value they place on travelling to a risky destination, their emotions and their memorable experience there. The results of PLS predict illustrated that the proposed model has a medium out-of-sample predictive power.

6.2. Destination Perceived Risk

This study proposed destination perceived risk (DPR) as one of the distal antecedents for tourists' achievement emotions (AE) of travelling to a risky destination. Risk can be argued as an inherent element of all tourism experiences (Elsrud, 2001; Larsen & Brun, 2011). It has been considered a fundamental factor when tourists think about international travel (Lepp & Gibson, 2003, 2008; Sönmez, 1998; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998; Kozak et al., 2007; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005, 2006). Researchers argue that perceived risk provides opportunities for personal challenges in adventurous activities, with ultimate success, a sense of achievement and pride (Myers, 2010). Therefore, it is crucial to study perceived risk in tourism psychological studies.

A destination risk perception scale (Fuchs & Reichel, 2006) has been adopted in this study. This scale consists of six subgroups: overall risk, financial risk, physical risk, socio-psychological risk, performance risk and time risk. The indicators measure the degree of individual perceived risk about the selected ME destination before traveling there. DPR is a reflective-formative HOC. Its reliability and validity have been confirmed in both the pilot test and the main survey steps.

Findings show that, in terms of DPR indicators, tourists' two first concerns before travelling to ME countries were terrorism and political unrest. This finding supports previous studies on ME countries such as Israel (Fuchs & Reichel, 2006) and Turkey (Sönmez & Sirakaya, 2002; Yarcan, 2007; Karamustafa et al., 2013). As mentioned before, the ME region only has a 10% market share of international tourist arrivals (World Tourism Organization, 2019). Mahmoudi et al. (2017) claim that political instability and terrorist attacks are the main factors affecting the tourism industry of the ME region. The present study is in agreement with their opinions about these two risk perceptions (RP) concerning ME countries. The significant total effects of its FOC on all endogenous variables (SE, TV, seven emotions and MTE) support this claim too; physical risk and performance risk have the strongest influence. However, previous studies show that tourists' concerns about the perceived risk from terrorism are not limited only to ME countries. For example, Schroeder et al. (2013) investigated the destination perceived risk amongst U.S. residents travelling to London. Their findings illustrate that after the "increased crime" perception, the most critical concern for tourists was a "terrorist event".

The present study aimed to examine the effect of DPR on tourists' self-efficacy when travelling to a risky destination and how much they valued the trip. The results showed that the DPR has a significant negative relationship with SE and TV. However, these two effects are not that strong, but these significant relationships demonstrate that when tourists have a lower perceived risk towards a risky destination, their self-efficacy when travelling there and the value of this trip will increase. Moreover, the contribution (f^2) of DPR to SE and TV was small but also significant. The q^2 effect size showed that DPR has a very small predictive relevance on SE and a small predictive relevance on TV.

Similarly, in previous tourism & hospitality studies, scholars have discussed the negative relationship between perceived risk, customer self-efficacy and perceived value. Makki et al. (2016), in their study of the restaurant industry's mobile payment systems, found that a greater perceived risk will diminish the power of a consumer's self-efficacy beliefs. Shukri (2017), in his thesis about food consumption among western tourists in Malaysia, concluded that tourists experiencing lower perceived control experienced an increase in their RP. Jing et al. (2019) also found that RP negatively affects perceived behaviour control when using autonomous vehicles. Liang et al. (2019) also identified that medical tourists' perceived risk negatively influences their perceived behaviour control.

There may not be any tourism or hospitality studies on the relationship between RP and task value. In fact, task value is a new concept in tourism studies that refers to the value associated with travelling to and learning about a risky destination. There are some research projects, which aligns with this study's findings, that focus on the relationship between perceived risk and perceived value. Agarwal and Teas's (2001) study on product purchases demonstrates that the perceived risks contribute to shaping the consumer's perceived value. Zhang and Hou (2017) also mention that the element of perceived risk is essential for products with a higher-price external presence. It probably affects customers value perception. Chen et al. (2017) also found that perceived risk negatively influences the perception of the value of hydrogen-electric motorcycles. In the tourism context, Gallarza and Saura's (2006) study on student's travel behaviour concluded that perceived risk is negatively associated with perceived value. Two studies in medical tourism (Wang, 2012; Habibi & Ariffin, 2019) also demonstrated the negative relationship between these two factors: perceived risk and perceived value.

In the present study even more profound insights were uncovered. DPR has significant indirect effects on achievement emotions and outcomes. Indeed, it has a negative influence on enjoyment, pride and MTE. Therefore, where tourists had a higher perceived risk toward a risky destination before their trip, they will have lower enjoyment and pride emotions during and after their trips. Even the memorability of their trip will be lower for them. Therefore, we can say that DPR is an important antecedent for tourists' achievement emotions when travelling to a risky destination. All these findings – both significant direct and indirect influences of DPR on appraisals, emotions, and outcomes – support scholars' emphasis on the substantial role concerns over safety and security have on tourist experiences (Faulkner 2001; Kim, 2020).

6.3. Prior Experience with Risk

Scholars believe that learning is intensely affected by the inner world of our prior experiences; however, the same can be said of the outside world (Falk et al., 2012). Therefore, tourism literature shows the impact of past experiences on tourist's learning (Falk & Dierking, 2000, Falk & Storksdieck, 2005). And past studies in hospitality imply the role of experience on consumer's perceived value and self-efficacy (Chen & Lee, 2008; Frías-Jamilena et al., 2013; Makki et al., 2016; Habibi & Ariffin, 2019). Therefore, by considering the importance of tourists' past experience, the present study aimed to investigate prior experience with risk (PER) to predict tourist's appraisals and achievement emotions of travelling to a risky destination.

In the present study, PER was measured as a single-item construct. It includes two main categories: 1. Tourists who had past experience with risk (either they were repeat visitors to the selected destination or had visited other ME destinations before) and 2. Tourists who had not had past experiences with risk (they were a first-time visitor to the selected destination and had not visited other ME destinations before). Interestingly, only 6% of respondents belonged to the second category, so it was their first time travelling to a ME country. Therefore, we can say the majority of respondents were experienced tourists within the ME context.

All inner model evaluations demonstrated the insignificant role of PER in the proposed model. As an antecedent, its relationships with SE and TV were insignificant. The f^2 effect

size results also showed its insignificant very small impact on the SE and TV after omitting it from the model. The same results are found for q^2 effect sizes of PER on these two proximal antecedents. PER indirect effects on all seven achievement emotions and MTE were also marginal and insignificant. Therefore, PER failed to have any role in predicting a tourist's achievement, emotions and memorability of travelling to a risky destination.

Unexpectedly, PER had no significant impact on the model in the present study, either directly or indirectly. This result is different from previous studies findings. Falk et al. (2012) believe learning arising from tourist experiences might be closely linked to prior knowledge. These previous studies explore the moderating role of experience. They concluded that it influences consumers perceived value in diverse settings; for instance, hospitality in rural tourism (Frías-Jamilena et al., 2013) and online shopping (Chen & Lee, 2008; Habibi & Ariffin, 2019). Makki et al. (2016), in their research on the restaurant industry, mention that previous experience is the most critical predictor of self-efficacy. Suess et al. (2021), realised that local people who had previous experience of renting an Airbnb expressed more intense positive emotions about Airbnb hosts and also reported fewer negative emotions toward them. Skavronskaya et al.'s (2020) study on the novelty concept in tourist experience demonstrates the role of prior experience on MTE as a consequence of novelty.

This different, unexpected result may have some reasons. First, the conceptualization of PER may not be comprehensive enough. The tourist experience is a complex construct (Urry, 1990). Therefore, it may initially require more deep qualitative observation, only then moving on to develop a multiple-item measure for PER instead of a categorical construct. Second, as mentioned, PER consists of two categories, and only 6% (49 out of 871) of respondents had no past experience with risk. Therefore, the numbers of respondents in these two groups were unbalanced.

Despite this high number of repeat visitors in ME, the novelty was one of three top tourists' memorable experiences in this study. This is very interesting. By looking at the literature on the novelty concept in tourism, Assaker et al. (2011) believe that "novelty is often defined as the degree of contrast between present perception and past experience, making it the opposite of familiarity" (p. 891). Faison (1977) defined novel travel as a journey characterized by unfamiliar and new experiences that vary from other life experiences. And novelty seekers go for adventures to unfamiliar places (Chark, Lam, & Fong, 2020). Therefore, as the third reason, despite their past experience of visiting this

region, their current travel experience to the selected destination was novel. So, this region might still be unfamiliar for them. In fact, their past experience may not be able to create familiarity for them. Therefore, we see that it had an insignificant influence on their appraisals and perceptions during their trip. In other words, there was not a meaningful connection between their prior experience in ME and the current travel experience there again. Even if they traveled to the same destination before, they found their current trip a new experience and not related to the prior one.

The cognitive literature on behaviour provides an explanation for this phenomenon. It believes that the passage of time causes individuals to forget key elements of an experience. Oppermann (1998) found the same results for the tourist experience. Carlsen and Charters (2007) also maintain that subsequent events and stimuli clearly influence the perceptions and memory of a travel experience. Thus, over time, as newer stimuli replace specific memories, they become increasingly distant from any particular past experience (Assaker et al., 2011). Therefore, the fourth reason could be the time difference between the past travel experience in ME and the recent one.

Regarding this study context and as a PhD student thought, several factors may also create this experience apart from prior ones. They may include *travel purposes*; for instance, the participant travelled to the UAE for business and currently has travelled to Jordan for leisure. These two experiences can be very different, and his first past experience could be irrelevant to the new one. Other factors could be *travel companions* (past with family but current with friends), *time of travel* (past was in more peaceful time but now was during a crisis or after much negative news in media), *education* level or more collected *information* (during the past trip he was high school student but during the recent trip he was a Master degree graduated), *mode of the trip* (the past trip was as an independent traveller but for current trip joined a group tour), different *salary* level, different *perception* and *image* about different ME countries, *age* and *life stage* (during past experience he was young but in the current trip he was in middle age), *development* in the region (past the country was very conservative but now it is more modern to the extent that he might perceive it as completely different system), etc. Therefore, because of all these reasons and more others, each experience, even in the same destination, could be a unique experience for tourists to the extent that they may find the past experience irrelevant to the recent one. However, these factors have been just proposed by the PhD student, and further study and investigation are required to confirm the suggested associations.

Finally, the fourth reason could be the different roles of past experience based on some studies. Hsieh et al. (2016) believe that the quantity and quality of tourists' past visit experiences play an essential role in tourist behaviour. Therefore, it may not necessarily have the same role for the tourist experience. Huang and Hsu (2009) also found that tourists' past travel experience significantly influences his revisit intention but no influence on his attitude. It can be related to this study's findings that most respondents travelled to the ME region again, but their perceptions were not different from first-time visitors.

6.4. Perceived Local People/Tour Leader Support

All previous studies on the diverse facets of the experience have recognised the significance of examining the client's internal components (e.g., thoughts, emotions and evaluations) and external variables (e.g., the physical environment and employees). They seem to significantly impact upon the general experience and the experience assessment (Bastiaansen et al., 2019; Falk & Dierking, 2000). Therefore, as an external factor, the third antecedent in the proposed model is perceived local people/tour leader support (PLTS). As mentioned before, all proposed antecedents are mainly related to the specific settings in visiting risky destinations. They are the combination of individual (DPR & PER) and social (PLTS) antecedents, which can be related to social psychology. Another name for distal antecedents in CVTAE is "environment," and similarly, Sangpikul (2018) perceives tourism suppliers, services and local people as a tourism destination environment. Some CVTAE research (Burić, 2015; King et al., 2012) highlights the significant role of teachers in students' achievement emotions. In tourism literature, the importance of local people and tour leaders in tourist's learning experiences at a destination has also been highlighted, as they have a duty to deliver information to them as a teacher (Wang et al., 2010; Marković & Petrović, 2014; Nørfelt et al., 2020; Stone & Nyaupane, 2019).

To measure PLTS, the perceived teacher support scale has been adapted from Lazarides and Buchholz's (2019) and Burić's (2015) study in the education context. PLTS indicators measure the degree of local people and/or tour leader perceived support by tourists in interacting, experiencing, understanding, and learning while traveling in the selected ME destination. PLTS is a HOC, specifically a reflective-formative construct. Two FOCs include local people support (LPS) and tour leader support (TLS) form the PLTS. All tests showed their important role in predicting tourists' achievement emotions and the memorability of

their trip to a risky destination. Firstly, the hypothesis testing demonstrated the significant strong positive relationship between PLTS and SE, and between PLTS and TV. The f^2 effect results values also showed the large contribution of PLTS to SE and TV which were also significant. Moreover, the q^2 effect sizes of PLTS on SE and TV were medium, however, they were the strongest q^2 effect sizes in this model. In addition, the total effect analysis showed that all indirect effects of PLTS on dependent variables are significant. The strong positive effects were for pride, then enjoyment, and MTE, respectively. And the indirect effects of PLTS on other emotions were negative. It starts from the strongest one, hopelessness to weakest, shame.

Therefore, PLTS has been recognised as a crucial variable in the proposed model. It has a direct solid relationship with SE and TV. In other words, if a tourist perceives higher support from tour leaders and/or local people during their visit to a risky destination, their self-efficacy and the value they place on travelling there will increase. Moreover, they will have greater pride and enjoyment emotion but less anger, anxiety, boredom, hopelessness and shame emotions during and after their trip; it will be a more memorable experience for them too.

Similarly, some studies on CVTAE in educational psychology found that "Teacher's support" has a positive relationship with both perceived control and value (Burić, 2015; King et al., 2012; Gamlem et al., 2019). From a deeper perspective, researchers believe that the interaction between teacher and student (teacher's support) is a key predictor of students' motivational-affective characteristics (Klieme et al., 2009) and affects students' emotional experiences (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Lazaridesa & Buchholz 2019). Burić (2015) found some differences for each achievement emotion which he categorised into two groups. Based on his results, the teacher's support and challenges influence anger, hope, joy and pride indirectly. But it has an insignificant indirect influence on anxiety, shame and hopelessness. Lazaridesa and Buchholz's (2019) results supported Burić's (2015) study only in relation to the influence of teacher support on enjoyment, which was a positive relationship. But he concluded that teacher support is negatively associated with student's anxiety and boredom. Goetz et al. (2013) and Ahmed et al. (2010) also support the theories of Lazaridesa and Buchholz (2019) about the positive influence of teacher support on student's enjoyment and the negative relationship with anxiety and boredom.

In the tourism context, there is no study on the role of local people and tour leaders support on a tourist's self-efficacy, task value, emotions and the memorability of the trip to compare their results with this study. But many pieces of research highlight their critical roles in tourist's experience at a destination. Scholars have described tour leaders as a source of knowledge, information providers, culture brokers, entertainers, leaders, mediators, mentors, surrogate parents, pathfinders (McKean, 1976; De Kadt, 1979; Schuchat, 1983; Cohen, 1985) and teachers (Weiler & Davis 1993; Curtin, 2010). It is believed that the tour leader plays a crucial role throughout the trip as tourists might rely on "the tour leader to ensure 'what' core service is delivered and 'how' this core service is performed" (Heung, 2008, p. 305). The tour leader is supposed to play several crucial roles in providing quality experiences for the visitor (Weiler & Davis, 1993) and provide extremely delightful experiences for them (Cohen, 1985; Geva & Goldman, 1991; Black & Ham, 2005; Chandralal et al., 2015).

Tourism literature presents local people as having a more special and significant role in the tourists' experience while visiting a destination. It seems that chatting to local people may well be the primary way tourists increase their understanding of the local culture (Prentice et al., 1994). So, it would appear that local people can help tourists to learn about the destination better. As Nørfelt et al. (2020) claim, behavioural intentions like enthusiasm to get involved with local people might clarify their attitudes and behaviours from sincere interests in listening to and learning from local people (Stone & Nyaupane, 2019). More precisely, tourists tend to communicate with local people in unfamiliar destinations (Chandralal et al., 2015). Thus, researchers believe that a crucial element in tourist's satisfaction about a destination is the input provided by residents (Chi & Qu, 2008; Mehmetoglu & Normann, 2013; Thongkundam, 2012; Sangpikul, 2018).

Similarly, Sangpikul (2018) mentions that local residents are an additional critical element in the travel experience that affect tourist loyalty to the destination. The friendliness of local people and the hospitality of the tourism service providers will lead to improved tourist satisfaction and an increased desire to revisit the destination. Residents strongly contribute to making tourists happy and satisfied during their trip and enhance the possibility of them returning. To that extent, tourists who experience more favourable travel experiences with locals will be more likely to return to the destination. The local people's hospitality also strongly contributes to retaining loyal tourists (McDowall & Ma, 2010; Thiumsak & Ruangkanjanases, 2016). Interestingly, Lovel and Feuerstein (1992) assert that tourists with a

stronger preference for experiencing the local culture authentically will refuse package tours and prefer to stay with local people (Nørfelt et al., 2020).

The results of this study also support the findings of previous literature as it concluded that between two FOCs of PLTS, PLS has a stronger effect on SE and TV as two endogenous variables. Therefore, for tourists, it's more important to receive support from local people to have a firmer belief about their own capabilities, perceive their trip as more important, enjoy the trip more, be prouder of themselves and have a stronger memorable experience of travelling to a risky destination. Indeed, there will be less anger, less anxiety, less boredom, less hopelessness and less shame about their trip. Therefore, it can be clearer now why the hospitality and friendly behaviour of ME people is always highlighted by previous tourists and travel sources like Lonely Planet.

6.5. Self-efficacy

Educational scholars (Goetz et al., 2010; Pekrun et al., 2002, 2007; Pekrun, 2006) claim that people experience special achievement emotions depending on whether they consider themselves in control of or out of control in a particular situation. It indicates that control appraisal or perceived control is the proximal determinant of these emotions. Similarly, the literature on learning experience in tourism reveals that perceived control plays a crucial role in tourists learning and emotional responses (Shukri, 2017). Scholars believe that when an individual succeeds, it increases his control perception and encourages him to learn more profoundly about other cultures (Hottola, 2004). The delicacies of control perception are intimately related to a person's emotion and behaviour outcomes (Hottola, 1999, 2014; Kealey, 1989; Westerhausen, 2002; Johnson, 2010; Shukri, 2017). Therefore, it's important to study perceived control (here self-efficacy) as one of the antecedents for tourist's achievement emotions.

In this study, self-efficacy (SE) was measured by applying Lee & Kim's (2018) scale in the tourism context. It is very similar to Pintrich et al.'s (1991) scale in the education context. The indicators measure the degree of the self-efficacy concept experienced by tourists while traveling in the selected ME destination. The means for indicators were 5.33 to 5.82 out of 7, which shows they could successfully target tourists' control appraisal while traveling in a risky destination. It also demonstrates that tourists perceived high self-efficacy in traveling

there and learning about these destinations. SE is a reflective construct, and its validity and reliability have been proven in both the pilot test and main survey. SE as a dependent variable could be predicted by DPR and PLTS significantly. But PER had no role in this prediction. Besides, the variance explained is 47.3% at the aggregate level, which is high. Therefore, the model can significantly predict SE as a target construct. Predictive relevance (Q^2) has a positive value, reaffirming that the model can predict SE.

SE as an independent variable and one of the main arousals of achievement emotions had significant influence on all seven emotions, except for boredom. It had the strongest relationship with enjoyment, and then pride. Both positive relationships were as expected. It had the strongest negative relationship with anxiety, then anger, hopelessness and the lastly shame. The f^2 effect size analysis provided deeper contextual information. The contributions of SE to enjoyment and pride were medium, to anxiety, anger, and hopelessness were small, and to shame and boredom were very small. Similar results were found for q^2 effect sizes of SE on emotions. For enjoyment, pride, and anxiety, the effect sizes of SE were small; but for the other four emotions, it was quite minor. Regarding the outcome variable in the proposed model, the total effect analysis showed SE had a positive significant indirect effect to MTE.

Therefore, self-efficacy as the proposed tourists' control appraisal plays a key role in their experience in risky destinations. Suppose tourists have a stronger belief about their capabilities to travel in a risky destination. In that case, they will experience more enjoyment and pride and less anger, anxiety, hopelessness and shame during and even after their trip. Consequently, this stronger belief will also indirectly cause stronger memorable experiences of this trip for them.

The result of the present study is in line with psychologists' beliefs that higher levels of perceived efficacy are associated with higher positive emotional experiences (Bandura, 1997). And more precisely, it supports the crucial role of SE in CVTAE. Educational researchers believe that control is positively related to positive emotions like pride or enjoyment and negatively linked to negative emotions like anxiety or anger (Bieg et al., 2013; Boehme et al., 2017; Buhr et al., 2019; Burić, 2015; Frenzel et al., 2007; Goetz et al., 2006, 2008, 2010, 2019; Gong & Bergey, 2020; Heckel & Ringeisen, 2019; Peixoto et al., 2017; Pekrun, 2000; Simonton & Garn, 2019; Zaccoletti et al., 2020). Providing support throughout a tourism study is in line with the opinion that control appraisals also ought to invoke positive emotions in daily life. It is not limited to the educational context (Goetz et al. 2006, 2010).

Among the seven achievement emotions, the present study results showed an insignificant relationship between SE and boredom. This finding supports previous studies on student achievement emotions (Artino et al., 2010). Educational psychologists describe boredom as one of the most frequently experienced emotions in numerous situations today (Pekrun et al. 2010) due to the scarcity of value in certain settings or activities (Pekrun, 2006; Pekrun et al. 2010; Minkley et al., 2017). To that extent that high perceived value can protect individuals from boredom (Zaccoletti et al., 2020). They believe the incentive value of an activity pertaining to the level of boredom experienced might be partially subject to perceived controllability (Pekrun, 2006). Therefore, although both control and value appraisals influence boredom (Bieg et al., 2013; Goetz et al., 2019), value is more crucial.

