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**BACHELOR THESIS**

**THE IMPACT OF PERCEIVED RISKS AND MOTIVATION  
ON THE DESIRE TO TRAVEL TO TENERIFE**

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## INTRODUCTION

**Relevance of the topic.** Tourism is a critical sector that significantly contributes to global economies, fostering socio-economic development, job creation and cultural exchange (UNWTO, 2021). The tourism industry's economic significance is highlighted by its contribution to gross domestic product (GDP) and employment. According to World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) in 2022, travel and tourism's direct contribution to global GDP was approximately 7.6%, which accounts to \$6.08 trillion. Furthermore, prior to the pandemic the industry generated one in five new jobs created globally, employing approximately 334 million people. Moreover, the tourism industry serves as a catalyst for preserving and promoting cultural heritage, fostering intercultural understanding and enhancing global connectivity (UNESCO, 2016). In today's globalized world, leisure travel has become an integral part of many individuals' lifestyles, offering a range of opportunities for exploration (Chen & Petrick, 2016), relaxation (Ma et al., 2018) and personal growth (Stone & Petrick, 2013). However, the decision to embark on a journey is not made in isolation, but rather influenced by various factors, including perceived risks and motivation (Khan, Chelliah, & Ahmed, 2019). Understanding how these factors shape tourist behaviour to specific destinations is crucial for policymakers, tourism businesses, and marketing managers seeking to attract and cater to the needs of potential travellers. The intention to travel has been well examined through the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) by Ajzen (1991), as well as the Model of Goal-directed Behaviour (MGB) by Perugini and Bagozzi (2001). Both models help to understand the consumer decision-making processes and how intention are formed through the impact of attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, however the MGB model takes into consideration the motivational factor of desire, which can be considered an emotion-based component that is key in the formation of intentions and behavior (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2004). Tenerife, the largest of the Canary Islands and a popular tourist destination, offers a compelling context to examine the interplay between perceived risks, motivation, and the desire to travel. This island boasts diverse landscapes, pleasant climate, and a vibrant tourism industry that attracts a significant number of visitors each year (Beerli-Palacio & Martín-Santana, 2017). For instance, in 2022, Tenerife received approximately 5.8 million international visitors, making it one of the most visited islands in Europe (Canary Islands Tourism Marketing, 2022). However, like any other destination, Tenerife is not exempt from perceived risks that can impact travelers' decision-making processes and their overall motivation to visit (Garau-Vadell et al., 2014). In general, perceived risks by tourists encompass various dimensions, including health risks, financial risks, performance risks (Fuchs & Reichel, 2011), and more, which travelers evaluate based on their own perceptions, information, and past experiences (Ritchie et al., 2017).

These risks can influence their feelings of uncertainty (Stewart, 2021), safety (Wang et al., 2022), and satisfaction (Loureiro & Jesus, 2019) associated with a travel experience. Moreover, motivation, as a driving force behind human behavior, plays a pivotal role in shaping individuals' desire to travel. Motivations can range from seeking relaxation and escape from routine to cultural exploration, adventure, or socialization (Li & Cai, 2012). Accordingly, researchers have conducted various studies to evaluate the relationship between perceived risk and the intention to travel (Carvalho, 2022; Gao & Chen, 2022; Hanafiah et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022). By incorporating the variable of perceived risks into TPB, the extent to which perceived risks influence visitors' decision-making can be investigated (Rahmafitria et al., 2021). The overall findings reach a consensus that perceived risks negatively affect travel intentions. In conclusion, a comprehensive understanding of the interplay between perceived risks, motivations, and the desire to travel is crucial for stakeholders in the tourism industry to effectively address concerns, attract potential travelers and facilitate positive travel intentions.

**Research problem.** However, perceived travel risk research is scarce regarding the component of desire, which Perugini and Bagozzi (2004) identified as the primary factor in forming intentions, and thus, a critical component of the decision-making process. Similarly, although there are studies that have analyzed how motivation impacts tourist behavioural intention to travel, many do not analyse tourist behaviour through TPB (Chien et al., 2012; Li & Cai, 2012; Bayih & Singh, 2020; Chi & Phuong, 2022), and research relating motivation impact on desire, which reflects an individual's motivational state, is not deeply developed (Kim et al., 2021; Kement et al., 2022).