To find a more direct reason for this insignificant relationship, we can look more deeply into the association between self-efficacy and boredom in previous literature. Educational studies commonly concluded that perceived control has a negative linear relationship with boredom (Bieg et al., 2013; Goetz et al., 2019; Pekrun et al., 2010, 2017) as this study also hypothesised. But some scholars believe that the control–value theory suggests a curvilinear relationship between boredom and control; more boredom is being experienced if there is high or low control instead of medium control. They believe that the context and type of activity being undertaken can determine whether boredom is created by either low or high control (Pekrun et al., 2010). As this study's finding showed, tourists' self-efficacy when travelling to a risky destination was high ($5.33 < \text{mean} < 5.82$ out of 7), however, they experienced low boredom ($1.72 < \text{mean} < 2.15$ out of 7). Therefore, achievement boredom in the tourism context may be caused by low control. In other words, the results of this study present an insignificant linear relationship between tourist's self-efficacy and boredom. It can be one of the differences in learning experience between education and tourism context. Several studies indicate that in the education context, as a demanding achievement setting, there is a negative effect of control on boredom rather than curvilinear relationships (Pekrun et al., 2010). But in this study, as the first investigation of achievement emotions in the tourism context, we found this negative linear relationship insignificant. Therefore, there might be a nonlinear relationship between control and boredom in tourism settings which was not this study's hypothesis, so it could not capture it.

Moreover, educational psychologists (Pekrun, 2006; Pekrun et al., 2011; Weiner, 1985) believe that pride and enjoyment are control-dependent emotions. It means they are supposed to be invoked if failure or success is predicted to be triggered by oneself, comprising

ascriptions to an individual's actions and characteristics. Therefore, it is consistent with the present study's findings that there was a strong correlation between SE (a tourist's belief about his capabilities) and his enjoyment and pride in travelling to risky destinations.

Shukri (2017) found that the culture confusion theory acknowledges that tourists confront new things that require to be learned and might experience success or even failures during the learning process. Once individuals succeed, it increases their control perception and encourages them to learn more profoundly about other cultures (Hottola, 2004). In his thesis about "unfamiliar food consumption among western tourists in Malaysia," Shukri (2017) mentions that the delicacy of control perception is strongly associated with an individual's emotional and behavioural outcomes (Hottola, 1999; 2014; Johnson, 2010; Kealey, 1989; Westerhausen, 2002). The significant indirect influence of the tourist's self-efficacy on memorable experiences – MTE as the outcome of travelling to a risky destination – not only supports his opinion but also provides a deeper perspective.

6.6. Task value

As the name of the CVTAE theory says both control and value appraisals have crucial roles in predicting emotions. Similarly, in the tourism context, some scholars argue that people participate in learning experiences not for any instrumental purposes but rather because they enjoy and value the process of learning itself. Thus, learning experiences could be considered as intrinsically worthwhile or autotelic; the experiences themselves provide their own rewards (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Packer, 2006; Falk et al., 2012). Therefore, it's important to study the influence of value in tourist experience, especially achievement emotions.

Task value (TV) has been measured in this study according to Pintrich et al.'s (1991) scale. Here, the 'task' was 'travelling to risky destination, particularly the ME.' And based on the assumption of learning as planned or unplanned consequences of travelling to a risky destination, value tries to investigate the intrinsic value of this task through a learning perspective. TV had four indicators that measure the degree of value concept experienced by tourists while traveling in a selected ME destination. The mean for these indicators were 5.56 to 5.9 out of 7, which shows it could successfully target tourists' task value appraisal.

It's a reflective construct, and its reliability and validity have been proven in the pilot test and the main survey steps. TV as a dependent variable could be reliably predicted by DPR and PLTS. But in the same way as SE, PER had no role in this prediction. Besides, the variance explained is 41.4% at the aggregate level, which is high. Therefore, the model can significantly predict TV as a target construct too. Predictive relevance (Q^2) has a positive value, which reaffirms that the model can predict TV. It means when travelling to a risky destination, a tourist's RP of that destination and his perception of residents and tour leader's support will predict his belief about his capabilities to travel there and the importance of this trip.

From an independent perspective, studies in the education context consistently recognise the expected positive relationships between value and positive emotions (Bieg et al., 2013; Buhr et al., 2019; Burić, 2015; Frenzel et al. 2007; Goetz et al. 2006, 2008; Heckel & Ringeisen, 2019; Peixoto et al., 2017; Zaccoletti et al., 2020). The results of this study support the notion that the tourist's TV of travelling to a risky destination had a positive significant relationship with their both enjoyment and pride. It is in line with Goetz et al.'s (2006, 2010) opinion. They believe that value appraisals also ought to arouse positive emotions in daily life. More precisely, for the assessment of daily activities, higher levels of perceived value also need to coincide with greater positive emotions. Therefore, the positive association between perceived value and positive emotions is not limited to the educational context; it can also be applied in a tourism setting. However, there is no study in the tourism context about task value and enjoyment or pride; with this in mind, this study can support Ma et al.'s (2013) research on theme parks. They found out that tourists "goal relevance or importance" (i.e., matters/means a lot/important/relevant to me) has a significant positive influence on "delight" as a positive emotion, including feeling elated, enthusiastic and/or excited. Their study's goal relevance and delight are somehow similar to task value and enjoyment in the present study.

The CVTAE has a more critical view of the relationship between value appraisals and negative emotions; a view that the present study supports. It can be both positive and negative (Pekrun, 2000), and the characteristics of value may determine it. Psychologists consider two groups focused on the control-value theory: the first group relates to beliefs concerning the intrinsic values of the setting being examined, and the second group relates to beliefs involving the value of achievement outcome in this setting or extrinsic value. A student, for instance, might be interested in mathematics since s/he acknowledges the action of working

with numbers. They identify this as the intrinsic or domain value of the study of mathematics. On the other hand, another student might be more involved with functioning satisfactorily in mathematics to increase his occupation choices or fulfil his parent's expectations. They identify this as an achievement or extrinsic value of the study of mathematics (Frenzel et al., 2007).

Previous educational studies that focused on the *extrinsic value* found that value appraisal has both positive and negative relationships with negative emotions. For example, it is a negative association for anger and boredom and a positive association for anxiety, hopelessness and shame (Bieg et al., 2013; Boehme et al., 2017; Frenzel et al., 2007; Pekrun, 2006; Pekrun et al., 2011; Peixoto et al., 2017). On the contrary, studies that targeted the *intrinsic value* discovered that value appraisal negatively affects negative emotions without any distinction (Buhr et al., 2019; Burić, 2015; Frenzel et al., 2007; Zaccoletti et al., 2020). In this regard, Frenzel et al. (2007) had innovation in their research by investigating the relationship between both intrinsic and extrinsic values and student's achievement emotions. They confirmed that the students identified anxiety, hopelessness and shame as the most controversial negative emotions for value appraisals, had negative associations with the domain or intrinsic value but positive associations with achievement or extrinsic value.

In the present study, Task Value is close to the intrinsic value concept in education as it concerns the importance of travelling to or understanding about a risky destination itself. TV had significant negative relationships with all five negative emotions, from strongest to weakest, boredom, hopelessness, anger, shame, and anxiety respectively. Therefore, this study supports the previous educational studies on the role of value appraisals on negative achievement emotions and the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic value in CVTAE.

By conducting deeper analysis, f^2 effect size results indicated the contribution of TV to all emotions were medium to high and significant except anxiety. So, the largest to the smallest contribution of TV to tourist's achievement emotions when travelling to a risky destination are pride, enjoyment, boredom, hopelessness, anger, and shame respectively. The q^2 effect size results reaffirm it too. TV had medium predictive relevance on pride and enjoyment and small predictive relevance on the rest emotions, except anxiety which had minimal predictive relevance.

As mentioned in the previous section, the CVTAE posits that boredom varies from the rest of achievement emotions by being stimulated once achievement activities are perceived

with a lack of value (Pekrun, 2006; Pekrun et al. 2010; Minkley et al., 2017). More precisely, it is supposed that a scarcity of intrinsic values in achievement activities, instead of lacking extrinsic value, is essential for the commencement of boredom (Pekrun et al., 2010). This study supports this phenomenon as the relationship between TV and boredom is the strongest relationship for value appraisal and negative emotion in this study. However, SE had no significant role in this emotion. Moreover, the focus of this study was the intrinsic value which caused a strong relationship with boredom.

Total effect analysis demonstrated a positive significant indirect relationship between TV and MTE. Therefore, if a tourist perceives his travel to a risky destination as important, interesting and useful it will also impact upon his travel experience's memorability. This study concludes that the proposed model plays an essential role by significantly influencing all achievement emotions and significantly indirectly affecting the memorable experience of travelling to ME destinations. TV has a stronger positive influence on tourists pride the and enjoyment of travelling there. Therefore, it might conclude that if a tourist evaluates the trip to a risky destination as more interesting, important or useful, he will experience greater pride and enjoyment of travelling there. This high evaluation will cause lower anger, anxiety, hopelessness, shame and especially boredom when travelling to ME countries. Its significant solid indirect influence on the memorability of travelling to a risky destination is also interesting. In this regard, if tourists have a high evaluation of their trip value, they will have a more memorable experience of this trip.

6.7. Achievement Emotions

People may forget the precise location and date of their trip but seldom forget the feelings and emotions experienced while doing specific activities (Kim et al., 2010; Lee, 2015). As previous studies (Van Winkle & Lagay, 2012) have shown, emotional reflection throughout a tourism experience has been seen as a significant contributory factor towards inclusive learning experiences. Therefore, some scholars believe that researchers must highlight the emotional facets of tourists experiences (Knobloch et al., 2014; Ceolho et al., 2018). Moreover, Ross (1997) believes that satisfying a need for achievement is an important component in assessing experience. And a sense of achievement can be considered to be one of the main feelings in life (Filep & Pearce, 2013), in particular it is inseparable from travel and tourism (Sirgy et al., 2011; Knobloch et al., 2017). Therefore, studying "achievement" as

one of the important emotions for tourists through a proposed theory for learning in challenging environments can provide invaluable information.

The seven achievement emotions include anger, anxiety, boredom, enjoyment, hopelessness, pride and shame, measured reflectively in this study. Pekrun et al.'s (2005b) achievement emotions scales have been borrowed. First, all indicators have been reworded from the education context into the tourism context. The indicators measured the degree of presence of each particular emotion during or after visiting the selected ME destination. Then, they have been validated and modified through an expert panellist's process. Afterwards, their reliability and validity have been confirmed in the pilot test phase and then in the main survey phase. Interestingly, 87.4% of respondents considered the travel to their selected risky destination as an achievement for themselves. And the mean value for the question "In general, I consider my travel to this country as an achievement for myself." was 5.951 out of 7.

Bastiaansen et al. (2019) believe that "researchers in our field [tourism and hospitality] should focus more on establishing exactly how and under which conditions emotions shape experiences." Therefore, the present study proposed distal and proximal antecedents for achievement emotions. As dependent variables, all of these seven emotions could be significantly predicted by proposed antecedents (R^2); besides their predictive relevance (Q^2) reaffirms it. From highest to lowest predictive power and relevance, they include first, *pride* (48% explained variance), second, *enjoyment* (45% explained variance), with a big distance third, *boredom* (15.2% explained variance), fourth, *hopelessness* (14.9% explained variance), fifth, *anger* (13.8% explained variance), sixth, *shame* (12.1% explained variance), and finally, *anxiety* (11.8% explained variance). Therefore, the proposed model could predict all seven achievement emotions; however, its predictive power and relevance were greater for positive emotions than negative emotions. It might show the need for more antecedents to predict the negative emotions in this achievement setting for tourists.

However, the low mean scores for negative emotions demonstrated that, in general, tourists did not feel anger, anxiety, boredom, hopelessness, and shame during and after their trip to risky destinations. Instead, they felt strong enjoyment and pride in their experience there. Based on the logic of cognitive appraisal theory in CVTAE, control and value appraisals are dominant stimulators of achievement emotions (Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Pekrun, 2000, 2006). Therefore, they could show the main reason why tourists did not

experience high negative emotions. *Anger* is provoked if the activity is recognised as controllable but negatively valued. Therefore, tourists felt low anger as they perceived their travel to risky destinations as highly valued. If a person has low control appraisals but high value appraisals for an outcome/activity, he is expected to experience more *anxiety*. So, tourists experienced low anxiety as they had high control and value appraisals for their travel to ME destinations. Activity *boredom* is persuaded if the activity has no stimulus value for the person. Thus, tourists did not feel boredom during their trip to ME destinations as this trip had high stimulus value for them. *Hopelessness* is believed to be induced if achievement appears uncontrollable. Therefore, tourists did not experience hopelessness during their trip to risky destinations as they had high perceived SE that they could do it. And *shame* is triggered if failure is observed to have occurred by a lack of control about these outcomes. So, as tourists were sure about their capabilities of making this trip to ME destinations, they did not feel shame during or after their trip.

On the other hand, psychologists found that if the activity is perceived as adequately controllable by the individual himself, then enjoyment is expected to be provoked, and pride is triggered if success is perceived to be produced by controllable internal factors (Pekrun, 2006; Pekrun et al., 2011). As mentioned before, the mean scores for SE were high, and tourists perceived their travel to risky destinations as controllable.

One question can be raised here: Could the combinations or mixtures of several emotions influence the results? To address this hypothetical raised issue, we refer to the results of measurement model evaluations that showed acceptable discriminant validity results based on three criteria. Discriminant validity is described as "the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs by empirical standards" (Hair et al., 2016, p. 115). As data didn't show any discriminant validity issue, therefore, respondents could recognize their different emotions effectively. Moreover, it is not the first study to explore several emotions in participants' experiences. Psychologists proposed, tested, and confirmed this method for a long time as they called these emotions "discrete emotions" (Pekrun et al., 2006).

In tourism experience studies, emotional responses are said to affect perceptions and also memories (Trauer & Ryan, 2005). Some scholars mentioned the role of sense of achievement in a memorable experience for tourists, particularly in adventure tourism (Ryan et al., 2003; Morgan & Xu, 2009; Tung & Ritchie, 2011; Knobloch et al., 2017; Beckman et

al., 2017). Therefore, by considering achievement emotions as independent variables, we can try to understand their empirical relationship with MTE. As independent variables, only three emotions had significant relationships with MTE. They include pride, as the strongest relationship, and enjoyment. Both were positive as expected. The third significant relationship was anger to MTE which was negative.

The contribution of achievement emotions to MTE exhibited somewhat similar results, with the exception of anger. The contribution of *pride* to MTE was high and enjoyment was medium. But the contribution of the rest of the four emotions was very weak, insignificant or non-existent. Similarly, results for q^2 effect sizes showed the effect size of Pride on MTE and Enjoyment on MTE were beyond small. But the rest of the five emotions have a very small or none effect size on MTE.

However, our knowledge about the influence of emotions on MTE was minor. Some scholars claim that emotional stimuli, both positive and negative, cause robust memorability of an incident (Kensinger & Corkin, 2003; Dewhurst & Parry, 2000; Kim, 2014). In this regard, the present study demonstrated interesting results due to the insignificant effects of most negative emotions on the memorability of travel to a risky destination. However, another opinion called the "rosy view" phenomenon (Mitchell et al., 1997) emphasises the scarcity of negative emotions in tourist recalled experiences. Therefore, the findings of this study support suggestions that pride and enjoyment have a strong positive influence on a memorable experience when travelling to a risky destination. Moreover, anger has a negative effect on memorability but is not as strong as positive emotions.

The results of this study also support Zare's (2019) findings. Her research is about cultural influences on MTE. She discovered that tourists express a sense of pride in what they perceive to be a unique experience. She supposes that it is one of the expressions of distinctiveness that respondents mentioned for the memorability of their trip. Similarly, in the present study, achievement pride showed a very important role in MTE. Therefore, if tourists are proud of themselves and enjoy their trip to a risky destination during or after it, the memorability of their trip experience will be higher. But if they feel anger during their trip, the memorability will be decreased. If they feel anxiety, boredom, hopelessness or shame during or after their trip, their memorable experience will not significantly change. Although, hopelessness and shame showed positive relationships with MTE, anxiety and boredom showed negative relationships.

6.8. Memorable Tourism Experience

Researchers believe diverse cultural experiences offer tourists the chance to learn about traditions, local culture, stories and expertise. It will provide unforgettable memories for a visitor who does not live there and generate a living culture (Tan et al., 2013; Huang & Liu, 2018). As a complicated process, learning includes numerous counter-intuitive elements and activities, leading to personal, transformative and memorable consequences (Liu et al., 2019; Falk et al., 2012). It is supposed that a memorable experience is not context-specific and is dependent on the individual tourist's perceptions (Vada et al., 2019). Therefore, the present study applied Kim et al.'s (2012) scale to measure the MTE. It comprises of seven reflective components: hedonism, refreshment, novelty, meaningfulness, local culture, involvement and knowledge. Each indicator measured the degree of the relevant component in tourists' memorable experiences after the trip. Hedonism indicators, for instance, measured the degree of hedonistic aspects of tourists' experiences in visiting the selected ME destination. As any of these seven components reflect the memorability of the tourist experience in a destination, MTE is a reflective-reflective HOC. All indicators reflect the positive memorable experiences in visiting the ME. Both levels of reliability and validity have been confirmed in the pilot test and then in the main survey.

Results showed that hedonism ("I was thrilled about having a new experience there"), novelty ("I experienced something new") and knowledge ("I experienced a new culture") were the most important aspects of a memorable experience for tourists who travelled to ME countries as risky destinations. It provided support for tourist experience literature that said novelty seekers are fascinated by and actually travelled previously to destinations perceived as risky (Aschauer, 2010). It is also in line with researchers' findings that novel experiences are more likely to be remembered more precisely. Experiencing something different, new and unique results in a solid memory of the travel experiences. Such a novel experience is the main factor in retaining memories (Hung et al., 2016; Kim et al., 2010; Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018). Moreover, these results show the importance of learning in the tourist experience when visiting risky destinations by supporting the previous studies. Falk et al. (2012) believe that the learning opportunities experienced by tourists provided a vividly memorable experience gifted with huge personal value by them. Kim and Chen (2019) also claim that forming a memorable travel experience embraces a lengthy period of learning, not easily obtaining a special type of knowledge at a certain moment. In this study, tourist's average length of stay was 4-15 nights. So based on Kim and Chen's (2019) findings, tourists

had enough time for learning in these destinations, which formed their memorable travel experience.

Researchers assert that due to the importance of memorable experiences, research on the tourist experience should go further than recognising the components of MTE (Larsen, 2007) to seek an understanding of why the experiences are memorable (Skavronskaya et al., 2017). On the other hand, scholars believe that more studies are required to enlarge the categorisation of the emotions of memorable tourism experiences, because the previous scales (e.g., Diener et al., 2010; Schmitt, 1999) are deficient when it comes to explaining the stimulation of travel emotions (Coelho et al., 2018). Moreover, researchers wish to comprehend how tourist experiences could be transformed into more memorable experiences (Chandralal & Valenzuela, 2015; Knobloch et al., 2017; Tung & Ritchie, 2011). Therefore, the seven achievement emotions were proposed as the direct predictors of MTE, plus the five variables as indirect predictors. The explained variance for MTE was 69.1% which is very high. Therefore, the model can significantly predict MTE as a target construct. Predictive relevance (Q^2) has a positive value, which reaffirms that the model can predict MTE at a high rate.

As mentioned in the last section, based on the results of this study, MTE as a dependent variable was significantly predicted ($p < 0.05$) by three emotions (pride, enjoyment and anger) out of the seven. In debates, tourism presents those complicated emotions linked to destinations that can affect the evaluation of the experiences (De Rojas & Camarero, 2008; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Nettleton & Dickinson, 1993; Trauer & Ryan, 2005; Noy, 2007; Vittersø et al., 2000). Therefore, this finding strongly supports prior theoretical claims that emotions affect travel memorability (Larsen & Jenssen, 2004; Wirtz et al., 2003), to the extent that emotional involvement appears to increase the recall of MTE (Servidio & Ruffolo, 2016; Skavronskaya et al., 2017).

Horng & Hsu (2021) was the first empirical study that shows that pleasantness, as the most common aesthetic emotion, has a significant direct influence on a memorable dining experience. Their paper, and the present study, provide more empirical insights for Bastiaansen et al.'s (2019) conceptual paper. They claimed that emotions act as a moderator for the influence of experiential episodes on a memorable experience. But Horng & Hsu (2021), and the present study, empirically confirmed that emotions directly influence MTE. Moreover, there seem to be some differences between the result of this study and Lee's

(2015) on "creating memorable experiences in a reuse heritage site." Her findings show that personal emotion has no significant influence on MTE. However, she said that personal emotions consist of six items associated with self-identity and memories, and it is a factor under the "motivation of visitors" variable. Therefore, in Lee's (2015) study, personal emotion is in fact, a motivation, not emotion.

As mentioned before, results of this study demonstrated strong positive associations between pride and MTE, and enjoyment and MTE. It supports MTE researcher's strong emphasis on positive emotions as Ma et al. (2013) assert that positive emotions are important in creating memorable tourist experiences. Scholars believe the positive emotional state of activation while on a trip play a crucial role in generating memories (Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018). Positive emotions and feelings, like happiness and excitement, also explained the essence of MTEs (Kim & Ritchie, 2014; Tung & Ritchie, 2011; Knobloch et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2013). Sthapit & Coudounaris (2018) believe that when tourists experience thrills, enjoyment and excitement while at a destination, there is a higher possibility they may have a memorable experience. It is in line with the contribution of enjoyment on MTE in the present study. On the other hand, Knobloch et al. (2014) believed that tourists memorable experiences are intensely described by emotions, not all of them connected to hedonistic enjoyment. And Kim (2014) believes that emotional stimuli, both positive and negative, result in the solid memorability of an incident (Dewhurst & Parry, 2000; Kensigner & Corkin, 2003). It can be linked to the importance of pride and anger (based on their path coefficient) for MTE in the present study.

Coelho et al. (2018) believe that even negative emotions do not reduce memorability in many situations. Alternatively stated, it is likely to see how negative and positive emotions get perplexed by memorable experiences. This claim is consistent with the results of the present study. MTE is hypothesised to be influenced by five negatives and two positive emotions. But according to the path coefficient, both positive emotions had a strong positive association with MTE; however, only one negative emotion (anger) had a significant (but not so strong) influence on MTE. However, based on the f^2 effect size, it made an insignificant contribution to MTE which is confirmed by the q^2 effect size. Therefore, the role of positive emotions in tourist's memorability of their trip is extremely important.

It is also considered that the feelings experienced from mental, physical and emotional involvement in tourism activities contribute to an individual's memorable experiences

(Andrades & Dimanche, 2014). Kim (2020) strengthened this claim by exploring the influence of destination attributes on two groups of emotions: agonistic emotions, such as anger, frustration and irritation; and retreat emotions, such as fear and helplessness. Kim then explored the influence of these two types of emotions on negative memories. He found that the destination attributes causing negative MTEs included six dimensions: safety, infrastructure, unexpected incidents, hospitality, unethical business practices and environment. After that, Horng & Hsu (2021) concluded that customers perceive all aspects of the dining environment. This comprehensive perception about an environment can influence consumers' pleasantness and play a role in the formation of their memorable experiences. The present study supports these assertions. DPR, PLTS, TV and SE had a significant indirect influence on MTEs. As MTE is positive in nature, it is not surprising that PLTS, TV, and SE had a positive, strong indirect influence on MTE; and DPR had a negative, weak significant influence on it.

These results demonstrate that if tourists have a more negative perceived risk about a risky destination, they will have a less positive, memorable tourism experience from that trip. Similarly, Kim (2020) observed that negative perceptions about safety in destinations created negative MTEs in tourists. The present study also concluded that if tourists perceive more support from local people and/or tour leaders while travelling in a risky destination, they will have a more positive, memorable experience from that trip. In a challenging environment, the role of people who are familiar with the environment is absolutely essential. As in Kim's (2020) study, negative hospitality from the local people or a negative atmosphere at the destination caused negative MTEs for tourists.

Both TV and SE presented a significant positive indirect influence on MTE, but TV has stronger influence on MTE than SE. Therefore, when travel to a risky destination is interesting, important or useful for a tourist, he will have a stronger positive memorable experience about this trip, in comparison with when he has a strong belief about his capabilities. And it makes sense. Researchers claim that learning experiences will happen in any tourism context: either the tourists had this motivation or not (Falk et al. 2012; Stone & Petrick, 2013). But when we talk about the long-term outcomes of travel learning such as MTE, tourists will have more positive, strong, memorable experiences when learning about a risky destination that was interesting for them or when understanding this destination was essential for them. Psychological scholars say that we remember what we perceived.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION & IMPLICATIONS

This chapter concludes the study. It represents an overview of the study, a discussion of the research objectives with their attainment, theoretical contributions and practical implications. Lastly, the limitations of this study and suggestions for future research are offered.

7.1. Study Overview

Risk is an essential concept in the tourism and hospitality context as it is very influential on tourist's behaviour and experience. Travelling to any destination may present different types of risks for some tourists, but risky destinations may have special circumstances. This study conceptualised the "risky destination" by reviewing the previous literature. As a result, it revealed limited knowledge about tourists' experience in this kind of destination, especially from a psychological perspective. On the other hand, tourism scholars commonly studied the "achievement" concept as need (Murray, 1938), benefits or motivation (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000), well-being (Filep & Pearce, 2013) or eudaimonic rewards (Matteucci & Filep, 2017), but not as an emotion. Therefore, this study investigates the mechanism of tourist's achievement emotions in visiting a risky destination by applying and extending the Control Value Theory of Achievement Emotions (CVTAE, Pekrun, 2006).

Educational psychologists introduced the CVTAE theory as an application of cognitive appraisal theory in an achievement context. We believe both theoretical and administrative procedures in this study can show the success of translating the CVTAE from education into tourism. First, we described the connection between risk, risk-taking, adventure, and risky destination with the high possibility of learning for tourists. Then, we tried to track literature and link them to the hypotheses. First, we carefully and profoundly explained the study settings for both destinations and markets during the administrative stage. We believed this section would be very important to make the theoretical section more meaningful. Then, the crucial stage was to ask the expert panels' opinion on this translation from education into tourism. We sought both tourism and psychology (especially educational psychology) professors' opinions. Then, the acceptable reliability and validity results in both the pilot-test and main-survey showed us that we were on the right track. Moreover, the supported hypotheses also confirmed the translation's success in the tourism context. We also suppose

that the connections that we found between the results of this study with previous tourism studies (discussion chapter) are another sign of this translation success.

This study proposed seven objectives to achieve this study's purposes and answer research questions. The first research objective examines the tourist's achievement emotions from visiting risky destinations. The achievement emotions scale (Pekrun, 2005) has been borrowed from the education context and applied to the tourism context. There are seven achievement emotions based on this theory. The descriptive statistic of the present study shows tourists experienced more positive achievement emotions during and after travel to a risky destination than negative achievement ones. Therefore, enjoyment and pride are stronger achievement emotions for tourists than anger, anxiety, boredom, hopelessness and shame. Research objective one has thus been reached.

Research objective two investigates the tourist's destination perceived risk (DPR) as antecedents for achievement emotions in visiting risky destinations. The present study applied Fuchs and Reichel's (2006) destination risk perception scale. It includes overall risk and five types of RPs. Between different types of RPs, physical risk and financial risk are the most important; on the contrary, the socio-psychological risk and time risk are the least important for tourists before travelling to a risky destination. Research objective two has subsequently been achieved.

The third research objective is to analyse the tourist's prior experience with risk (PER) as antecedents to for achievement emotions in visiting risky destinations. Following Yang et al.'s (2015) method, this variable has been defined as a single-item variable. It identified whether tourists had past experience with risk or not, by investigating their travel experience to any ME destinations. Interestingly, only 6% of respondents had no past experience with risk. Therefore, research objective three has been met.

Research objective four examines the tourists perceived local people and tour leader support (PLTS) as antecedents for achievement emotions in visiting risky destinations. This variable has been proposed because of the essential role of the teacher as antecedents for achievement emotions. Similarly, tourism scholars believe local people and tour leaders perform as teachers for tourists in a destination (Stone & Nyaupane, 2019; Wong & Lee, 2012). Results reveal that tourists experienced a high level of support from both groups, local people and tour leaders while travelling to ME destinations ($5.123 < \text{mean} < 5.929$). Therefore, research objective four has been achieved too.

The fifth research objective tests the influence of the DPR, PER and PLTS as antecedents for achievement emotions in visiting risky destinations on tourists' control-value appraisals. This objective refers to hypotheses 3, 4 and 5. All hypotheses are confirmed except the influence of PER as antecedents for SE and TS as appraisals. However, it reveals that PLTS is a stronger antecedent for these two appraisals than DPR in visiting ME destinations. Research objective five has consequently been achieved.

The sixth research objective assesses the effect of tourists control-value appraisals on achievement emotions when travelling to risky destinations. This objective refers to hypotheses 1 and 2. Results confirmed all hypotheses except hypotheses 1 to 3 which shows an insignificant influence of SE on boredom. Therefore, SE and TV as two appraisals in the proposed model can predict achievement emotions when travelling to a risky destination. Research objective six has also been met.

The last research objective is to analyse the influence of tourist's achievement emotions when visiting risky destinations on their MTE as the outcome of this trip. This objective relates to hypothesis 6. Findings confirm the significant influence of three achievement emotions out of seven on MTE. These are pride, enjoyment and anger; however, the two positive emotions make stronger contributions to the memorability of travelling to a risky destination. Therefore, the seventh objective has been achieved.

The administrative process to test the hypotheses and obtain these objectives was as follows. First, the proposed scales based on the education literature were validated by 35 experts in tourism (17 professors and doctoral) and education/psychology (18 professors). Then, they were asked to assess each indicator based on its original version in terms of representativeness (Zaichkowsky, 1985) on a 3-point scale (3 = clearly representative; 2 = somewhat representative; 1= not representative) and write comments/suggestions to improve each item. After amending the items based on their opinions, the final version of the questionnaire was verified by conducting a pilot test. The sample for the pilot test was a group of international tourists. The 83 participants originated and lived in three selected English speaking countries and had travelled to at least one Middle Eastern country in the past five years. This study applied the PLS-SEM approach to analyse data. All measurement models showed good reliability and validity or significance and relevance, based on their types, either reflective or formative.

After minor revisions, the final questionnaire was translated into five languages: Bengali, Chinese, Hindi, French and Portuguese. The language barrier is an important issue for studying psychological concepts. Therefore, this study attempted to cover local languages in selected target market countries. After translating and validating the questionnaire with the help of 55 professional translators and native speakers, the final questionnaires were ready for conducting the main survey. Both the pilot test and the main survey were conducted online through the Qualtrics platform and distributed by the Dynata online survey company. 4,523 people accessed the main survey link, and finally, 871 questionnaires were accepted based on the proposed quality criteria. First, outer model evaluations confirmed the validity, reliability, significance, relevance of reflective, reflective-reflective and reflective-formative constructs. Then, inner model evaluations helped to test the proposed model and hypotheses, and eventually to achieve the research objectives as explained before.

7.2. Theoretical Contributions

The main contribution of this study is applying a new theory in the tourism setting. It provides a comprehensive picture of tourists' pre-trip perceptions, during-trip emotions, and after-trip interpretation of experiences based on the theoretical logic of cognitive appraisal theory. The usefulness of extended CVTAE was confirmed by helping to answer the research questions in the present study. It is an important theory because of its comprehensiveness. Recently, several studies focused on appraisal theories but adapted CVTAE offers a more profound framework for the risk tourism literature. It introduced two main antecedents, two specific appraisals, seven main emotions in a human's life under the umbrella of achievement emotions, and the vital outcome of a trip. And all these factors were proposed and tested based explicitly on the tourism setting and tourist's experience in a destination.

As the main implication for other researchers, this theory can be tested in other destinations that tourists perceive as risky; therefore, tourists will likely experience learning. Thus, this theory will help researchers understand tourists' achievement emotions during or even after returning home, how these emotions are aroused because of the achievement setting of the trip, and the long-term impact of this travel experience. Furthermore, this study confirms the educational psychologists' belief that control and value appraisals are the core arousals for achievement emotions, but antecedents significantly predict them. Therefore, this study laid the foundation for other researchers to investigate more and deeper antecedents for

tourists' appraisal in visiting risky destinations or places. It can be significant for other researchers because this more comprehensive information about internal and external environments for visiting risky places can help better understand how their subjective interpretations of perceived control and value of this trip form tourists' experiences there and the long-term impacts of this travel experience.

The present study has some more theoretical contributions. Despite the rich literature on *achievement* concept in tourism and hospitality (Murray, 1938; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000; Wolf et al., 2015; Seligman, 2011; Filep & Pearce, 2013; Matteucci & Filep, 2017; Tracy & Robins, 2007), a gap still existed about this concept from an *emotion* perspective. This study expands the Control-Value Theory of Achievement Emotions (Pekrun, 2000) from an educational context to a tourism context. It adapted this theory for tourism settings by introducing new antecedents and outcomes for achievement emotions. The adapted theory can be applied to any type of destination as it is believed that perceived risk exists in any type of travel (Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Qi et al., 2009), and learning may occur in tourist experience, whether it is planned or unplanned (Falk et al. 2012; Stone & Petrick, 2013). Therefore, this study paved the way for more investigation into tourists' emotional experiences at a destination.

This study has also responded to Bastiaansen et al.'s (2019) calls for studies to address the big gap in researching negative emotions in tourist's experience studies. It filled the gap on the two most denied emotions in tourism studies, hopelessness and boredom. Tan and Lu (2019) and Mauri and Nava (2021) are the first two studies on boredom in the tourism context. However, both assessed boredom as a perception than emotion. This study's results act as a unique theoretical confirmation for the complexity of boredom as an emotion in respect of its relationship with control and value appraisals, even in the tourism context. It is also evident from the tourism area for Zaccoletti et al.'s (2020) claim that the interest in studying boredom, even in the academic context, is very recent compared with other achievement emotions.

Previous studies mentioned that in risky and challenging situations, the experience could be terrifying, however, it can also offer a sense of achievement for participants (Myers, 2010; Wolf et al., 2015). But there was no information about the tourist's relevant emotions in this environment. In relation to risky destinations, most studies investigated the perceived risks, destination image, visit or revisit intention (Fuchs & Reichel, 2011; Sönmez & Graefe,

1998; Lehto et al., 2008). But there was a gap in tourist's real experiences there. This study expands on the knowledge in this regard. Its results act as a shaft of light on how visiting risky destinations can provide as strong positive emotions as many other destinations and demonstrates how these destinations can create a memorable experience by being important for tourists to visit. Furthermore, this study has underlined the significance of studying the tourism experience mechanism from pre-trip perceptions, during trip attitudes and emotions, to after trip interpretations.

This study confirmed prior research findings on the important role of local people and tour leaders in the tourists' experience and satisfaction when visiting a destination (e.g., McDowall & Ma, 2010; Wong & Lee, 2012; Marković & Petrović, 2014; Tsaur & Teng, 2017; Thiumsak & Ruangkanjanases, 2016; Sangpikul, 2018; Stone & Nyaupane, 2019). It also took one step further and expanded the knowledge on tourists' perceptions about local people's support and tour leader's support in their learning experience and the achievement emotions experienced. Indeed, this study contributes to tourist learning experience literature by demonstrating that perceived support for learning from local people or tour leaders contribute to firmer tourist beliefs about his travel capabilities and the importance of the trip. It agrees with Stone & Nyaupane (2019) that tourists have a sincere fascination with listening and learning from locals.

Although perceived value is a well-studied concept in tourism and hospitality (e.g., Yang et al., 2011; Bonnefoy-Claudet & Ghantoush, 2013), this study applied task value concepts from education in tourism. For the first time, this type of perceived value, which focuses more on the usefulness and importance of the activity itself, has been used to analyse tourists' experiences. Moreover, there was a lack of knowledge on the detailed influence of perceived value on these seven emotions: anger, anxiety, boredom, enjoyment, hopelessness, pride and shame. Interestingly, there was the same absence of self-efficacy. Therefore, this study gives us a fundamental understanding of the importance of the relationship between value and self-efficacy appraisals and tourists emotions which is less studied in the literature.

There are two main groups of studies about the relationships between emotions and memorable tourism experiences (MTE): first, memorable emotions in the tourist experience; second, the influence of emotions on a memorable experience. Most literature focuses on the first group (Coelho et al., 2018; Ritchie et al., 2011; Tung & Ritchie, 2011; Knobloch et al., 2017; Servidio & Ruffolo, 2016; Kim et al., 2012). On the other hand, most studies in the

second group were theoretical. Horng & Hsu (2021) was the first empirical study that focused solely on the influence of pleasantness on the memorable dining experience. Therefore, this study is the first research that expands our knowledge about the influence of seven emotions including anger, anxiety, boredom, hopelessness, enjoyment, pride and shame, on a memorable experience in a destination.

Selecting the Middle East (ME) as the sample-risky destination for this study expands the knowledge about tourism in this area and even fills in the gaps about understanding tourists' experience there. There are many studies about the Middle East from a tourism and hospitality perspective (chapter 3). But they are mostly theoretical, and the few empirical ones had a maximum sample of three to four countries from the ME. The present study has selected the biggest sample of ME countries by focusing on 10 destinations. As a result, it provides a deeper investigation into tourists' psychological experiences there. And also, for the first time in academic tourism studies, it offers a comprehensive explanation of where the ME is, which countries are included in this region and what the top markets are for them. Therefore, this study will help tourism literature to have clearer insights into the ME region. Moreover, it is a unique and first study on Middle Eastern countries that has a target market from all continents. This worldwide perspective helped this study to collect a comprehensive sample from both destinations and markets.

7.3. Practical Contributions & Implications

This study details several practical implications for DMOs and marketers in ME countries and any risky destination that suffers from the negative impact of being in a conflict area. The study's findings could provide a great potential blueprint for developing inbound tourism in the Middle East. Moreover, it can help travel agencies in other countries aim to expand the outbound package tours to ME destinations. The estimated model of this study could offer crucial detailed recommendations based on actual tourist's experiences there to increase the Middle East's share of tourist arrivals from around the world.

This study selected 10 ME countries as the destination sample. Tourism development is one of the priorities for all of them based on their development plans. Therefore, they share the same goal. On the other hand, 94.4% of respondents had either visited the selected destination before or travelled to other ME destinations. Therefore, most tourists who travel

to a ME country tend to visit other ME countries too. Working together as one group can be very beneficial for all of them. If they can provide a special package tour including a variety of ME destinations, it will be more attractive for tourists and might be less risky for potential tourists to go.

In this regard, some of the ME countries in this study are members of GCC countries. They can take advantage of that and provide some packaged tours for inbound tourists as group destination visits. It can increase the attractiveness of travelling to this area and decrease the perceived risk by highlighting the friendly environment in the region. In this way, some countries in better situations (like UAE) can help other neighbouring ME countries to develop their international tourism industry. At the same time, they can benefit from this development in the region as it can help provide a clearer picture of what the ME has to offer and demonstrate that conflict is not happening everywhere in the ME.

Secondly, scholars believe that among the diverse human-made or natural disasters, terrorism poses the biggest danger to the tourism industry (Adeloye & Brown, 2018; Kozak et al., 2007; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006). Researchers also proposed that terrorism and political turmoil in one destination can influence the tourism industry in the entire region and neighbouring countries (Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Yang et al., 2015). This exemplifies the idea of the generalisation effect (Enders et al., 1992), by which people impute risk to a broad region instead of a localised area. The results of this study support this claim. When looking at tourists different perceived risks before travelling to ME countries, the two first concerns were terrorism and political unrest. Besides, as mentioned in the previous point, most respondents had either visited the selected destination before or had travelled to other ME destinations. It confirms that even for repeat visitors or tourists who have travelled to the area several times, terrorism and social unrest still matters to them before subsequent visits. Media coverage might cause this effect. Therefore, DMOs can focus on this issue more and clearly picture the reality there.

As the influence of tourists specific RP of travelling there will be influential on their self-belief, travel importance, achievement emotions and the memorability of this trip, this study suggests DMOs clarify the risky destination's status in terms of different RP. It will help to diminish tourists concerns and leave stronger positive emotions after the trip. In this regard, exploring the perceived risk results deeper can provide more practical implications for DMOs. Tourists rated their RP about how local people might interpret their behaviours as the

third perceived risk (mean = 3.689). It can refer to the unfamiliarity (Carter, 1998; Lepp & Gibson, 2008; Lepp et al., 2011) or cultural dissimilarity (Cohen, 1972; Lepp & Gibson, 2003). After that, the financial RP includes their concerns about "having more expensive trips than other international trips" and "extra expenses", which has been rated as the fourth perceived risk about ME destinations (mean = 3.551 & 3.518). In some ME destinations, like UAE, it might be because of luxury tourism; for some others like Iran, it might be because of fewer flights or the high prices charged by travel agencies for package tours. Therefore, DMOs can first give more information about their culture and customs and educate their local people about hosting international tourists. And secondly, make their tourism facilities (e.g., hotels and restaurants) and tour packages more affordable.

Third, tourists' perceptions of local people were very positive. Tourists' positive emotions during and after their trip were much higher than their negative emotions. Besides, they had very high positive, memorable tourism experiences in different aspects e.g., hedonism or meaningfulness. Therefore, this study can be considered as a crisis management tool to reform the negative or risky image of the Middle East. The crisis that ME destinations face is a mainly their negative image. Therefore, positive perceptions about local people, positive emotions, and having positive, memorable experiences can act as tools to manage this crisis. DMOs can refer to these three points in their advertisements to reassure potential tourists about the hospitality of local people and expected positive experiences there. It may help to attract more tourists to this area.

Fourth, the present study demonstrates the critical role of local people and tour leaders in tourist's experiences and emotional responses. The variable PLTS has a strong relationship with emotions antecedents (SE and TV) and contributes largely to emotions, especially positive emotions, and MTE. As discussed before, they can play a role as teachers for tourists (Pond, 1993; Mancini, 2000; Marković & Petrović, 2014). Therefore, DMOs need to consider educating the local people and tourism operators about their crucial roles in tourism learning experiences in the destination. They also need to be educated about how to treat and communicate with international tourists. In this way, tourists will have more positive emotions and less negative emotions during and after their trip when recalling their memories. It may also cause a stronger memorable experience of this trip. Therefore, the ME destination may benefit from positive word of mouth, and previous tourists may make return trips.

Fifth, this study discovered the importance of task value (TV) in tourist experiences when in risky destinations like ME countries. This variable is about the tourist's assessment of how interesting, important and useful the task is. The task here refers to travelling to a risky destination and their learning experiences whilst there. Therefore, when task value got a high mean (5.35 to 5.78) and had a significant influence on tourists' emotions, the trip was very interesting/important/useful for them and contributed to their emotional and memorable experience trip during and after that. So, it can be beneficial information for DMOs to consider these facts. As mentioned, all 10 of these ME destinations have huge cultural, historical and natural attractions and assets that can help to enrich tourist's experiences there. Therefore, they can highlight them in their marketing and advertising to motivate potential tourists interested in learning new things and having adventures. It can assure tourists that there are many things in the ME to experience, learn and understand which can be very interesting and useful.

Sixth, this study demonstrated the essential role of self-efficacy in tourist's experiences and emotions. Therefore, it recommends DMOs in ME countries inspire global confidence in travelling to this region. This can be done by highlighting public areas and facilities, cultures, customs, etc., which are similar to other places around the world, in terms of civilisation.

Seventh, results of this study showed that tourists enjoyed their trip to ME destinations as they perceive it as an exciting trip and gaining knowledge about the country makes them happy. Besides, after their trip, they are proud of themselves and their newfound knowledge. It suggests to DMOs to consider these tourists' emotions as they strongly influence their memorability of the trip. This positive, memorable experience can act as effective WOM for the destination. On the other hand, DMOs need to understand why tourists feel angry during their trips. Although its negative influence on MTE is weak, there is still an effect that can harm destination marketing and development.

Eighth, because of the importance of MTE's components, it suggests that DMOs invest in their special cultural or historical attractions more. As mentioned before, most ME countries are rich in terms of UNESCO's heritage sites. They need to develop and advertise these assets for international tourists. Again, the important role of local people in tourist's experience is highlighted in memorable tourist experiences in ME countries. Before, this has been highlighted by the crucial role of PLTS in this model. Therefore, DMOs are required to

allocate special attention to local people as a long-term investment in their tourism development.