**The aim of the paper** is to examine the impact of perceived risks and motivation on the desire to travel to Tenerife.

**The objectives of the paper are:**

1. Analyze the relevant consumer behaviour theories to assess the determinants of desire
2. Examine the concept of perceived risk and motivation in travel to identify specific risk factors and motives to travel considered by tourists.
3. Based on theoretical analysis results of the relationship between perceived risk, motivation, and travel desire, develop a methodology for empirical research
4. Conduct empirical research to evaluate the impact of specific factors on travel desire, including different types of perceived risks and travel motivations.
5. Interpret the research findings in light of the theoretical framework and propose practical recommendations for tourism industry stakeholders.

**Methods used:**

1. Literature Review. The research employed a comprehensive literature review approach in the field of tourism and consumer behavior to investigate the existing knowledge and theories related to the topic of perceived risk and motivation's impact on the desire to travel. That provided the basis for empirical research.
2. Questionnaire. A structured questionnaire was designed and administered to collect data from participants in order to evaluate their perceived risk, motivation, attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and desire to travel. The questionnaire was administered to a sample of participants selected using a non-probability convenience sampling method, ensuring the representation of individuals interested in travel.
3. Data Analysis. The collected data was analyzed using SPSS IBM software. Descriptive statistics were computed to summarize and describe the key characteristics of the data, and constructs of mean, Cronbach's alpha for internal consistency and reliability measure and multiple regression analysis were used to calculate inferential statistics.

**Structure of the academic paper.** This academic paper is structured into four main parts. The first part is the theoretical scientific literature analysis, with a comprehensive examination of existing scholarly literature relevant to consumer behaviour theories, perceived risk and motivation to travel. The second part focuses on the research methodology for the empirical research, outlining the research method, concept model, research instrument, sampling and data analysis techniques used. The third part presents the empirical research and its results. Finally, the paper concludes with the conclusion section. Additionally, based on the findings, practical recommendations are provided to guide future decision-making in the field for relevant stakeholders.

**Limitations.** Firstly, not all factors discussed in the theoretical part were included in the empirical research, limiting the comprehensiveness of the findings. Secondly, the sample consisted of international respondents, introducing the potential influence of demographic and cultural factors on the results. Additionally, the sample size could have been larger to enhance the statistical power and reliability of the findings. Lastly, a more in-depth empirical analysis could have been conducted to uncover additional mechanisms and mediating factors.

# 1. THEORETICAL ANALYSIS OF SCIENTIFIC LITERATURE

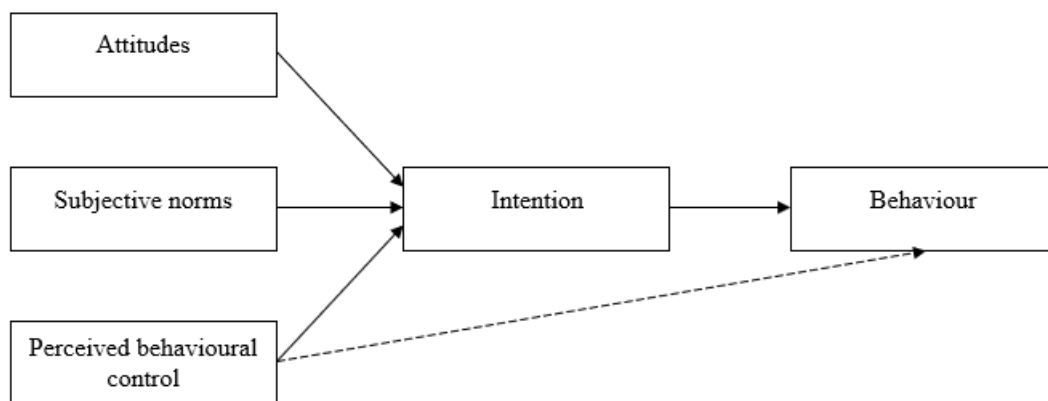
## 1.1 Theoretical Framework of Consumer Behaviour and Desire to Travel