7.4. Limitations & Future Research Suggestions

No study is without limitation. The present study also contains some limitations that could provide opportunities for future research.

First, tourist's destination perceived risk of travelling to a risky destination has been examined using Fuchs and Reichel's (2006) scale. When we started and were doing this study, we believed that it was the most comprehensive scale. It has six subgroups: overall risk, financial risk, performance risk, physical risk, socio-psychological risk, and time risk. But it was before the COVID-19 pandemic. Risk is a highly subjective concept that differs across time (Green & Singleton, 2006; Yang et al., 2015). And the perceived risk is an individual's subjective evaluation of the real risk. The real risk is the level of risk that in reality exists because of the function of safety-control tools (Dickson & Dolnicar, 2004; Haddock, 1993; Yang & Liu, 2014). And nowadays, we cannot deny how extensively COVID-19 has transformed the real risk in the world. Fuchs and Reichel's (2006) scale has one indicator about 'epidemic diseases' under the 'physical risk' construct. But only one item cannot measure the tourist's health risk perception comprehensively. Besides, this new health risk perception may have serious consequences on other risk types such as financial, time, performance, or even overall risk. Therefore, it is firmly suggested that future studies should conduct a deeper qualitative investigation about current tourists' perceived risk, particularly about different destinations, to avoid any destination-based bias. Trying to control this bias might be important as during the pandemic, each country has had different strategies to control it, including vaccination, inbound/outbound tourism policies, etc.

The second limitation of the present study is testing the "prior experience with risk" as a single-item variable. Although it aimed to have more innovations in the structural modelling studies by having a categorical variable, it failed to make any contribution to the proposed model. Previous literature supposes that learning is intensely affected by the internal world of our prior experiences (Falk et al., 2012). Therefore, we believe PER could be an essential variable in a risky destination context, but it needs to conceptualise deeper. A qualitative pre-study on tourist's prior experience with risk, how it forms, its components, etc., will be

helpful to design a multi-item measurement. Developing a more solid measurement could support profound insights into tourist's experiences in a risky destination context.

Third, a "risky destination" has been conceptualised as a destination that has a negative image, plus other features. The important role of the media in creating a destination image cannot be denied (Sönmez, 1998; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998; Pizam & Fleischer, 2002; Cavlek, 2002; Floyd et al., 2004). Moreover, the tourist's experience is a complex phenomenon. We tried to examine it as deeply as possible. But there is still a big question: what is the role of media in tourist's experience, particularly tourist's achievement emotions when travelling to a risky destination? The role of media coverage on any risky destination may greatly influence tourists' emotional responses before, during and after travelling there. Future studies can consider this possible antecedent too.

Fourth, this study has applied Pekrun et al.'s (2005a) scale for achievement emotions. It is a comprehensive measurement to test achievement emotions. But in a special learning context like tourism, tourists might have more complicated emotions to investigate. As achievement emotions have a complex mechanism including affective, cognitive, physiological and motivational components, a collaboration between tourism researchers and educational psychology scholars might be a good solution to find out tourist achievement emotions before, during and after travelling to a risky destination more deeply.

Fifth, the present study has applied Kim et al.'s (2012) scale for a memorable tourism experience. Besides, many scholars worked on MTE until now. Their scale has been known as a comprehensive measurement for this concept as it has seven sub-dimensions: novelty, hedonism, refreshment, local culture, meaningfulness, knowledge and involvement. But as mentioned before, the tourist's experience is a complex phenomenon. Visiting a risky destination may have some other memorable aspects for tourists because it is different from other destinations. Therefore, future studies might conduct a deeper qualitative investigation to understand other possible aspects of memorability when travelling to a risky destination.

Sixth, this study has tested one outcome for emotional responses, and it was MTE. But other possible long-term outcomes need to be examined in this context too. One of these important possible outcomes is well-being (Hosany, 2012; Sirgy, 2010; Sirgy et al., 2011; Sthapit & Coudounaris, 2018). Unfortunately, there is no knowledge about the relationship between tourist's achievement emotions of travelling to a risky destination and their well-being after this trip. Future studies can provide invaluable information for both tourism

literature and DMOs by examining the role of tourist's achievement emotions in their hedonic and eudemonic well-being.

Seventh, the sole focus of this study for risky destinations was Middle Eastern countries. However, as mentioned, which country is a risky destination depends on how we conceptualise a "risky destination." Therefore, future studies can investigate other risky destinations worldwide to provide more information on tourist's experiences elsewhere around the world.

Eighth, this study is the first research that applied CVTAE to the tourism context. But empirically, it has been tested only in a risky destination context. Some comparative studies can be done between tourist's achievement emotions in risky destinations with fewer tourist arrivals and top destinations that receive high tourist arrivals every year. This investigation can help figure out any possible privilege of tourist's achievement emotions in a risk context. It can also assist in comparing tourist's perceived risk, task value, self-efficacy and memorability of travelling to a risky destination versus a top destination. This assessment can also clarify any possible differences between antecedents, appraisals, emotions and travel outcomes to these two different destinations.

Ninth, as mentioned before, there are minor studies on the second group of MTE research (the influence of emotions on memorable experience) to the extent that the present study might be the second one. So, future studies can focus on this area more. They can also examine different types of emotions to provide more information on the mechanism of MTE.

Finally, if destinations want to know more about their exact memorable feature, they need to research in their context. Different components of MTE like hedonism or refreshment can have different detailed actual phenomena in each destination according to their environment, location, neighbouring countries, history, media coverage, attractions etc. For example, one of the MTE components in the ME as a risky destination was meaningfulness. Practically speaking, for tourists, it might be "learning about dessert in Saudi Arabia" or "learning about the historical sites in Iran." Both show the importance of learning about the destination, but practically on different aspects. So, all DMOs cannot apply one result. They need to explore further by themselves.

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Appendix 1. Top 5 Market Countries for Middle Eastern Destinations

Appx1.1. Top 5 Market Countries in Each Continent for Egypt

Continent	Ranking	Top 5 Market-countries	Total Number of Tourists*	Market Share%*
Asia	1	China	234747	2.07
	2	Kazakhstan	133015	1.17
	3	India	126697	1.12
	4	Philippines	47974	0.42
	5	Indonesia	46485	0.41
Europe	1	Germany	1707382	15.1
	2	Ukraine	1174234	10.4
	3	United Kingdom	435772	3.84
	4	Italy	421992	3.72
	5	Poland	303720	2.68
North America	1	United States of America	287796	2.54
	2	Canada	85370	0.75
	3	Mexico	13281	0.12
	4	Costa Rica	1504	0.01
	5	Dominica	885	0.01
South America	1	Brazil	26160	0.23
	2	Argentina	14483	0.13
	3	Colombia	7824	0.07
	4	Chile	5084	0.04
	5	Peru	3632	0.03
Oceania	1	Australia	40109	0.35
	2	New Zealand	6111	0.05
	3	Samoa	32	0.00
Africa	1	Sudan	459607	4.05
	2	Libya	410659	3.62
	3	Algeria	62604	0.55
	4	Morocco	56581	0.50
	5	Nigeria	49121	0.43

*Source: UNWTO (2020)

Appx1.2. Top 5 Market Countries in Each Continent for Iran

Continent	Ranking	Top 5 Market-countries	Total Number of Tourists*	Market Share%*
Asia	1	Azerbaijan	1609620	22.07
		Afghanistan**	1011317	13.86
		Pakistan**	294086	4.03
	2	Turkmenistan	148664	2.04
	3	Armenia	142979	1.96
	4	India	67518	0.93
	5	China	54789	0.75
Europe	1	Germany	37125	0.51
		Russian Federation**	33633	0.46
	2	France	28389	0.39
	3	Italy	20013	0.27
	4	Netherlands	14724	0.20
	5	United Kingdom	9585	0.13
North	1	United States of America	2596	0.04

America	2	Canada	2115	0.03
	3	Mexico	499	0.01
	4	Cuba	73	0.00
	5	Dominican Republic	21	0.00
South America	1	Brazil	1681	0.02
	2	Argentina	451	0.01
	3	Venezuela	349	0.00
	4	Chile	177	0.00
	5	Colombia	160	0.00
Oceania	1	Australia	8169	0.11
	2	New Zealand	1239	0.02
		other countries of Oceania	614	0.01
Africa	1	Tanzania	1301	0.02
	2	Nigeria	1206	0.02
	3	Tunisia	887	0.01
	4	Ethiopia	820	0.01
	5	Algeria	790	0.01

*Source: UNWTO (2020)

**no access

Appx1.3. Top 5 Market Countries in Each Continent for Jordan

Continent	Ranking	Top 5 Market-countries	Total Number of Tourists*	Market Share%*
Asia	1	India	43292	1.04
		Pakistan**	27240	0.66
	2	China	18871	0.45
	3	Indonesia	18707	0.45
	4	Malaysia	17113	0.41
	5	Korea, Republic of	14985	0.36
Europe		Russian Federation**	47979	1.16
	1	Germany	44521	1.07
	2	Italy	40284	0.97
	3	France	40001	0.96
	4	United Kingdom	37378	0.90
	5	Spain	22886	0.55
North America	1	United States of America	120384	2.90
	2	Canada	29722	0.72
	3	Mexico	7164	0.17
	4	Costa Rica	999	0.02
	5	Saint Kitts and Nevis	440	0.01
South America	1	Brazil	9585	0.23
	2	Argentina	2997	0.07
	3	Chile	2485	0.23
	4	Colombia	2186	0.05
	5	Peru	1824	0.04
Oceania	1	Australia	19936	0.48
	2	New Zealand	4762	0.11
	3	Fiji	78	0.00
	4	Vanuatu	61	0.00
	5	Samoa	17	0.00
Africa	1	Libya	26920	0.7
	2	Sudan	11740	0.3
	3	South Africa	10844	0.26
	4	Algeria	9064	0.22
	5	Morocco	7262	0.17

*Source: UNWTO (2020)

**no access

Appx1.4. Top 5 Market Countries in Each Continent for Kuwait

Continent	Ranking	Top 5 Market-countries	Total Number of Tourists*	Market Share%*
Asia	1	India	1332454	15.66
	2	Philippines	203566	2.39
		Pakistan**	197438	2.32
	3	Bangladesh	165360	1.94
	4	Sri Lanka	87879	1.03
	5	China	35231	0.41
Europe	1	United Kingdom	74074	0.87
	2	France	21434	0.25
	3	Italy	17279	0.20
	4	Germany	17038	0.20
	5	Spain	10858	0.13
North America	1	United States of America	130254	1.53
	2	Canada	46204	0.54
	3	Mexico	1000	0.01
	4	El Salvador	733	0.01
	5	Costa Rica	162	0.00
South America	1	Colombia	2770	0.03
	2	Venezuela	1844	0.02
	3	Brazil	1593	0.02
	4	Ecuador	1592	0.02
	5	Argentina	458	0.01
Oceania	1	Australia	10629	0.12
	2	New Zealand	2152	0.03
	3	Fiji	43	0.00
	4	Palau	10	0.00
	5	Tonga	8	0.00
Africa	1	Ethiopia	22068	0.26
	2	Sudan	20098	0.24
	3	Morocco	19039	0.22
	4	Tunisia	17988	0.21
	5	South Africa	5478	0.06

*Source: UNWTO (2020)

**no access

Appx1.5. Top 5 Market Countries in Each Continent for Israel

Continent	Ranking	Top 5 Market-countries	Total Number of Tourists*	Market Share%*
Asia	1	China	104455	2.53
	2	India	70517	1.71
	3	Korea, Republic of	45085	1.09
	4	Indonesia	35292	0.86
	5	Philippines	28623	0.69
Europe	1	France	345955	8.40
		Russian Federation**	316296	7.68
	2	Germany	262599	6.37
	3	United Kingdom	218012	5.29
	4	Poland	151825	3.68
	5	Italy	150581	3.65
North America	1	United States of America	130254	1.53
	2	Canada	46204	0.54
	3	Mexico	36624	0.89
	4	Guatemala	3734	0.09
	5	Costa Rica	3519	0.09

South America	1	Brazil	62706	1.52
	2	Argentina	34803	0.84
	3	Colombia	16017	0.39
	4	Chile	9122	0.22
	5	Peru	6783	0.16
Oceania	1	Australia	43050	1.04
	2	New Zealand	6099	0.15
	3	Fiji	1263	0.03
	4	Papua New Guinea	221	0.01
	5	Solomon Islands	39	0
Africa	1	South Africa	27354	0.66
	2	Nigeria	10007	0.24
	3	Ethiopia	5145	0.12
	4	Kenya	4745	0.12
	5	Morocco	2989	0.07

*Source: UNWTO (2020)

**no access

Appx1.6. Top 5 Market Countries in Each Continent for Lebanon

Continent	Ranking	Top 5 Market-countries	Total Number of Tourists*	Market Share%*
Asia	1	Philippines	32321	1.65
	2	India	20242	1.03
	3	Bangladesh	14320	0.73
	4	Armenia	13680	0.7
		Pakistan**	11634	0.59
	5	China	9467	0.48
Europe	1	France	181321	9.2
	2	Germany	104167	5.3
	3	United Kingdom	75309	3.8
	4	Sweden	44032	2.2
	5	Italy	37013	1.9
North America	1	United States of America	190464	9.70
	2	Canada	114137	5.81
	3	Mexico	4032	0.21
	4	Panama	885	0.05
	5	Saint Kitts and Nevis	790	0.04
South America	1	Brazil	25014	1.27
	2	Venezuela	12232	0.62
	3	Argentina	2780	0.14
	4	Colombia	2296	0.12
	5	Paraguay	646	0.03
Oceania	1	Australia	84218	4.29
	2	New Zealand	1964	0.10
	3	Fiji	1372	0.07
	4	Samoa	25	0.00
	5	Vanuatu	23	0.00
Africa	1	Ethiopia	80767	4.11
	2	Morocco	9426	0.48
	3	Tunisia	8970	0.46
	4	Algeria	7213	0.37
	5	Ghana	4612	0.23

*Source: UNWTO (2020)

**no access

Appx1.7. Top 5 Market Countries in Each Continent for Oman

Continent	Ranking	Top 5 Market-countries	Total Number of Tourists*	Market Share%*
Asia	1	India	358790	11.1
		Pakistan**	90851	2.8
	2	Philippines	53962	1.7
	3	China	45956	1.4
	4	Bangladesh	25208	0.8
	5	Indonesia	19225	0.6
Europe	1	United Kingdom	151257	4.7
	2	Germany	146474	4.5
	3	France	64110	2.0
	4	Italy	63250	2.0
	5	Switzerland	23178	0.7
North America	1	United States of America	61568	1.90
	2	Canada	28982	0.89
		other countries of North America		
South America	1	Brazil ***	3037	
Oceania	1	Australia	21267	0.66
	2	other countries of Oceania		
Africa	1	South Africa	8588	0.26
	2	Tanzania, United Republic of	8238	0.25
	3	Tunisia	4901	0.15
		other countries of Africa		

*Source: UNWTO (2020)

**no access

***source: Ministry of Tourism, Oman (2020)

Appx1.8. Top 5 Market Countries in Each Continent for Qatar

Continent	Ranking	Top 5 Market-countries	Total Number of Tourists*	Market Share%*
Asia	1	India	400661	22.0
	2	China	62988	3.5
		Pakistan**	49576	2.72
		other countries of Asia		
Europe	1	United Kingdom	106873	5.9
	2	Germany	63532	3.5
	3	France	40164	2.2
	4	Italy	36447	2.0
		other countries of Europe		
North America	1	United States of America	104299	5.73
		Other countries of America	56863	3.13
South America		All countries of South America	56863	3.13
Oceania	1	Australia	49513	2.72

	other countries of Oceania		
Africa			
	All countries of Africa	90392	4.97

*Source: UNWTO (2020)

**no access

As Appx.1.8 shows, Qatar did not specify the number of tourists in each South American countries as it seems it's their strategy in most of this report. But "Brazil" can be one of the top 5 markets in this continent for Qatar, because of the following reasons:

1. Since August 2017, Brazil is one of Qatar's countries that does not require a visa to enter, and its residents can stay for 30 days only with their Brazilian passport (Rocha, 2019).

2. In October 2019, Brazil and Qatar reached a visa waiver agreement (Rocha, 2019).

3. In October 2019, Qatar and Brazil celebrated 45 years of friendship and economic partnerships. (Qatar, Brazil celebrate 45 years of friendship, economic partnerships, 2019).

4. There is a direct flight from Brazil to Qatar. Except for Brazil, only Argentina and Chile in South America have a direct flight to Qatar. (Qatar airways. 2021)

Appx1.9. Top 5 Market Countries in Each Continent for Saudi Arabia

Continent	Ranking	Top 5 Market-countries	Total Number of Tourists*	Market Share%*
Asia		Pakistan**	2177306	14.2
	1	India	1440170	9.39
	2	Indonesia	1375004	8.97
	3	Bangladesh	360447	2.35
	4	Malaysia	320109	2.09
		Afghanistan**	100131	0.65
	5	China	62834	0.41
Europe	1	United Kingdom	265128	1.73
	2	France	77422	0.50
	3	Germany	59804	0.39
	4	Italy	30252	0.20
	5	Netherlands	22612	0.15
North America	1	United States of America	824768	5.38
	2	Canada	69753	0.45
	3	Barbados	3163	0.02
	4	Mexico	2114	0.01
	5	Trinidad and Tobago	822	0.01
South America	1	Brazil	3023	0.02
	2	Colombia	1097	0.01
	3	Argentina	627	0.00
	4	Peru	204	0.00

	5	Ecuador	160	0.00
Oceania	1	American Samoa	34875	0.23
	2	Australia	18637	0.12
	3	New Zealand	3010	0.02
	4	French Polynesia	87	0.00
	5	Tonga	5	0.00
Africa	1	Algeria	447750	2.92
	2	Sudan	263596	1.72
	3	Morocco	216518	1.41
	4	Nigeria	134495	0.88
	5	Tunisia	125936	0.82

*Source: UNWTO 2020

**no access

Appx1.10. Top 5 Market Countries in Each Continent for United Arab Emirates (UAE)

Continent	**Ranking**	**Top 5 Market-countries**	**Total Number of Tourists***	**Market Share%***
Asia	1	India	2554170	12.00
	2	China	1481040	6.96
		Pakistan**	715947	3.36
	3	Philippines	646858	3.04
	4	Korea, Republic of	138081	0.65
	5	Kazakhstan	71161	0.33
Europe	1	United Kingdom	1485945	7.0
		Russian Federation**	1085172	5.1
	2	Germany	715452	3.4
	3	France	447678	2.1
	4	Italy	285973	1.3
	5	Netherlands	177773	0.8
North America	1	United States of America	850044	3.99
	2	Canada	201724	0.95
	3	Mexico	7441	0.03
	4	El Salvador	2119	0.01
	5	Dominica	1170	0.01
South America	1	Brazil	15823	0.07
	2	Colombia	10463	0.05
	3	Argentina	8201	0.04
	4	Venezuela	4483	0.02
	5	Chile	2852	0.01
Oceania	1	Australia	293371	1.38
	2	New Zealand	11090	0.05
	3	America Samoa	4211	0.02
	4	French Polynesia	429	0
	5	Tokelau	341	0
Africa	1	Nigeria	196418	0.9
	2	Sudan	157853	0.7
	3	South Africa	156984	0.7
	4	Morocco	73916	0.35
	5	Comoros	23236	0.11

*Source: UNWTO 2020

**no access

Appendix 2. Invitation Email to Expert Panellists

Subject: Expert Panel

Dear Dr. /Prof. …,

I am Nafiseh Rezaei, a Ph.D. candidate under the supervision of Dr. Sabrina Huang and Dr. Kam Hung, in the SHTM. I'm writing to you to kindly invite you to participate in my research as one of the expert panellists.

My research topic is about Tourist Experience in Iran as a Risky Destination by focusing on Achievement Emotions. The attached Expert Panel Evaluation Form consists of four constructs include perceived local people/tour leader support, self-efficacy, task value, and achievement emotions. Your invaluable evaluation will assist me in checking the content validity of this instrument.

It would be appreciated if you could please return the completed evaluation form on or before Tuesday, 18 August 2020, if possible. If you prefer to evaluate the hardcopy version of the instrument, please let me know.

Thanks so much for your time, support, and attention in advance! I look forward to hearing from you!

Please Stay Healthy!

Regards,

Nafis

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Appendix 3. Expert Panel Evaluation Form

THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY 香港理工大學

School of Hotel & Tourism Management 酒店及旅遊業管理學院

Instruction:

This research topic is about Tourist Experience in Iran as Risky Destination by focusing on Achievement Emotions. In the main survey, participants will be invited to answer most items in a seven-point Liker scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree. Before doing this stage, we need to check the content validity for four variables. They include perceived local people/tour leader support, self-efficacy, task value, and achievement emotions. You are kindly asked to evaluate these variables and their items as follows:

- to assess 1 to 4 variables based on your expertise;
- to assess the 'representativeness' of each statement for the construct by placing a tick, cross, or colour;
- to improve the readability of each statement;
- to provide any comments on each statement, if necessary; and
- to provide an overall comment at the end (under 'Overall Comments').

Assessment of '*Representativeness*' of the statement
1 = Not representative 2 = Somewhat representative 3 = Clearly representative

Source: Zaichkowsky (1985), Haynes et al. (1995)

T1. Perceived Local People/Tour Leader Support

	Original item in Education context	Adjusted item in the Tourism context	Representativeness			Comments
			3= Clearly representative	2= Somewhat representative	1= Not representative	
	How often do the following situations happen in your mathematics classroom?	***How often did the following situations happen on your trip?***				
1	Our teacher is interested in the learning progress of every single student.	Tour leader/local people were interested in the learning progress of every single tourist.	3	2	1	
2	The teacher supports us further when we need help.	Tour leader/local people supported us/me further when I/we needed help.	3	2	1	
3	The teacher supports us in the process of learning.	Tour leader/local people supported us/me in the process of learning.	3	2	1	
4	The teacher explains something until we understand it.	Tour leader/local people explained something until we/I understand it.	3	2	1	
5	The teacher gives us the opportunity to say what we think.	Tour leader/local people gave us/me the opportunity to say what we/I think.	3	2	1	

* This variable has been borrowed from Education field to apply in Tourism context, so the original items have been provided for your reference.

T2. Self-Efficacy

	Item	Representativeness			Comments
		3= Clearly representative	2= Somewhat representative	1= Not representative	

	Item	Representativeness			Comments
1	During my trip in Iran, I was able to successfully overcome many challenges.	3	2	1	
2	I believed I could succeed at most any endeavour to which I set my mind for my trip to Iran.	3	2	1	
3	During my trip in Iran, I was confident that I could perform effectively on many different tasks.	3	2	1	
4	In general, I thought that I could obtain outcomes that are important to me in traveling to Iran.	3	2	1	
5	When facing difficult tasks during my trip in Iran, I was certain that I will accomplish them.	3	2	1	
6	Compared to other people, I could do most tasks very well in my trip to Iran.	3	2	1	
7	I was able to achieve most of the goals that I had set for myself in traveling to Iran.	3	2	1	

* The original scale was used in volunteer tourism, but we want to use it for risky destinations.

T3. Task Value

	Original item in Education context	Adjusted item in the Tourism context	Representativeness			Comments
			3= Clearly representative	2= Somewhat representative	1= Not representative	
1	I think I will be able to use what I learn in this course in	I thought I would be able to use what I learn on this trip on other	3	2	1	

	Original item in Education context	Adjusted item in the Tourism context	Representativeness			Comments
	other courses.	trips.				
2	It is important for me to learn the course material in this class.	It was important for me to learn about the destination on this trip.	3	2	1	
3	I am very interested in the content area of this course.	I was very interested in this destination context.	3	2	1	
4	I think the course material in this class is useful for me to learn.	I thought the experience of this trip is useful for me to learn.	3	2	1	
5	I like the subject matter of this course.	I liked the destination of this trip.	3	2	1	
6	Understanding the subject matter of this course is very important to me.	Understanding about this destination was very important to me.	3	2	1	

* This variable has been borrowed from Education field to apply in Tourism context, so the original items have been provided for your reference.

T4. Achievement Emotion (1): Enjoyment

	Original item in Education context	Adjusted item in the Tourism context	Representativeness			Comments
			3= Clearly representative	2= Somewhat representative	1= Not representative	
1	I look forward to my math class. (B)	Before my trip, I looked forward to that.	3	2	1	
2	I enjoy my math class. (D)	I enjoyed my trip.	3	2	1	

	Original item in Education context	**Adjusted item in the Tourism context**	Representativeness			Comments
3	The material we deal with in mathematics is so exciting that I really enjoy my class. (D)	The destination we dealt with on this trip was so exciting that I really enjoyed my trip.	3	2	1	
4	I enjoy my class so much that I am strongly motivated to participate. (D)	I enjoyed my trip so much that I was strongly motivated to participate.	3	2	1	
5	When doing my math homework, I am in a good mood. (D)	When making my trip, I was in a good mood.	3	2	1	
6	I am happy that I understand the material. (D)	I was happy that I understood about this destination.	3	2	1	
7	Because I look forward to getting a good grade, I study hard for the test. (B)	Because I looked forward to getting a good trip, I prepared hard for that.	3	2	1	
8	I think that things are going great. (D)	During my trip, I thought that things were going great.	3	2	1	

(B: before, D: during, A: after)

* This variable has been borrowed from Education field to apply in Tourism context, so the original items have been provided for your reference.

T5. Achievement Emotion (2): Pride

	Original item in Education context	**Adjusted item in the Tourism context**	Representativeness			Comments
			3= Clearly representative	2= Somewhat representative	1= Not representative	
1	I think I can be proud of my knowledge in mathematics.	I think I can be proud of my	3	2	1	

	Original item in Education context	**Adjusted item in the Tourism context**	Representativeness			Comments
	(A)	knowledge about this destination.				
2	I am proud of my contributions to the math class. (A)	I am proud of my contributions to this trip.	3	2	1	
3	I am very motivated because I want to be proud of my achievements in mathematics. (D)	During my trip, I was very motivated because I wanted to be proud of my achievements in this trip.	3	2	1	
4	After a math test, I am proud of myself. (A)	After my trip, I am proud of myself.	3	2	1	
5	I am proud of how well I have done on the math test. (A)	I am proud of how well I have done on my trip.	3	2	1	

(B: before, D: during, A: after)

* This variable has been borrowed from Education field to apply in Tourism context, so the original items have been provided for your reference.

T6. Achievement Emotion (3): Anger

	Original item in Education context	**Adjusted item in the Tourism context**	Representativeness			Comments
			3= Clearly representative	2= Somewhat representative	1= Not representative	
1	I am annoyed during my math class. (D)	I was annoyed during my trip.	3	2	1	
2	I am so angry during my math class that I would like to leave. (D)	I was so angry during my trip that I would like to leave.	3	2	1	
3	I get angry because the material in mathematics is so	I got angry because this	3	2	1	

	Original item in Education context	**Adjusted item in the Tourism context**	Representativeness			Comments
	difficult. (D)	destination was so difficult.				
4	I get irritated by my math class. (D)	I got irritated by my trip.	3	2	1	
5	My mathematics homework makes me angry. (D)	My trip made me angry.	3	2	1	
6	I get angry because my math homework occupies so much of my time. (D)	I got angry because my trip occupied so much of my time.	3	2	1	
7	I am so angry that I would like to throw my homework into the thrash. (D)	During my trip, I was so angry that I would like to throw my ticket into the trash.	3	2	1	
8	I am annoyed that the teacher asks such difficult questions. (D)	During my trip, I was annoyed that the local people/tour leader asked such difficult questions.	3	2	1	

(B: before, D: during, A: after)

* This variable has been borrowed from Education field to apply in Tourism context, so the original items have been provided for your reference.

T7. Achievement Emotion (4): Anxiety

	Original item in Education context	**Adjusted item in the Tourism context**	Representativeness			Comments
			3= Clearly representative	2= Somewhat representative	1= Not representative	
1	When thinking about my mathematics class, I get nervous. (B)	Before my trip, when I was thinking about that, I got nervous.	3	2	1	

	Original item in Education context	**Adjusted item in the Tourism context**	Representativeness			Comments
2	I worry if the material is much too difficult for me. (D)	During my trip, I worried if it would be much too difficult for me.	3	2	1	
3	When thinking of my math class, I get queasy. (B)	Before my trip, when I was thinking of that, I got queasy.	3	2	1	
4	Math scares me so much that I would rather not attend school. (B)	This trip scared me so much that I would rather not attend it.	3	2	1	
5	I worry whether I will ever be able to completely understand the material. (D)	During my trip, I worried whether I will ever be able to completely understand this destination.	3	2	1	
6	I start sweating because I am worried I cannot complete my assignments in time. (D)	During my trip, I started sweating because I was worried I could not complete my trip in time.	3	2	1	
7	I am tense and nervous. (D)	During my trip, I was tense and nervous.	3	2	1	
8	When taking the math test, I worry I will get a bad grade. (D)	When taking this trip, I worried I would get a bad experience.	3	2	1	
9	I am very nervous. (B)	Before my trip, I was very nervous.	3	2	1	
10	Even before I take the math test I worry I could fail. (B)	Even before I took this trip, I worried I could have a bad experience.	3	2	1	
11	I am so anxious that I would rather not take the math test. (B)	Before my trip, I was so anxious that I would rather not take it.	3	2	1	

	Original item in Education context	Adjusted item in the Tourism context	Representativeness			Comments
12	When I have an upcoming math test, I get sick to my stomach. (B)	When I have an upcoming trip, I get sick to my stomach.	3	2	1	
13	I am so anxious that I can't fully concentrate. (D)	During my trip, I was so anxious that I couldn't fully concentrate.	3	2	1	

(B: before, D: during, A: after)

* This variable has been borrowed from Education field to apply in Tourism context, so the original items have been provided for your reference.

T8. Achievement Emotion (5): Shame

	Original item in Education context	Adjusted item in the Tourism context	Representativeness			Comments
			3= Clearly representative	2= Somewhat representative	1= Not representative	
1	When I say something in my math class, I can tell that my face gets red. (D)	When I said something on my trip, I can tell that my face got red.	3	2	1	
2	I am ashamed that I cannot answer my math teacher's questions well. (D)	During my trip, I was ashamed that I couldn't answer my tour leader' s/local people's questions well.	3	2	1	
3	When I say something in my math class, I feel like embarrassing myself. (D)	When I said something on my trip, I felt like embarrassing myself.	3	2	1	
4	I am embarrassed about my lack of knowledge in mathematics. (A)	I am embarrassed about my lack of knowledge about this destination.	3	2	1	
5	When I don't understand something in my math homework, I don't want to	During my trip, when I didn't understand something about the destination, I didn't want to tell	3	2	1	

	Original item in Education context	Adjusted item in the Tourism context	Representativeness			Comments
	tell anybody. (D)	anybody.				
6	When I discuss the homework assignments with my classmates, I avoid eye contact. (D)	During my trip, when I discussed the destination with my travel companions, I avoided eye contact.	3	2	1	
7	After taking a test in mathematics, I feel ashamed. (A)	After taking this trip, I feel ashamed.	3	2	1	
8	I start sweating because my performance on the math exam embarrasses me. (D)	During my trip, I started sweating because of my performance at the destination embarrassed me.	3	2	1	

(B: before, D: during, A: after)

* This variable has been borrowed from Education field to apply in Tourism context, so the original items have been provided for your reference.

T9. Achievement Emotion (6): Hopelessness

	Original item in Education context	Adjusted item in the Tourism context	Representativeness			Comments
			3= Clearly representative	2= Somewhat representative	1= Not representative	
1	I feel down. (B)	Before my trip, I felt down.	3	2	1	
2	During the math test, I feel hopeless. (D)	During my trip, I felt hopeless.	3	2	1	
3	I keep thinking that I don't understand the material. (B)	During my trip, I kept thinking that I wouldn't understand this destination.	3	2	1	
4	I keep thinking that I will never get good grades in	Before my trip, I kept thinking that I will never get a good experience	3	2	1	

	Original item in Education context	Adjusted item in the Tourism context	Representativeness			Comments
	mathematics. (B)	on this trip.				
5	I would prefer to give up. (D)	During my trip, I would prefer to give up.	3	2	1	
6	I have no energy. (D)	During my trip, I had no energy.	3	2	1	

(B: before, D: during, A: after)

* This variable has been borrowed from Education field to apply in Tourism context, so the original items have been provided for your reference.

T10. Achievement Emotion (7): Boredom

	Original item in Education context	Adjusted item in the Tourism context	Representativeness			Comments
			3= Clearly representative	2= Somewhat representative	1= Not representative	
1	I think the mathematics class is boring. (D)	During my trip, I thought this destination is boring.	3	2	1	
2	I can't concentrate because I am so bored. (D)	During my trip, I couldn't concentrate because I was so bored.	3	2	1	
3	I am so bored that I can't stay awake. (D)	During my trip, I was so bored that I couldn't stay awake.	3	2	1	
4	Just thinking of my math homework assignments makes me feel bored. (B)	Before my trip, just thinking of that made me feel bored.	3	2	1	
5	My math homework bores me to death. (D)	My trip bored me to death.	3	2	1	

	Original item in Education context	**Adjusted item in the Tourism context**	Representativeness			Comments
6	I'm so bored that I don't feel like studying anymore. (D)	During my trip, I was so bored that I didn't feel like staying anymore.	3	2	1	

(B: before, D: during, A: after)

* This variable has been borrowed from Education field to apply in Tourism context, so the original items have been provided for your reference.

Overall Comments:

Thank you so much for your time and attention!

Appendix 4. Initial Results of Expert Panellists Evaluation

Constructs and Statements		Representativeness
C1	**Perceived Local People/Tour Leader Support**	
C1.S2	Tour leader/local people supported us/me further when I/we needed help.	2.933
C1.S4	Tour leader/local people explained something until we/I understand it.	2.733
C1.S5	Tour leader/local people gave us/me the opportunity to say what we/I think.	2.563
C1.S3	Tour leader/local people supported us/me in the process of learning.	2.250
C1.S1	Tour leader/local people were interested in the learning progress of every single tourist.	2.067
C2	**Self-Efficacy**	
C2.S1	During my trip in Iran, I was able to successfully overcome many challenges.	2.933
C2.S7	I was able to achieve most of the goals that I had set for myself in traveling to Iran.	2.875
C2.S3	During my trip in Iran, I was confident that I could perform effectively on many different tasks.	2.750
C2.S5	When facing difficult tasks during my trip in Iran, I was certain that I will accomplish them.	2.706
C2.S4	In general, I thought that I could obtain outcomes that are important to me in traveling to Iran.	2.647
C2.S6	Compared to other people, I could do most tasks very well in my trip to Iran.	2.563
C2.S2	I believed I could succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind for my trip to Iran.	2.529
C3	**Task Value**	
C3.S1	I thought I would be able to use what I learn on this trip on other trips.	2.882
C3.S2	It was important for me to learn about the destination on this trip.	2.824
C3.S4	I thought the experience of this trip is useful for me to learn.	2.765
C3.S6	Understanding about this destination was very important to me.	2.765
C3.S3	I was very interested in this destination context.	2.529
C3.S5	I liked the destination of this trip.	2.412
C4	**Achievement Emotion (1): Enjoyment**	
C4.S2	I enjoyed my trip.	3.000
C4.S3	The destination we dealt with on this trip was so exciting that I really enjoyed my trip.	2.882
C4.S8	During my trip, I thought that things were going great.	2.875
C4.S6	I was happy that I understood about this destination.	2.750
C4.S5	When making my trip, I was in a good mood.	2.688
C4.S4	I enjoyed my trip so much that I was strongly motivated to participate.	2.647
C4.S7	Because I looked forward to getting a good trip, I prepared hard for that.	2.294
C5	**Achievement Emotion (2): Pride**	
C5.S1	I think I can be proud of my knowledge about this destination.	2.824
C5.S4	After my trip, I am proud of myself.	2.765
C5.S5	I am proud of how well I have done on my trip.	2.588
C5.S3	During my trip, I was very motivated because I wanted to be proud of my achievements in this trip.	2.412
C5.S2	I am proud of my contributions to this trip.	2.250
C6	**Achievement Emotion (3): Anger**	
C6.S2	I was so angry during my trip that I would like to leave.	2.857
C6.S1	I was annoyed during my trip.	2.800
C6.S3	I got angry because this destination was so difficult.	2.714
C6.S4	I got irritated by my trip.	2.533
C6.S8	During my trip, I was annoyed that the local people/tour leader asked such difficult questions.	2.438
C6.S5	My trip made me angry.	2.429
C6.S7	During my trip, I was so angry that I would like to throw my ticket into the trash.	2.286

C6.S6	I got angry because my trip occupied so much of my time.	2.200
C7	**Achievement Emotion (4): Anxiety**	
C7.S7	During my trip, I was tense and nervous.	2.929
C7.S8	When taking this trip, I worried I would get a bad experience.	2.786
C7.S2	During my trip, I worried if it would be much too difficult for me.	2.714
C7.S4	This trip scared me so much that I would rather not attend it.	2.462
C7.S13	During my trip, I was so anxious that I couldn't fully concentrate.	2.286
C7.S5	During my trip, I worried whether I will ever be able to completely understand this destination.	2.214
C7.S12	When I have an upcoming trip, I get sick to my stomach.	2.143
C7.S6	During my trip, I started sweating because I was worried I could not complete my trip in time.	1.857
C8	**Achievement Emotion (5): Shame**	
C8.S4	I am embarrassed about my lack of knowledge about this destination.	2.667
C8.S5	During my trip, when I didn't understand something about the destination, I didn't want to tell anybody.	2.625
C8.S3	When I said something on my trip, I felt like embarrassing myself.	2.600
C8.S7	After taking this trip, I feel ashamed.	2.429
C8.S6	During my trip, when I discussed the destination with my travel companions, I avoided eye contact.	2.333
C8.S2	During my trip, I was ashamed that I couldn't answer my tour leader' s/local people's questions well.	2.214
C8.S8	During my trip, I started sweating because of my performance at the destination embarrassed me.	2.071
C8.S1	When I said something on my trip, I can tell that my face got red.	2.000
C9	**Achievement Emotion (6): Hopelessness**	
C9.S2	During my trip, I felt hopeless.	2.533
C9.S5	During my trip, I would prefer to give up.	2.533
C9.S6	During my trip, I had no energy.	2.533
C9.S3	During my trip, I kept thinking that I wouldn't understand this destination.	2.267
C10	**Achievement Emotion (7): Boredom**	
C10.S5	My trip bored me to death.	2.786
C10.S6	During my trip, I was so bored that I didn't feel like staying anymore.	2.786
C10.S1	During my trip, I thought this destination is boring.	2.733
C10.S2	During my trip, I couldn't concentrate because I was so bored.	2.533
C10.S3	During my trip, I was so bored that I couldn't stay awake.	2.357

Appendix 5. Amendments of Items Based on Panellists' Comments

Separation of "Local people" and "Tour leader" in PLTS variable

	Initial Items in the Evaluation Form	Modified Items Based on Panellists' Comments	
C1	**PLTS**	**PTS**	**PLS**
C1.S2	Tour leader/local people supported us/me further when I/we needed help.	The Tour leader **offered** me further **assistance** when I needed help.	Local people **offered** me further **assistance** when I needed help.
C1.S4	Tour leader/local people explained something until we/I understand it.	The Tour leader explained something **about Iran** until I understand it.	Local people explained something **about Iran** until I understand it.
C1.S5	Tour leader/local people gave us/me the opportunity to say what we/I think.	The Tour leader gave me the opportunity to say what I think.	Local people gave me the opportunity to say what I think.
C1.S3	Tour leader/local people supported us/me in the process of learning.	The Tour leader supported me **to** learn **more about Iran**.	Local people supported me **to** learn **more about Iran**.

Modification of SE and TV variables

	Initial Items in the Evaluation Form	Modified Items Based on Panellists' Comments
C2	**Self-Efficacy**	**Self-Efficacy**
C2.S1	During my trip in this destination, I was able to successfully overcome many challenges.	During my trip in this destination, I was able to overcome many challenges successfully.
C2.S7	I was able to achieve most of the goals that I had set for myself in traveling to this destination.	I was able to achieve most of the goals that I had set for myself in travelling **in** this destination.
C2.S3	During my trip in this destination, I was confident that I could perform effectively on many different tasks.	During my trip in this destination, I was confident that I could **do** many different **activities** effectively.
C2.S5	When facing difficult tasks during my trip in Iran, I was certain that I will accomplish them.	When facing difficult **situations** during my trip in Iran, I was certain that I will **resolve** them.
C3	**Task Value**	**Task Value**
C3.S1	I thought I would be able to use what I learn on this trip on other trips.	I thought I **will** be able to use what I **learned** on this trip on other trips.
C3.S2	It was important for me to learn about the destination on this trip.	It was important for me to learn about the destination **of this destination** on this trip.
C3.S4	I thought the experience of this trip is useful for me to learn.	I thought the experience of this trip is useful for me to learn.
C3.S6	Understanding about this destination was very important to me.	Understanding about this destination was very important to me.

Modification of Achievement Emotions Items

	Initial Items in the Evaluation Form	Modified Items Based on Panellists' Comments
C4	**Enjoyment Achievement**	**Enjoyment Achievement**
C4.S2	I enjoyed my trip.	I enjoyed my trip **in this country**.
C4.S3	The destination we dealt with on this trip was so exciting that I really enjoyed my trip.	**Iran as a destination** on this trip was so exciting that I really enjoyed my trip.
C4.S8	During my trip, I thought that things were going great.	During my trip, I thought that things were going great.
C4.S6	I was happy that I understood about this destination.	**During my trip,** I was happy that I **gained knowledge** about **this country**.
C5	**Pride Achievement**	**Pride Achievement**
C5.S1	I think I can be proud of my knowledge about this destination.	I think I can be proud of my knowledge about **this country.**
C5.S4	After my trip, I am proud of myself.	After my trip, I am proud of myself.
C5.S5	I am proud of how well I have done on my trip.	I am proud of how well I have done on my trip.
C5.S3	During my trip, I was very motivated because I wanted to be proud of my achievements in this trip.	I was very motivated **during my trip** because I wanted to be proud of my achievements **on** this trip.
C6	**Anger Achievement**	**Anger Achievement**
C6.S2	I was so angry during my trip that I would like to leave.	I was so **upset** during my trip that I would like to leave.
C6.S1	I was annoyed during my trip.	I was **often** annoyed during my trip.
C6.S3	I got angry because this destination was so difficult.	**During my trip,** I got angry because **everything in this destination** was so difficult **to understand.**
C6.S4	I got irritated by my trip.	**During my trip in this destination,** I got irritated by my **experience there**.
C7	**Anxiety Achievement**	**Anxiety Achievement**
C7.S7	During my trip, I was tense and nervous.	During my trip, I was **either** tense **or** nervous.
C7.S2	During my trip, I worried if this trip would be much too difficult for me.	During my trip, I worried if this trip would be much too difficult for me.
C7.S8	When taking this trip, I worried I would get a bad experience.	**During my trip**, I worried I **will have** a bad experience.
C7.S13	During my trip, I was so anxious that I couldn't fully concentrate.	During my trip, I was so anxious that I couldn't fully concentrate.

C8	**Shame Achievement**	**Shame Achievement**
C8.S4	I am embarrassed about my lack of knowledge about this destination.	I am embarrassed about my lack of knowledge about **this country.**
C8.S5	During my trip, when I didn't understand something about the destination, I didn't want to tell anybody.	During my trip, when I didn't understand something about the destination, I didn't want to tell anybody.
C8.S3	When I said something on my trip, I felt like embarrassing myself.	When I said something on my trip, I felt like **I was** embarrassing myself.
C8.S7	After taking this trip, I feel ashamed.	I feel ashamed **of travelling to this country**.
C9	**Hopelessness Achievement**	**Hopelessness Achievement**
C9.S3	During my trip, I kept thinking that I wouldn't understand this destination.	During my trip, I kept thinking that I wouldn't understand this destination.
C9.S2	During my trip, I felt hopeless.	During my trip, I felt hopeless.
C9.S5	During my trip, I would prefer to give up.	During my trip, I would prefer to give up.
C9.S6	During my trip, I had no energy.	During my trip, I had no energy.
C10	**Boredom Achievement**	**Boredom Achievement**
C10.S5	My trip bored me to death.	My trip bored me to death.
C10.S6	During my trip, I was so bored that I didn't feel like staying anymore.	During my trip, I was so bored that I didn't feel like staying **in this destination** anymore.
C10.S1	During my trip, I thought this destination is boring.	During my trip, I thought this destination is boring.
C10.S2	During my trip, I couldn't concentrate because I was so bored.	During my trip, I couldn't concentrate because I was so bored.

Appendix 6. Modified Questionnaire Based on Expert Panellists' Evaluation and Comments for Pilot-test

Introduction

Thank you very much for agreeing to participate in this study. This is part of a doctoral dissertation entitled as "No Risk, No Gain? Socio-Psychology of Tourists Experience in Risky Destinations" conducted under the School of Hotel & Tourism Management, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University authorization with application number HSEARS20200914004. Please feel free to contact us in case of any problems:

Ms. Nafiseh Rezaei, Ph.D. Candidate, Email: nafiseh.rezaei@
Dr. Sabrina Huang, Associate Professor, Email: sabrina.huang@

It will take less than 20 minutes to complete this questionnaire. In this survey, there is no right or wrong response – only your opinions count. The answers you give for this study will only be used for academic purposes and remain anonymous and strictly confidential. Involvement in completing this questionnaire is voluntary. You are free to decide not to answer if you feel uncomfortable.

Your participation is invaluable and highly appreciated.

Do you consent to these terms?

Yes ☐ No ☐

Screening Questions:

1- What is your nationality? Australia ☐ United Kingdom ☐ United States of America ☐ Other ☐

2- Have you travelled to the Middle East region before? A. Yes ☐ B. No ☐

3- Which countries have you visited in the past 5 years? (you can select several options)

Bahrain ☐ Cyprus ☐ Egypt ☐ Iran ☐ Jordan ☐ Kuwait ☐ Iraq ☐ Lebanon ☐
Oman (Muscat) ☐ Palestine ☐ Qatar (Doha) ☐ Saudi Arabia ☐ Israel ☐ Syria ☐
Turkey ☐ Yemen ☐ The United Arab Emirates (UAE, Dubai) ☐ None ☐

4- Do you have any of these Middle Eastern countries' passports or right of abode there? A. Yes ☐ B. No ☐

5- Have you ever lived in any of these Middle Eastern countries for more than 6 months? A. Yes ☐ B. No ☐

Monitoring Question.

As this survey is about your experience in **one** of the Middle Eastern destinations, please kindly first indicate what is **the most recent country** which you have visited and **had at least one overnight stay** there, and you **will respond to the rest this survey based on your experience there**? (You should only select one country in the list.)

Egypt ☐ Iran ☐ Israel ☐ Jordan ☐ Kuwait ☐ Lebanon ☐ Oman ☐ Qatar (Doha) ☐
Saudi Arabia ☐ The United Arab Emirates (UAE, Dubai) ☐

Section 1.

Please respond to the following question:

Question	Answer				
1. How many times have you travelled to this country?	1. once	2. 2 - 4 times	3. 5 – 7 times	4. 8 – 10 times	5. more than 10 times

In this section, we want to help you to remember your memories in your latest travel in this country. So, please respond to the following questions:

Questions	Answer
About my trip to the aforementioned country …	
2. travel **date**?	*Please select in drill down for month/year (Jan-Dec / 2015-2020)*

3. **purpose** of my trip?	1. Leisure	2. Business	3. Visiting Friends/Relatives	
	4. Education	5. Pilgrimage	6. Health	7. Others
4. my travel **companions**?	1. Alone	2. spouse/partner	3. family with kids	4. family without kids
	5. friends	6. in a group tour	7. other	
5. **number** of travel companions?	1. 1 person	2. 2-3 persons	3. 4-6 persons	4. more than 7 persons
6. **length** of stay?	1. 1-3 nights	2. 4-7 nights	3. 8-15 nights	4. 16-30 nights
	5. 31-60 nights	6. more than 61 nights		
7. type of **accommodation**?	1. Hotel	2. Airbnb	3. Couch-surfing	4. Relatives/Friend's house
	5. Camping/Backpacking	6. Traditional hotel*	7. other	

*Traditional hotels: the old, traditional houses which have been renovated and used as a hotel.

Section 2.

The following statements describe your *perceived degree of risk* about this country before actually traveling there. Please indicate the extent to which you perceived each statement by marking one of the seven spaces on each row.

Perceived Degree of Risk		**Degree of risk**						
		Very safe	Safe	Somewhat safe	Neither safe or risky	Somewhat risky	Risky	Very risky
1	Considering your experience in this country, how would you rate it in terms of risk?	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	To what extent did your friends or relatives see this country as a risky place to visit?	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

The following statements describe your *Overall Perceived Risk* of this country before actually traveling there. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement. (please mark one of the seven spaces on each row)

Overall Perceived Risk		**Level of agreement**						
		Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree or disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
3	This country is a safe country for tourists.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	I thought that my family/friends would worry about my safety while I was in this country.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	Prior to my trip, I viewed this country as more dangerous than other places around the world.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

The following statements describe your *different types of Perceived Risk* about this country before actually traveling there. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement. (please mark one of the seven spaces on each row)

Before traveling to this country, I was concerned …		**Level of agreement**						
		Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree or disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
6	about food safety problems in this country.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	that there might be epidemic diseases in this country.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	about natural disasters in this country, such as earthquakes, floods, and storms.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	about getting injured in a car accident in this country.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
	Please select number 4 in the scale.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	about crime (theft, robbery, pickpockets) in this country.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	about terrorism in this country.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12	about being exposed to danger due to political unrest in this country.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	that my behavior would not be well received by some local people (including the way I customarily dress).	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14	that I would not receive good value for my money.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
15	that the trip to this country would involve unexpected extra expenses (such as changes in exchange rates or extra costs in hotels).	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
16	that the trip to this country would be more expensive than other international trips.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
17	that the trip to this country would involve more incidental expenses than I had anticipated, such as clothing, maps, sports equipment, and babysitters.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
18	that the trip to this country would have an impact on my financial situation.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Before traveling to this country, I was concerned …		Level of agreement						
19	that the weather would be uncomfortable.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
20	that the hotels in this country would be unsatisfactory.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
21	that sites would be too crowded.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
	Please select number 2 in the scale	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
22	that the food in this country would not be good.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
23	about possible strikes (airport, railway station, buses) in this country.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
24	that the tourist facilities available to the public in this country would not be acceptable.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
25	that the local people would not be friendly.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
26	that hospitality employees in this country would not be courteous to international tourists.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
27	that a trip to this country would not be compatible with my self-image.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
28	that my trip to this country would change the way, my friends think of me.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
29	that I would not receive personal satisfaction from the trip to this country.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
30	that my trip to this country would change the way, my family thinks of me.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
31	that my trip to this country would not match my status in life (social class).	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
32	that the trip to this country would be a waste of time.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
33	that my trip would waste my valuable vacation time.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
34	that planning and preparing for the trip would take too much time.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

*****Before responding to the next question, please tell us that "How did you travel in this country?"*

1- in a group tour ☐ *2. independent traveler, experienced a local tour guide* ☐ *3- independent traveler, not experienced a local tour guide* ☐

Section 3.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement (please mark one of the seven spaces on each row).

During my trip in this country …		Level of agreement						
		Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree or disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Local people offered me further assistance when I needed help.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Local people explained something about this country until I understand it.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	Local people gave me the opportunity to say what I think.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	Local people supported me to learn more about this country.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

During my trip in this country …		Level of agreement						
		Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree or disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Tour leader offered me further assistance when I needed help.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Tour leader explained something about this country until I understand it.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	Tour leader gave me the opportunity to say what I think.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	Tour leader supported me to learn more about this country.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

I think …		Level of agreement						
		Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree or disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	During my trip in this country, I was able to successfully overcome many challenges.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	I was able to achieve most of the goals that I had set for myself in traveling in this country.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	During my trip in this country, I was confident that I could do many different activities effectively.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	When facing difficult situations during my trip in this	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

		Level of agreement						
	country, I was certain that I will resolve them.							

	On my trip in this country …	Level of agreement						
		Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree or disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	I thought I will be able to use what I learned on this trip on other trips.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	It was important for me to learn about this country on this trip.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	I thought the experience of this trip is useful for me to learn.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	Understanding this destination was very important to me.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Section 4.

This section is about how you felt **during** and/or **after** your trip in the selected country. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by marking one of the seven spaces on each row.

	During my trip in this country …	Level of agreement						
		Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree or disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	I enjoyed my trip in this country.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	During my trip, I couldn't concentrate because I was so bored.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	During my trip, I worried if this trip would be much too difficult for me.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	This country as a destination on this trip was so exciting that I really enjoyed my trip.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	I was often annoyed during my trip.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	During my trip, I thought this destination is boring.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	*Please select number 6 in the scale.*	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	I was so angry during my trip that I would like to leave.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	During my trip, I got angry because everything in this country was so difficult to understand.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	When I said something on my trip, I felt like I was embarrassing myself.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	During my trip in this country, I got irritated by my experience there.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12	During my trip, I was so bored that I didn't feel like staying in this country anymore.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	During my trip, I was either tense or nervous.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14	During my trip, I was happy that I gained knowledge about this country.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
15	My trip bored me to death.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
16	During my trip, I was very motivated because I wanted to be proud of my achievements on this trip.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
17	*Please select number 3 in the scale.*	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
18	During my trip, when I didn't understand something about the destination, I didn't want to tell anybody.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
19	During my trip, I felt hopeless.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
20	During my trip, I kept thinking that I wouldn't understand this destination.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
21	During my trip, I was so anxious that I couldn't fully concentrate.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
22	During my trip, I would prefer to give up.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
23	During my trip, I thought that things were going great.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
24	During my trip, I worried I would have a bad experience.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
25	During my trip, I had no energy.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

	After my trip to this country …	Level of agreement						
		Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree or disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
26	I think I can be proud of my knowledge about this country.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
27	After my trip, I am proud of myself.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

		Level of agreement						
28	I am embarrassed about my lack of knowledge about this country.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
29	I am proud of how well I have done on my trip.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
30	I feel ashamed of traveling to this country.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

In general …	Level of agreement						
	Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree or disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I consider my travel to this country as an achievement for myself.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Section 5.

The following statements describe the memorability of <u>your travel experience in your selected country</u>. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement. (please mark one of the seven spaces on each row)

	When I think about my trip in this country …	Level of agreement						
		Strongly agree	Agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree or disagree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	I was thrilled about having a new experience there.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	I indulged in activities.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	I really enjoyed the trip.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	I had an exciting trip.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	I had a once-in-a-lifetime experience.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	I had a unique experience.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	My trip was different from previous trips.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
	Please select number 2 in the scale.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	I experienced something new.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	I had a good impression of the local culture.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	I had a chance to experience the local culture closely.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	The locals in this country were friendly to me.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12	I relieved stress during the trip.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	I felt free from my daily routine during the trip.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14	I had a refreshing experience.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
15	I felt better after the trip.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
16	I felt that I did something meaningful.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
17	I felt that I did something important.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
	Please select number 5 in the scale.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
18	I learned something about myself from the trip.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
19	I visited a place that I really wanted to visit.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
20	I enjoyed the activities that I really wanted to do.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
21	I was interested in the main activities offered.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
22	I gained a lot of information during the trip.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
23	I gained a new skill (s) from the trip.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
24	I experienced new culture (s).	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Section 6.

Please indicate the appropriate answer to the following questions.

Question		**Answer**
Have you visited any of these countries in your entire life? (you can select multiple options)	1-Bahrain 2-Cyprus 3-Iraq 4-Palestine 5-Syria 6-Turkey 7-Yemen 8- Egypt 9- Iran 10- Israel 11- Jordan 12-Kuwait 13-Lebanon	1. No, I've never been there in my entire life. 2. Yes, I've been there **once**. 3. Yes, I've been there **2 - 4 times**. 4. Yes, I've been there **5 - 7 times**. 5. Yes, I've been there **8 - 10 times**.

	14-Oman (Muscat)	6. Yes, I've been there **more than 10 times**.
	15-Qatar (Doha)	
	16-Saudi Arabia	
	17-United Arab Emirates (UAE, Dubai)	
	18-other? (Please write any other visited destinations that you perceived as risky destinations)	

Section 7.

Please tell us about yourself by marking in the appropriate box.

Question	Answer							
1- Age	1. 18-29 years	2. 30-39 years	3. 40-49 years	4. 50-59 years	5. more than 60 years			
2- Gender	1. female	2. male	3. transgender	4. other				
3- Education	1.High school or below	2.Some College/ associate degree	3. Bachelor degree	4.Postgraduate degree	5. Other			
4- Marital Status	1. Single	2. Married	3.Divorced	4. Widowed	5. Other			
5- Occupation	1. Skilled worker	2. Service worker	3. Clerical worker	4. Self-employed	5. Teacher/ professor	6. Student	7. Civil servant	8. Housework
	9. Retired	10. Others						
6- Annual Household Income (USD)	1. less than $15,000	2. $15,000 – $24,999	3. $25,000 - $49,999	4. $50,000 – $74,999	5. $75,000 – $99,999	6. $100,000 - $124,999	7.$125,000 – 149,999	8. more than $150,000
6- GBP (for UK)	1. less than £11,000	2. £11,000 – £18,499	3. £18,500 – £36,999	4. £37,000 – £55,499	5. £55,500 – £74,499	6. £74,500 – £92,999	7. £93,000 – £111,499	8. more than £111,500
6- AUD (for Australia)	1.less than AU$19,500	2. AU$19,500 – AU$32,999	3. AU$33,000 – AU$65,999	4. AU$66,000 – AU$98,999	5. AU$99,000 – AU$131,999	6. AU$132,000 – AU$164,999	7. AU$165,000 – AU$198,499	8. more than AU$198,500

We appreciate your kind help!

Appendix 7. Descriptive Statistics of the Main Constructs in Pilot-test Step

Construct	Indicator	Min	Max	Mean	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis
Destination Perceived Risk (DPR)	To what extent did your friends or relatives see this country as a risky place to visit?	1	7	5.024	1.623	-0.636	-0.350
	I thought that my family/friends would worry about my safety while I was in this country.	1	7	3.976	1.821	0.012	-1.186
	Prior to my trip, I viewed this country as more dangerous than other places around the world.	1	7	3.024	1.569	0.755	-0.156
	I was concerned about food safety problems in this country.	1	7	3.193	1.707	0.460	-0.944
	I was concerned that there might be epidemic diseases in this country.	1	7	2.699	1.359	0.956	1.068
	I was concerned about natural disasters in this country, such as earthquakes, floods, and storms.	1	7	2.337	1.290	1.399	2.579
	I was concerned about getting injured in a car accident in this country.	1	7	2.373	1.256	1.107	1.547
	I was concerned about crime (theft, robbery, pickpockets) in this country.	1	7	3.205	1.709	0.318	-1.018
	I was concerned about terrorism in this country.	1	7	3.699	1.723	0.057	-0.842
	I was concerned about being exposed to danger due to political unrest in this country.	1	7	3.386	1.752	0.405	-0.844
	I was concerned that my behaviour would not be well received by some local people (including the way I customarily dress).	1	7	3.518	1.692	0.409	-0.653
	I was concerned that I would not receive good value for my money.	1	7	3.096	1.322	0.436	-0.133
	I was concerned that the trip to this country would involve unexpected extra expenses (such as changes in exchange rates or extra costs in hotels).	1	7	3.241	1.535	0.225	-0.825
	I was concerned that the trip to this country would be more expensive than other international trips.	1	7	3.542	1.684	0.239	-0.821
	I was concerned that the trip to this country would involve more incidental expenses than I had anticipated, such as clothing, maps, sports equipment, and babysitters.	1	7	2.855	1.491	0.706	0.152
	I was concerned that the trip to this country would have an impact on my financial situation.	1	7	2.723	1.408	0.698	-0.022
	I was concerned that the weather would be uncomfortable.	1	7	3.530	1.588	0.272	-0.579
	I was concerned that the hotels in this country would be unsatisfactory.	1	7	2.759	1.453	0.946	0.468

	I was concerned that the sites would be too crowded.	1	7	3.277	1.509	0.386	-0.466
	I was concerned that the food in this country would not be good.	1	7	2.916	1.532	0.312	-0.942
	I was concerned about possible strikes (airport, railway station, buses) in this country.	1	7	2.747	1.395	0.660	-0.052
	I was concerned that the tourist facilities available to the public in this country would not be acceptable.	1	7	2.795	1.386	0.603	-0.003
	I was concerned that the local people would not be friendly.	1	7	2.952	1.422	0.400	-0.297
	I was concerned that hospitality employees in this country would not be courteous to international tourists.	1	7	2.554	1.318	1.140	1.885
	I was concerned that a trip to this country would not be compatible with my self-image.	1	7	2.470	1.434	1.002	0.443
	I was concerned that my trip to this country would change the way my friends think of me.	1	7	2.157	1.392	1.268	1.125
	I was concerned that I would not receive personal satisfaction from the trip to this country.	1	7	2.434	1.271	0.810	0.536
	I was concerned that my trip to this country would change the way my family thinks of me.	1	7	2.012	1.215	1.524	2.687
	I was concerned that my trip to this country would not match my status in life (social class).	1	6	2.000	1.269	1.468	1.809
	I was concerned that the trip to this country would be a waste of time.	1	7	2.036	1.283	1.530	2.301
	I was concerned that my trip would waste my valuable vacation time.	1	7	1.928	1.197	1.671	3.326
	I was concerned that planning and preparing for the trip would take too much time.	1	7	2.193	1.329	1.264	1.493
Local People/Tour leader support (PLTS)	Local people offered me further assistance when I needed help.	1	7	5.289	1.302	-0.796	0.657
	Local people explained something about this country until I understand it.	1	7	5.120	1.292	-0.404	0.072
	Local people gave me the opportunity to say what I think.	1	7	5.096	1.206	-0.531	0.599
	Local people supported me to learn more about this country.	1	7	5.301	1.395	-0.476	-0.199
	The Tour leader offered me further assistance when I needed help.	3	7	5.867	1.179	-0.774	-0.268
	The Tour leader explained something about this country until I understand it.	4	7	5.978	1.138	-0.633	-1.082
	The Tour leader gave me the opportunity to say what I think.	4	7	5.911	1.041	-0.575	-0.816
	The tour leader supported me to learn more about this country.	4	7	5.800	1.140	-0.358	-1.315

Self-efficacy (S.E.)	During my trip in this country, I was able to successfully overcome many challenges.	2	7	4.964	1.152	0.366	-0.474
	I was able to achieve most of the goals that I had set for myself in travelling in this country.	2	7	5.566	1.171	-0.491	-0.201
	During my trip in this country, I was confident that I could do many different activities effectively.	2	7	5.651	1.163	-0.662	0.032
	When facing difficult situations during my trip in this country, I was certain that I will resolve them.	2	7	5.349	1.163	-0.244	-0.461
Task Value (T.V.)	I thought I will be able to use what I learned on this trip on other trips.	3	7	5.410	1.116	-0.172	-0.824
	It was important for me to learn about this country on this trip.	3	7	5.771	1.086	-0.524	-0.759
	I thought the experience of this trip is useful for me to learn.	4	7	5.759	1.007	-0.302	-0.984
	Understanding this destination was very important to me.	2	7	5.699	1.134	-0.612	0.066
Achievement Emotions (AE)	I enjoyed my trip in this country.	1	7	6.181	1.072	-1.891	5.554
	During my trip, I couldn't concentrate because I was so bored.	1	5	1.867	1.156	1.430	1.307
	During my trip, I worried if this trip would be much too difficult for me.	1	6	2.193	1.366	1.055	0.253
	This country as a destination on this trip was so exciting that I really enjoyed my trip.	1	7	5.578	1.398	-1.126	1.073
	I was often annoyed during my trip.	1	7	1.988	1.184	1.694	3.571
	During my trip, I thought this destination is boring.	1	7	1.988	1.418	1.756	2.618
	I was so upset during my trip that I would like to leave.	1	7	1.759	1.274	2.424	6.667
	During my trip, I got upset because everything in this country was so difficult to understand.	1	6	2.084	1.160	1.080	0.801
	When I said something on my trip, I felt like I was embarrassing myself.	1	6	2.012	1.153	1.248	1.206
	During my trip in this country, I got irritated by my experience there.	1	6	1.952	1.136	1.273	1.247
	During my trip, I was so bored that I didn't feel like staying in this country anymore.	1	6	1.735	1.170	1.990	3.902
	During my trip, I was either tense or nervous.	1	5	1.964	1.131	1.161	0.476
	During my trip, I was happy that I gained knowledge about this country.	2	7	5.867	1.217	-1.153	1.175
	My trip bored me to death.	1	5	1.530	0.941	2.247	5.251
	I was very motivated during my trip because I wanted to be proud of my achievements on this trip.	1	7	4.880	1.392	-0.559	0.386

	During my trip, when I didn't understand something about the destination, I didn't want to tell anybody.	1	6	2.422	1.380	0.908	0.238
	During my trip, I felt hopeless.	1	7	1.795	1.237	1.945	4.228
	During my trip, I kept thinking that I wouldn't understand this destination.	1	6	2.193	1.234	0.898	0.120
	During my trip, I was so anxious that I couldn't fully concentrate.	1	6	1.807	1.064	1.578	2.657
	During my trip, I would prefer to give up.	1	7	1.759	1.164	2.149	5.728
	During my trip, I thought that things were going great.	1	7	5.651	1.460	-1.509	1.936
	During my trip, I worried I would have a bad experience.	1	7	2.120	1.282	1.477	2.384
	During my trip, I had no energy.	1	7	2.072	1.360	1.776	3.416
	I think I can be proud of my knowledge about this country.	1	7	5.530	1.243	-0.793	1.089
	After my trip, I am proud of myself.	1	7	5.494	1.152	-0.672	1.238
	I am embarrassed about my lack of knowledge about this country.	1	7	2.952	1.561	0.575	-0.295
	I am proud of how well I have done on my trip.	3	7	5.470	1.075	-0.132	-1.025
	I feel ashamed of travelling to this country.	1	6	1.614	1.102	2.332	5.724
	In general, I consider my travel to this country as an achievement for myself. *(global item for A.E. convergent validity)*	1	7	5.610	1.188	-0.817	1.149
Memorable Tourism Experience (MTE)	I was thrilled about having a new experience there.	2	7	6.133	1.009	-1.366	2.396
	I indulged in activities.	3	7	5.675	1.159	-0.678	-0.251
	I really enjoyed the trip.	3	7	6.120	1.005	-1.060	0.417
	I had an exciting trip.	3	7	6.024	1.104	-1.107	0.518
	I had a once-in-a-lifetime experience.	2	7	5.819	1.299	-1.093	0.427
	I had a unique experience.	2	7	5.976	1.115	-1.195	1.410
	My trip was different from previous trips.	2	7	5.759	1.236	-0.996	0.677
	I experienced something new.	2	7	6.084	0.965	-1.256	2.633
	I had a good impression of the local culture.	2	7	5.892	1.148	-1.122	1.110
	I had a chance to experience the local culture closely.	2	7	5.675	1.201	-0.944	0.907
	The locals in this country were friendly to me.	2	7	5.807	1.041	-0.929	1.254
	I relieved stress during the trip.	1	7	4.928	1.351	-0.414	-0.172
	I felt free from my daily routine during the trip.	2	7	5.747	1.091	-1.033	1.698
	I had a refreshing experience.	2	7	5.819	1.038	-1.036	1.444
	I felt better after the trip.	2	7	5.482	1.272	-0.578	-0.518

I felt that I did something meaningful.	2	7	5.783	1.116	-0.960	0.818
I felt that I did something important.	1	7	5.398	1.379	-0.754	0.310
I learned something about myself from the trip.	1	7	4.904	1.385	-0.388	-0.210
I visited a place that I really wanted to visit.	2	7	6.024	1.126	-1.151	1.070
I enjoyed the activities that I really wanted to do.	1	7	5.807	1.194	-1.202	2.099
I was interested in the main activities offered.	2	7	5.988	1.132	-1.166	1.036
I gained a lot of information during the trip.	2	7	5.855	1.138	-1.031	0.827
I gained a new skill (s) from the trip.	1	7	4.470	1.580	0.076	-0.613
I experienced new culture (s).	2	7	5.940	1.063	-0.938	0.924

Appendix 8. Profile of Pilot Study Respondents

Profile Category		Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Nationality	Australia	31	37.3
	United Kingdom	29	34.9
	United States of America	23	27.7
Gender	Female	36	43.4
	male	47	56.6
	transgender	0	0
	other	0	0
Age	18 - 29 years	6	7.2
	30 - 39 years	17	20.5
	40 - 49 years	9	10.8
	50 - 59 years	4	4.8
	60 years or more	47	56.6
Education	high school or below	11	13.3
	some college / associated degree	15	18.1
	Bachelor's degree	33	39.8
	postgraduate degree	24	28.9
	other	0	0
Marital Status	single	14	16.9
	married	52	62.7
	divorced	14	16.9
	widowed	3	3.6
	other	0	0
Occupation	skilled worker	19	22.9
	service worker	3	3.6
	clerical worker	10	12.0
	self-employed	5	6.0
	teacher/professor	5	6.0
	student	0	0
	civil servant	2	2.4
	housework	6	7.2
	retired	29	34.9
	other	4	4.8
Annual Household Income (USD)	less than $15,000	3	3.6
	$15,000 – $24,999	1	1.2
	$25,000 – $49,999	17	20.5
	$50,000 – $74,999	21	25.3
	$75,000 – $99,999	13	15.7
	$100,000 – $124,999	7	8.4
	$125,000 – $149,999	9	10.8

	$150,000 or more	12	14.5
Middle Eastern Countries Visited Past 5 Years	Bahrain	8	9.6
	Cyprus	16	19.3
	Egypt	26	31.3
	Iran	2	2.4
	Jordan	17	20.5
	Kuwait	3	3.6
	Iraq	0	0
	Lebanon	4	4.8
	Oman	14	16.9
	Palestine	5	6.0
	Qatar	19	22.9
	Saudi Arabia	7	8.4
	Israel	21	25.3
	Syria	1	1.2
	Turkey	20	24.1
	Yemen	1	1.2
	United Arab Emirates	62	74.7
Num. of Middle Eastern Countries Visited Past 5 Years	1 country	22	26.5
	2 countries	20	24.1
	3 countries	18	21.7
	4 countries	12	14.5
	5 countries	6	7.2
	6 countries	4	4.8
	8 countries	1	1.2
Selected Middle Eastern Destination	Egypt	12	14.5
	Iran	2	2.4
	Israel	11	13.3
	Jordan	5	6.0
	Kuwait	2	2.4
	Lebanon	1	1.2
	Oman	2	2.4
	Qatar	10	12.0
	Saudi Arabia	4	4.8
	United Arab Emirates	34	41.0
First-time vs Repeater in the Selected Destination	First-time visitor	40	48.2
	Repeat visitor	43	51.8
Main Trip Purpose	Leisure	67	80.7
	Business	7	8.4
	Visiting Friends/Relatives	8	9.6

	Education	0	
	Pilgrimage	1	1.2
	Health	0	
Travel Companions	Alone	16	19.3
	spouse/partner	45	54.2
	family with kid	4	4.8
	family without kid	3	3.6
	friends	8	9.6
	in a group tour	4	4.8
	other	3	3.6
Number of Travel Companions	1 person	12	14.5
	2 - 3 persons	7	8.4
	4 - 6 persons	0	
	7 persons or more	3	3.6
Length of Stay	1-3 nights	26	31.3
	4-7 nights	32	38.6
	8-15 nights	20	24.1
	16-30 nights	4	4.8
	31-60 nights	1	1.2
	61 nights or more	0	0
Accommodation Types	Hotel	69	83.1
	Airbnb	3	3.6
	Couch-surfing	0	0
	Relative/friend's house	8	9.6
	Camping/backpacking	1	1.2
	Traditional hotel*	0	0
	other	9	10.8
Group vs independents	in a group tour	19	22.9
	independent traveller, experienced a local tour guide	26	31.3
	independent traveller, not experienced a local tour guide	38	45.8

**The old, traditional houses which were renovated and used as a hotel.*

Appendix 9. Cross loadings for the Reflective Measurement Models in Pilot-test

Construct	Indicator	**Self-efficacy**	**Task value**	**Anger**	**Anxiety**	**Boredom**	**Enjoyment**	**Hopelessness**	**Pride**	**Shame**
Self-efficacy	During my trip in this country, I was able to overcome many challenges successfully.	**0.771**	0.386	-0.276	-0.287	-0.314	0.230	-0.209	0.412	-0.217
	I was able to achieve most of the goals that I had set for myself in travelling in this country.	**0.891**	0.568	-0.570	-0.454	-0.581	0.486	-0.487	0.563	-0.506
	During my trip in this country, I was confident that I could do many different activities effectively.	**0.915**	0.633	-0.434	-0.472	-0.557	0.539	-0.442	0.556	-0.363
	When facing difficult situations during my trip in this country, I was certain that I will resolve them.	**0.838**	0.547	-0.357	-0.435	-0.420	0.420	-0.366	0.438	-0.402
Task value	I thought I will be able to use what I learned on this trip on other trips.	0.596	**0.763**	-0.244	-0.329	-0.308	0.403	-0.233	0.591	-0.226
	It was important for me to learn about this country on this trip.	0.511	**0.914**	-0.393	-0.360	-0.450	0.495	-0.377	0.618	-0.450
	I thought the experience of this trip is useful for me to learn.	0.603	**0.963**	-0.520	-0.483	-0.554	0.567	-0.497	0.622	-0.553
	Understanding this destination was very important to me.	0.582	**0.917**	-0.522	-0.515	-0.626	0.627	-0.563	0.577	-0.554

Anger	I was so upset during my trip that I would like to leave.	-0.449	-0.377	**0.863**	0.649	0.766	-0.508	0.697	-0.143	0.589
	I was often annoyed during my trip.	-0.349	-0.386	**0.866**	0.625	0.658	-0.440	0.648	-0.346	0.676
	During my trip, I got upset because everything in this country was so difficult to understand.	-0.374	-0.444	**0.850**	0.697	0.618	-0.442	0.648	-0.251	0.763
	During my trip in this country, I got irritated by my experience there.	-0.534	-0.493	**0.931**	0.706	0.817	-0.632	0.759	-0.386	0.684
Anxiety	During my trip, I was either tense or nervous.	-0.413	-0.447	0.663	**0.865**	0.600	-0.493	0.567	-0.234	0.472
	During my trip, I worried I would have a bad experience.	-0.285	-0.295	0.663	**0.794**	0.440	-0.362	0.543	-0.194	0.675
	During my trip, I worried if this trip would be much too difficult for me.	-0.504	-0.440	0.605	**0.852**	0.493	-0.465	0.509	-0.195	0.519
Boredom	My trip bored me to death.	-0.419	-0.494	0.587	0.427	**0.872**	-0.651	0.629	-0.400	0.485
	During my trip, I was so bored that I didn't feel like staying in this country anymore.	-0.500	-0.422	0.764	0.546	**0.866**	-0.618	0.663	-0.335	0.576
	During my trip, I thought this destination is boring.	-0.619	-0.520	0.815	0.625	**0.940**	-0.644	0.752	-0.385	0.554
	During my trip, I couldn't concentrate because I was so bored.	-0.462	-0.568	0.762	0.594	**0.890**	-0.606	0.750	-0.462	0.650
Enjoyment	I enjoyed my trip in this country.	0.298	0.405	-0.460	-0.411	-0.597	**0.843**	-0.503	0.439	-0.449
	This country as a destination on this trip was so exciting that I really enjoyed my trip.	0.459	0.495	-0.573	-0.531	-0.679	**0.911**	-0.564	0.527	-0.457

	During my trip, I thought that things were going great.	0.450	0.331	-0.465	-0.407	-0.507	**0.666**	-0.554	0.368	-0.337
	During my trip, I was happy that I gained knowledge about this country.	0.439	0.669	-0.404	-0.376	-0.499	**0.811**	-0.380	0.555	-0.369
Hopeless-ness	During my trip, I felt hopeless.	-0.431	-0.342	0.660	0.541	0.700	-0.532	**0.845**	-0.237	0.553
	During my trip, I had no energy.	-0.212	-0.313	0.566	0.443	0.515	-0.403	**0.817**	-0.239	0.524
	During my trip, I kept thinking that I wouldn't understand this destination.	-0.451	-0.526	0.719	0.591	0.707	-0.562	**0.846**	-0.452	0.744
Pride	I think I can be proud of my knowledge about this country.	0.502	0.540	-0.202	-0.118	-0.323	0.482	-0.244	**0.837**	-0.291
	After my trip, I am proud of myself.	0.557	0.641	-0.241	-0.187	-0.423	0.462	-0.330	**0.912**	-0.347
	I am proud of how well I have done on my trip.	0.481	0.566	-0.254	-0.244	-0.324	0.436	-0.243	**0.865**	-0.386
	I was very motivated during my trip because I wanted to be proud of my achievements on this trip.	0.359	0.431	-0.399	-0.287	-0.382	0.587	-0.480	**0.652**	-0.358
Shame	During my trip, when I didn't understand something about the destination, I didn't want to tell anybody.	-0.452	-0.477	0.663	0.540	0.594	-0.513	0.723	-0.435	**0.914**
	When I said something on my trip, I felt like I was embarrassing myself.	-0.369	-0.431	0.644	0.675	0.457	-0.316	0.553	-0.345	**0.824**
	I feel ashamed of travelling to this country.	-0.322	-0.417	0.656	0.442	0.561	-0.422	0.606	-0.275	**0.816**

Appendix 10. Cross loadings for the first-order constructs of Memorable Tourism Experience in Pilot-test Step

Construct	Indicator	Hedonism	Involvement	Knowledge	Local Culture	Meaningfulness	Novelty	Refreshment
Hedonism	I was thrilled about having a new experience there.	**0.843**	0.659	0.599	0.613	0.687	0.727	0.595
	I indulged in activities.	**0.759**	0.618	0.511	0.434	0.659	0.512	0.567
	I really enjoyed the trip.	**0.933**	0.736	0.540	0.691	0.642	0.728	0.658
	I had an exciting trip.	**0.922**	0.760	0.633	0.733	0.688	0.823	0.680
Involvement	I visited a place that I really wanted to visit.	0.700	**0.876**	0.626	0.711	0.658	0.714	0.647
	I enjoyed the activities that I really wanted to do.	0.761	**0.936**	0.754	0.710	0.708	0.724	0.704
	I was interested in the main activities offered.	0.709	**0.895**	0.738	0.570	0.652	0.595	0.590
Knowledge	I gained a lot of information during the trip.	0.631	0.802	**0.892**	0.647	0.663	0.669	0.548
	I gained a new skill (s) from the trip.	0.390	0.420	**0.695**	0.383	0.581	0.314	0.461
	I experienced new culture (s).	0.576	0.657	**0.871**	0.718	0.554	0.690	0.556
Local Culture	I had a good impression of the local culture.	0.762	0.743	0.712	**0.916**	0.729	0.757	0.674
	I had a chance to experience the local culture closely.	0.640	0.633	0.687	**0.909**	0.659	0.635	0.625
	The locals in this country were friendly to me.	0.547	0.623	0.571	**0.902**	0.556	0.519	0.635
Meaningfulness	I felt that I did something meaningful.	0.731	0.792	0.689	0.708	**0.897**	0.748	0.797
	I felt that I did something important.	0.680	0.651	0.635	0.633	**0.898**	0.648	0.687
	I learned something about myself from the trip.	0.518	0.382	0.485	0.450	**0.740**	0.332	0.492

Novelty	I had a once-in-a-lifetime experience.	0.772	0.665	0.679	0.639	0.698	**0.921**	0.563
	I had a unique experience.	0.807	0.748	0.683	0.671	0.678	**0.943**	0.657
	My trip was different from previous trips.	0.690	0.630	0.520	0.598	0.599	**0.892**	0.572
	I experienced something new.	0.725	0.728	0.704	0.703	0.640	**0.929**	0.578
Refreshment	I relieved stress during the trip.	0.411	0.374	0.430	0.469	0.484	0.304	**0.722**
	I felt free from my daily routine during the trip.	0.565	0.644	0.505	0.672	0.570	0.573	**0.805**
	I had a refreshing experience.	0.721	0.715	0.622	0.646	0.770	0.660	**0.888**
	I felt better after the trip.	0.593	0.530	0.468	0.485	0.710	0.480	**0.811**

Appendix 11. Correlations between Indicators of Two Reflective-Formative Constructs

DPR	overall risk	financial risk	performance risk	physical risk	socio-psychological risk	time risk
overall risk	1					
financial risk	0.43***	1				
performance risk	0.586***	0.701***	1			
physical risk	0.718***	0.736***	0.798***	1		
socio-psychological risk	0.441***	0.689***	0.726***	0.656***	1	
time risk	0.387***	0.658***	0.688***	0.629***	0.884***	1

PLTS	PLS	PTS	SE	TV
PLS	1			
PTS	0.254*	1		
SE	0.712***	0.408***	1	
TV	0.487***	0.508***	0.635***	1

*$p < 0.05$

***$p < 0.001$

Appendix 12. Cross loadings for the first-order constructs of Destination Perceived Risk in Pilot-test step

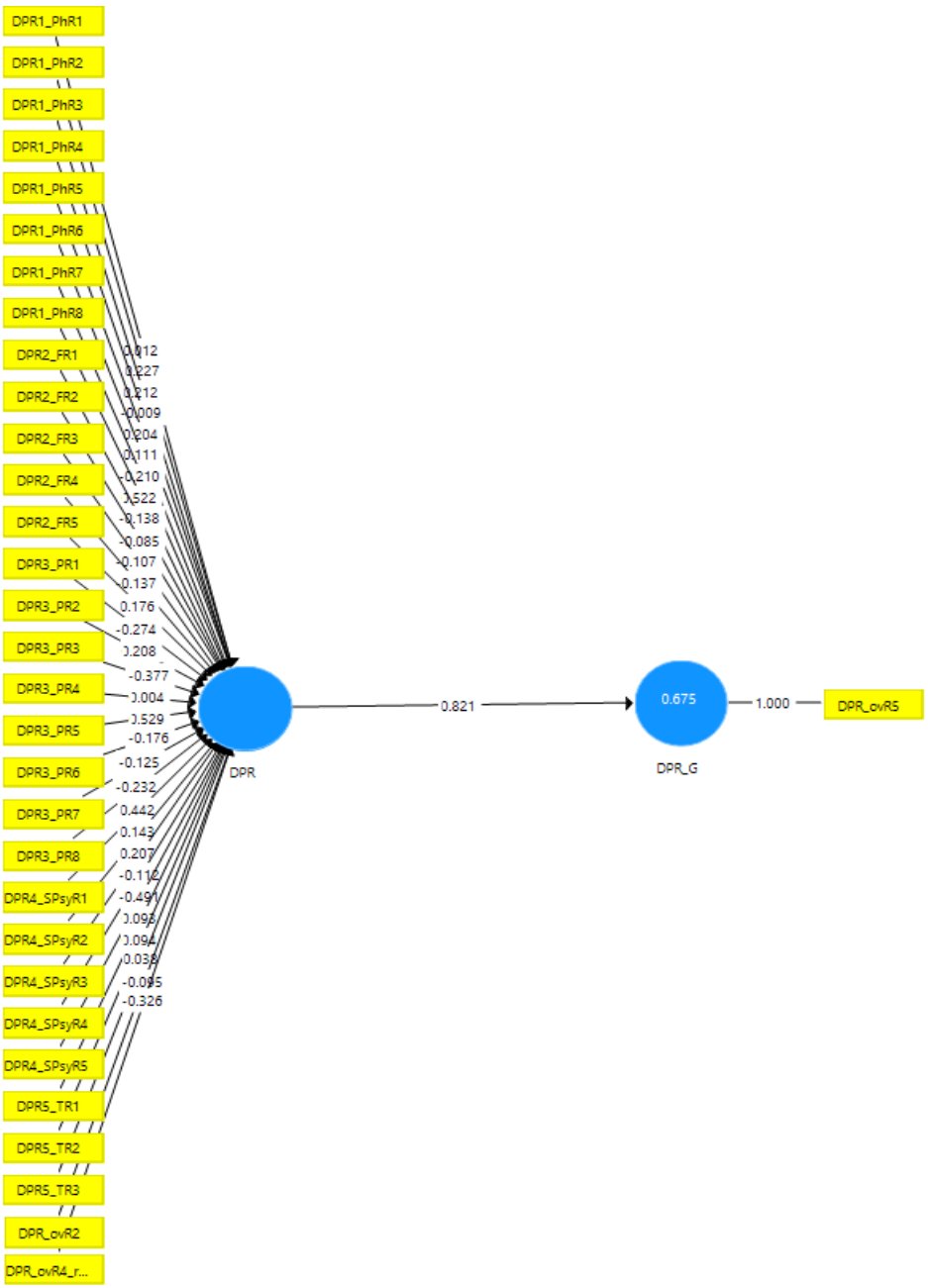
Construct	Indicator	Financial Risk	Overall Risk	Performance Risk	Physical Risk	Socio-Psychological Risk	Time Risk
Financial Risk	that I would not receive good value for my money.	**0.801**	0.378	0.571	0.636	0.528	0.504
	that the trip to this country would involve unexpected extra expenses (such as changes in exchange rates or extra costs in hotels).	**0.928**	0.457	0.676	0.624	0.618	0.576
	that the trip to this country would be more expensive than other international trips.	**0.879**	0.274	0.575	0.469	0.583	0.553
	that the trip to this country would involve more incidental expenses than I had anticipated, such as clothing, maps, sports equipment, and babysitters.	**0.896**	0.395	0.673	0.661	0.639	0.609
	that the trip to this country would have an impact on my financial situation.	**0.875**	0.349	0.566	0.584	0.649	0.638
Overall Risk	To what extent did your friends or relatives see this country as a risky place to visit?	0.224	**0.517**	0.283	0.353	0.038	0.022
	I thought that my family/friends would worry about my safety while I was in this country.	0.293	**0.832**	0.474	0.566	0.308	0.283
	Prior to my trip, I viewed this country as more dangerous than other places around the world.	0.427	**0.874**	0.532	0.659	0.505	0.438
Performance Risk	that the weather would be uncomfortable.	0.593	0.250	**0.739**	0.445	0.555	0.557
	that the hotels in this country would be unsatisfactory.	0.514	0.432	**0.800**	0.599	0.544	0.524
	that sites would be too crowded.	0.533	0.369	**0.749**	0.587	0.390	0.438
	that the food in this country would not be good.	0.537	0.488	**0.850**	0.690	0.610	0.599
	about possible strikes (airport, railway station, buses) in this country.	0.530	0.562	**0.805**	0.729	0.554	0.482
	that the tourist facilities available to the public in this country would not be acceptable.	0.638	0.533	**0.842**	0.679	0.620	0.608
	that the local people would not be friendly.	0.626	0.527	**0.788**	0.566	0.687	0.605
	that hospitality employees in this country would not be courteous to international tourists.	0.542	0.521	**0.859**	0.654	0.683	0.601
Physical Risk	about food safety problems in this country.	0.459	0.534	0.662	**0.733**	0.400	0.421
	that there might be epidemic diseases in this country.	0.632	0.540	0.690	**0.848**	0.593	0.567
	about getting injured in a car accident in this country.	0.633	0.426	0.565	**0.782**	0.554	0.520

	about crime (theft, robbery, pickpockets) in this country.	0.441	0.600	0.557	**0.789**	0.340	0.353
	about terrorism in this country.	0.454	0.610	0.572	**0.770**	0.332	0.308
	about being exposed to danger due to political unrest in this country.	0.549	0.596	0.576	**0.782**	0.452	0.408
Socio-Psychological Risk	that a trip to this country would not be compatible with my self-image.	0.709	0.275	0.713	0.444	**0.910**	0.792
	that my trip to this country would change the way, my friends think of me.	0.570	0.371	0.637	0.594	**0.907**	0.793
	that I would not receive personal satisfaction from the trip to this country.	0.656	0.371	0.729	0.504	**0.862**	0.745
	that my trip to this country would change the way, my family thinks of me.	0.560	0.356	0.594	0.564	**0.904**	0.804
	that my trip to this country would not match my status in life (social class).	0.577	0.261	0.562	0.472	**0.881**	0.816
Time Risk	that the trip to this country would be a waste of time.	0.583	0.275	0.631	0.484	0.826	**0.953**
	that my trip would waste my valuable vacation time.	0.644	0.303	0.671	0.576	0.841	**0.956**
	that planning and preparing for the trip would take too much time.	0.609	0.250	0.617	0.489	0.800	**0.881**

Appendix 13. Cross loadings of the first-order constructs of PLTS in Pilot-test Step

Construct	Indicator	Perceived Local People Support (PLS)	Perceived Tour Leader Support (PTS)
Perceived Local People Support (PLS)	Local people offered me further assistance when I needed help.	**0.908**	0.147
	Local people explained something about this country until I understand it.	**0.900**	0.287
	Local people gave me the opportunity to say what I think.	**0.922**	0.233
	Local people supported me to learn more about this country.	**0.939**	0.255
Perceived Tour Leader Support (PTS)	The tour leader offered me further assistance when I needed help.	0.223	**0.935**
	The tour leader explained something about this country until I understand it.	0.219	**0.944**
	The tour leader gave me the opportunity to say what I think.	0.258	**0.944**
	The tour leader supported me to learn more about this country.	0.259	**0.961**

Appendix 14. The Redundancy Analysis for DPR



Appendix 15. Cross-loadings for Reflective Measurement Models in Main-survey Step

Construct	Indicator	Anger	Anxiety	Boredom	Enjoyment	Hopeless-ness	Pride	Shame	Self-efficacy	Task value
Anger	I was often annoyed during my trip.	**0.849**	0.651	0.693	-0.385	0.674	-0.274	0.677	-0.255	-0.254
	During my trip, I got upset because everything in this country was so difficult to understand.	**0.878**	0.708	0.754	-0.416	0.778	-0.301	0.745	-0.270	-0.313
	During my trip in this country, I got irritated by my experience there.	**0.918**	0.679	0.793	-0.474	0.737	-0.362	0.746	-0.314	-0.363
Anxiety	During my trip, I was either tense or nervous.	0.705	**0.885**	0.646	-0.423	0.684	-0.279	0.653	-0.338	-0.289
	During my trip, I worried I would have a bad experience.	0.612	**0.846**	0.549	-0.370	0.657	-0.215	0.569	-0.257	-0.251
	During my trip, I worried if this trip would be much too difficult for me.	0.632	**0.809**	0.622	-0.307	0.629	-0.167	0.615	-0.222	-0.204
Boredom	My trip bored me to death.	0.705	0.591	**0.861**	-0.466	0.730	-0.350	0.682	-0.273	-0.362
	During my trip, I was so bored that I didn't feel like staying in this country anymore.	0.803	0.677	**0.908**	-0.519	0.764	-0.405	0.768	-0.306	-0.350

	During my trip, I thought this destination is boring.	0.752	0.606	**0.872**	-0.456	0.684	-0.366	0.709	-0.247	-0.331
	During my trip, I couldn't concentrate because I was so bored.	0.722	0.635	**0.877**	-0.450	0.694	-0.334	0.721	-0.243	-0.310
Enjoyment	I enjoyed my trip in this country.	-0.437	-0.421	-0.468	**0.845**	-0.444	0.542	-0.394	0.518	0.541
	This country as a destination on this trip was so exciting that I really enjoyed my trip.	-0.420	-0.373	-0.459	**0.887**	-0.408	0.630	-0.381	0.533	0.571
	During my trip, I was happy that I gained knowledge about this country.	-0.351	-0.296	-0.422	**0.765**	-0.372	0.560	-0.365	0.385	0.489
Hopelessness	During my trip, I felt hopeless.	0.758	0.678	0.757	-0.467	**0.889**	-0.326	0.752	-0.307	-0.337
	During my trip, I had no energy.	0.711	0.671	0.721	-0.416	**0.880**	-0.317	0.705	-0.269	-0.333
	During my trip, I kept thinking that I wouldn't understand this destination.	0.663	0.654	0.626	-0.376	**0.810**	-0.271	0.664	-0.268	-0.290
Pride	I think I can be proud of my knowledge about this country.	-0.312	-0.243	-0.364	0.628	-0.328	**0.878**	-0.284	0.527	0.601
	After my trip, I am proud of myself.	-0.294	-0.201	-0.348	0.568	-0.295	**0.889**	-0.274	0.500	0.596

	I am proud of how well I have done on my trip.	-0.352	-0.253	-0.394	0.591	-0.333	**0.871**	-0.288	0.529	0.579
	I was very motivated during my trip because I wanted to be proud of my achievements on this trip.	-0.258	-0.217	-0.303	0.574	-0.248	**0.766**	-0.226	0.426	0.504
Shame	During my trip, when I didn't understand something about the destination, I didn't want to tell anybody.	0.645	0.582	0.604	-0.347	0.664	-0.253	**0.817**	-0.261	-0.280
	When I said something on my trip, I felt like I was embarrassing myself.	0.776	0.668	0.741	-0.387	0.744	-0.253	**0.887**	-0.278	-0.294
	I feel ashamed of travelling to this country.	0.630	0.558	0.710	-0.409	0.654	-0.290	**0.804**	-0.200	-0.270
Self-efficacy	During my trip in this country, I was able to successfully overcome many challenges.	-0.043	-0.033	-0.028	0.299	-0.046	0.410	-0.029	**0.652**	0.460
	I was able to achieve most of the goals that I had set for myself in travelling in this country.	-0.331	-0.318	-0.338	0.534	-0.349	0.508	-0.315	**0.838**	0.612
	During my trip in this country, I was confident that I could do many different activities effectively.	-0.326	-0.341	-0.321	0.530	-0.326	0.493	-0.303	**0.874**	0.567

	When facing difficult situations during my trip in this country, I was certain that I will resolve them.	-0.207	-0.247	-0.166	0.397	-0.210	0.418	-0.187	**0.756**	0.481
Task value	I thought I will be able to use what I learned on this trip on other trips.	-0.230	-0.209	-0.235	0.453	-0.224	0.543	-0.192	0.571	**0.757**
	It was important for me to learn about this country on this trip.	-0.316	-0.267	-0.324	0.564	-0.335	0.570	-0.301	0.580	**0.872**
	I thought the experience of this trip is useful for me to learn.	-0.331	-0.242	-0.371	0.568	-0.346	0.572	-0.324	0.572	**0.863**
	Understanding this destination was very important to me.	-0.314	-0.280	-0.356	0.565	-0.339	0.573	-0.303	0.570	**0.867**

Appendix 16. Cross loadings for First-order Constructs of Memorable Tourism Experience in Main-survey Step

Construct	Indicator	Hedonism	Involvement	Knowledge	Local Culture	Meaningfulness	Novelty	Refreshment
Hedonism	I was thrilled about having a new experience there.	**0.865**	0.671	0.614	0.645	0.594	0.671	0.613
	I indulged in activities.	**0.750**	0.615	0.532	0.556	0.521	0.577	0.506
	I really enjoyed the trip.	**0.895**	0.760	0.633	0.702	0.633	0.686	0.691
	I had an exciting trip.	**0.904**	0.742	0.676	0.700	0.653	0.723	0.680
Involvement	I visited a place that I really wanted to visit.	0.692	**0.872**	0.648	0.660	0.599	0.644	0.617
	I enjoyed the activities that I really wanted to do.	0.741	**0.902**	0.661	0.676	0.648	0.650	0.691
	I was interested in the main activities offered.	0.749	**0.895**	0.685	0.691	0.663	0.699	0.681
Knowledge	I gained a lot of information during the trip.	0.697	0.746	**0.872**	0.693	0.679	0.703	0.639
	I gained a new skill (s) from the trip.	0.441	0.450	**0.735**	0.509	0.611	0.496	0.533
	I experienced new culture (s).	0.615	0.620	**0.861**	0.638	0.608	0.672	0.607
Local Culture	I had a good impression of the local culture.	0.722	0.700	0.642	**0.877**	0.627	0.680	0.644
	I had a chance to experience the local culture closely.	0.611	0.620	0.658	**0.834**	0.618	0.639	0.603
	The locals in this country were friendly to me.	0.641	0.644	0.644	**0.879**	0.583	0.596	0.640
Meaningfulness	I felt that I did something meaningful.	0.678	0.669	0.666	0.653	**0.893**	0.677	0.696
	I felt that I did something important.	0.674	0.679	0.679	0.649	**0.916**	0.656	0.692
	I learned something about myself from the trip.	0.428	0.471	0.631	0.499	**0.753**	0.511	0.552

Novelty	I had a once-in-a-lifetime experience.	0.691	0.650	0.662	0.640	0.638	**0.881**	0.605
	I had a unique experience.	0.718	0.673	0.682	0.683	0.657	**0.893**	0.652
	My trip was different from previous trips.	0.560	0.551	0.604	0.534	0.569	**0.806**	0.547
	I experienced something new.	0.688	0.676	0.667	0.669	0.607	**0.843**	0.605
Refreshment	I relieved stress during the trip.	0.445	0.474	0.524	0.506	0.560	0.474	**0.737**
	I felt free from my daily routine during the trip.	0.566	0.598	0.530	0.540	0.547	0.535	**0.802**
	I had a refreshing experience.	0.723	0.713	0.657	0.698	0.679	0.668	**0.870**
	I felt better after the trip.	0.607	0.607	0.613	0.597	0.662	0.585	**0.825**

Appendix 17. Cross loadings for First-Order Constructs of DPR in Main-survey Step

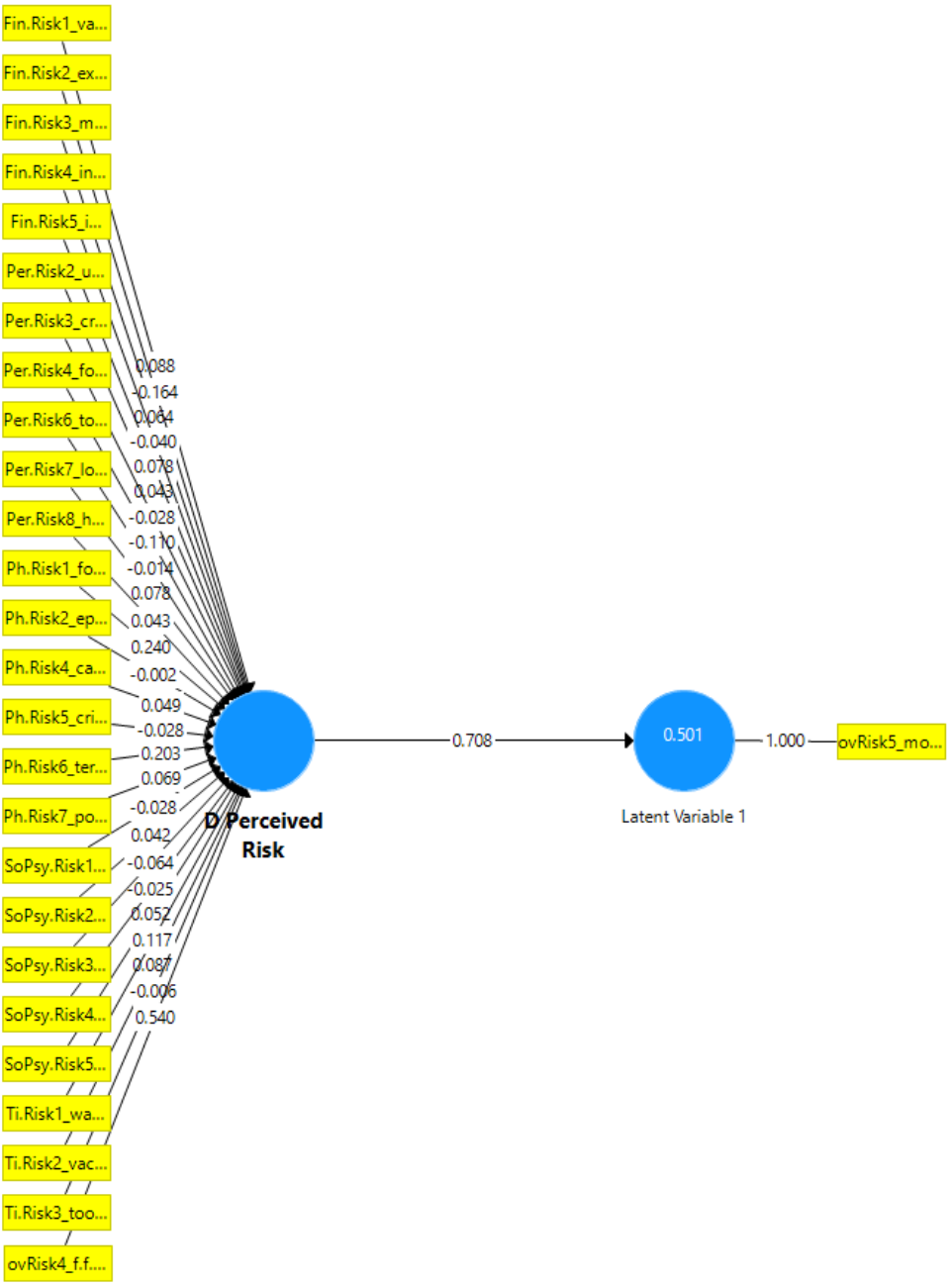
Construct	Indicator	Financial Risk	Overall Risk	Performance Risk	Physical Risk	Socio-Psychological Risk	Time Risk
Financial Risk	that I would not receive good value for my money.	**0.836**	0.412	0.688	0.663	0.622	0.586
	that the trip to this country would involve unexpected extra expenses (such as changes in exchange rates or extra costs in hotels).	**0.885**	0.346	0.687	0.641	0.595	0.560
	that the trip to this country would be more expensive than other international trips.	**0.856**	0.317	0.602	0.552	0.531	0.523
	that the trip to this country would involve more incidental expenses than I had anticipated, such as clothing, maps, sports equipment, and babysitters.	**0.897**	0.361	0.681	0.660	0.631	0.579
	that the trip to this country would have an impact on my financial situation.	**0.870**	0.356	0.682	0.656	0.683	0.600
Overall Risk	I thought that my family/friends would worry about my safety while I was in this country.	0.375	**0.877**	0.417	0.563	0.331	0.319
	Prior to my trip, I viewed this country as more dangerous than other places around the world.	0.455	**0.913**	0.494	0.604	0.444	0.441
Performance Risk	that the hotels in this country would be unsatisfactory.	0.647	0.436	**0.839**	0.667	0.625	0.631
	that sites would be too crowded.	0.612	0.349	**0.755**	0.582	0.525	0.492
	that the food in this country would not be good.	0.609	0.379	**0.808**	0.616	0.598	0.559
	that the tourist facilities available to the public in this country would not be acceptable.	0.642	0.490	**0.833**	0.721	0.656	0.607
	that the local people would not be friendly.	0.621	0.409	**0.804**	0.582	0.582	0.564
	that hospitality employees in this country would not be courteous to international tourists.	0.648	0.459	**0.859**	0.674	0.710	0.657
Physical Risk	about food safety problems in this country.	0.627	0.499	0.659	**0.822**	0.584	0.507

	that there might be epidemic diseases in this country.	0.650	0.461	0.658	**0.832**	0.640	0.573
	about getting injured in a car accident in this country.	0.625	0.457	0.644	**0.819**	0.613	0.562
	about crime (theft, robbery, pickpockets) in this country.	0.594	0.576	0.676	**0.852**	0.561	0.502
	about terrorism in this country.	0.550	0.642	0.616	**0.809**	0.452	0.416
	about being exposed to danger due to political unrest in this country.	0.589	0.656	0.651	**0.837**	0.511	0.464
Socio-Psychological Risk	that a trip to this country would not be compatible with my self-image.	0.656	0.373	0.714	0.627	**0.887**	0.740
	that my trip to this country would change the way, my friends think of me.	0.611	0.324	0.628	0.593	**0.895**	0.703
	that I would not receive personal satisfaction from the trip to this country.	0.671	0.393	0.749	0.636	**0.866**	0.768
	that my trip to this country would change the way, my family thinks of me.	0.554	0.283	0.588	0.558	**0.878**	0.668
	that my trip to this country would not match my status in life (social class).	0.620	0.306	0.648	0.575	**0.890**	0.749
Time Risk	that the trip to this country would be a waste of time.	0.570	0.349	0.639	0.549	0.762	**0.920**
	that my trip would waste my valuable vacation time.	0.589	0.352	0.658	0.555	0.770	**0.941**
	that planning and preparing for the trip would take too much time.	0.639	0.333	0.671	0.567	0.722	**0.877**

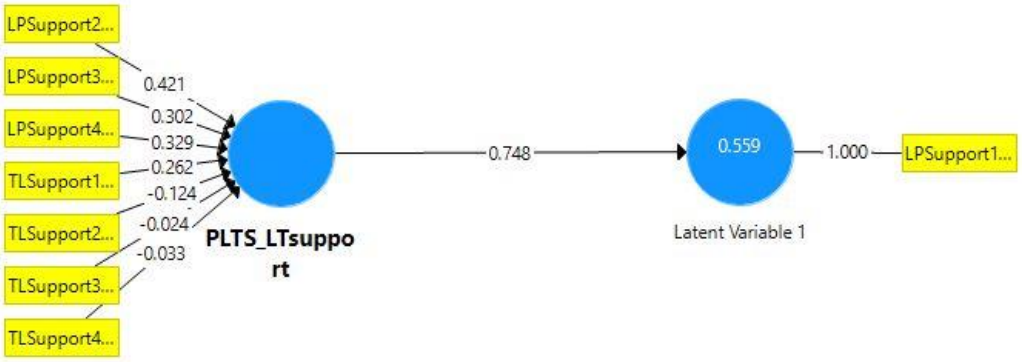
Appendix 18. Cross loadings for First-Order Constructs of PLTS in the Main-survey Step

Construct	Indicator	Perceived Local People Support (PLS)	Perceived Tour Leader Support (PTS)
Perceived Local People Support (PLS)	Local people offered me further assistance when I needed help.	**0.846**	0.380
	Local people explained something about this country until I understand it.	**0.891**	0.403
	Local people gave me the opportunity to say what I think.	**0.899**	0.414
	Local people supported me to learn more about this country.	**0.904**	0.438
Perceived Tour Leader Support (PTS)	The tour leader offered me further assistance when I needed help.	0.387	**0.875**
	The tour leader explained something about this country until I understand it.	0.376	**0.886**
	The tour leader gave me the opportunity to say what I think.	0.444	**0.845**
	The tour leader supported me to learn more about this country.	0.408	**0.888**

Appendix 19. Redundancy Analysis for SOC of DPR in Main-survey Step



Appendix 20. Redundancy Analysis for SOC of PLTS in Main-survey Step



Appendix 21. Evaluation of External Validity Through Pearson Correlation Coefficient

Variables	DPR						SE	MTE						
	OR	FR	PeR	PhR	ScR	TR		Hd	Inv	Kn	LC	Nv	Mg	Rf
Anger	.34***	.47***	.45***	.47***	.55***	.57***	-.29***	-.47***	-.49***	-.39***	-.48***	-.39***	-.38***	-.42***
Anxiety	.44***	.56***	.59***	.58***	.60***	.62***	-.29***	-.41***	-.43***	-.28***	-.41***	-.29***	-.32***	-.38***
Boredom	.34***	.50***	.49***	.49***	.62***	.65***	-.28***	-.54***	-.56***	-.42***	-.46***	-.45***	-.44***	-.47***
Enjoyment	-.14***	-.28***	-.29***	-.29***	-.34***	.38***	.56***	.75***	.72***	.62***	.67***	.62***	.60***	.63***
Hopelessness	.32***	.47***	.46***	.45***	.57***	.58***	-.29***	-.46***	-.48***	-.36***	-.42***	-.38***	-.39***	-.41***
Pride	-.085*	-.17***	-.20***	-.20***	-.19***	-.23***	.58***	.68***	.66***	.69***	.63***	.63***	.69***	.64***
Shame	.31***	.50***	.47***	.46***	.58***	.57***	-.28***	-.41***	-.43***	-.33***	-.42***	-.34***	-.32***	-.35***
Task value	-.09**	-.19***	-.23***	-.20***	-.24***	-.27***	.68***	.66***	.63***	.70***	.64***	.64***	.63***	.61***
PLS	-.13***	-.15***	-.15***	-.14***	-.06	-.07*	.66***	.52***	.48***	.58***	.65***	.52***	.49***	.55***
PTS	-.07	-.12**	-.14***	-.13***	-.15***	-.19***	.62***	.59***	.58***	.62***	.59***	.57***	.54***	.59***

Note. OR: Overall risk, FR: Financial risk, PeR: Performance risk, PhR: Physical risk, ScR: Socio-psychological risk, TR: Time risk, PLS: perceived local people support, PTS: perceived tour leader support, SE: self-efficacy, Hd: Hedonism, Inv: Involvement, Kn: Knowledge, LC: Local Culture, Nv: Novelty, Mg: Meaningfulness, Rf: Refreshment.

***$p < 0.001$, **$p < 0.01$, *$p < 0.05$

Appendix 22. Prior Experience with Risk for Respondents in Main-survey Step

Category	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
First-time in this destination & visited other ME destination	354	40.6
First-time in this destination but not visited other ME destination	49	5.6
Repeat visitor in this destination & visited other ME destination	448	51.4
Repeat visitor in this destination but not visited other ME destination	20	2.3
1. had past experience with risk	822	94.4
2. NOT had past experience with risk	49	5.6