### 1.1.1 Theory of planned behaviour

TPB is sociopsychological theory that models how behaviour is determined by individual's intentions, which are shaped by the following three primary variables: attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. It was developed as an extension to an already existing Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) as a way to improve its behaviour prediction accuracy by taking in the volitional aspect of perceived behavioural control. The TPB model has been extensively used in social science studies, for instance to examine health-related behaviours such as intention to exercise and dieting (Ahmad et al., 2014; McDermott et al., 2015). Furthermore, the validity of the theory has been tested in many tourism focused studies by looking into such dimensions as the intentions to visit a travel destinations (Tavitiyaman & Qu, 2013; S. H. Park et al., 2016; Jordan et al., 2018), environment-friendly tourism (Hu et al., 2019), post-pandemic travel behaviour (Abraham et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021; van Wee & Witlox, 2021) and electronic word of mouth's (eWOM) impact on travel intentions (Jalilvand & Samiei, 2012; Wang, 2015; Azhar et al., 2022). According to Ajzen (1991), the model can be extended by adding additional variables to the already established model in order to improve the predicting power of the theory and account for different dispositions in behaviour.

**Figure 1**

*Model of Theory of Planned Behaviour*



Source: compiled by author, based on Ajzen (1991)

Although various studies have shown TPB's success in predicting human behaviour, it has been criticized for its limitations. The theory assumes that the main predictor of human behaviour is behavioural intention and does not take into account such factors as feelings-based judgments / processes (Kobbeltvedt & Wolff, 2009). Research done by Tolma et al. (2006) to predict mammography intention found that demographic characteristics, not included in the cognitive

constructs of TPB, significantly contributed to predicting power. Consequently, the study found that expanding the model of TPB by adding the factor of ‘self-efficacy’ increased the variance explained by the model from 26.7% to 34.5%. Similar conclusions were reached by Conner et al (2006) where anticipated regret independently of the TPB’s core components has predicted higher behaviour intentions.

### **1.1.2 Model of Goal Directed Behaviour**

Perugini & Bagozzi (2001) have proposed MGB as an extended theoretical framework that is meant to increase the explanatory power of TPB. It includes past components of TPB, with the addition of affective, motivational and habitual processes. They include positive anticipated emotions, negative anticipated emotions, frequency of past behaviour, recency of past behaviour and desire. Desire is seen as a significant motivational factor in determining human behaviour as it the antecedent of forming of intentions (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001).

*Attitudes* refers to how favorably or unfavorably an individual views a particular behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). In the context of travel, attitudes represent individuals' overall positive or negative evaluations of engaging in travel-related activities, destinations or experiences (Meng & Choi, 2016). Whereas TPB conceptualizes attitude having a direct relationship with intention, MGB perceives desire as a mediator, meaning a positive attitude towards a behaviour will create a desire for it (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). In the goal-directed behavior framework, attitudes give useful insights into the cognitive and emotional components that underpin individuals' travel-related decision-making processes (Lee et al., 2020). Correspondingly, positive attitudes regarding travel are more likely to increase a person's desire and intention to travel because they believe it to be a pleasant and satisfying experience. Song et al. (2014) found that a positive attitude towards a festival increased the visitor’s desire to travel to it and similar findings were supported by other researchers (Yuzhanin & Fisher, 2016; Jordan et al., 2018).

*Anticipated emotions* relate to how the individuals participating in goal-directed behaviour “consider the emotional consequences of both achieving and not achieving a sought after goal” (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). Compared to attitude, anticipated emotions are more dynamic and responsive to external factors in the environment. Xu et al. (2021) conducted a study to evaluate how cruise tourists decision-making process was affected in the Covid-19 context and found that both positive and negative anticipated emotions have positively impacted desire, which in turn influenced behaviour intention. Corresponding results were concluded by Lee et al. (2020) regarding anticipated emotions and desire in visiting heritage tourism sites. However, there are instances where negative anticipated emotions were not significant in predicting tourist desire or were not considered as a suitable predictor prior to hypothesis testing (Song et al., 2014).

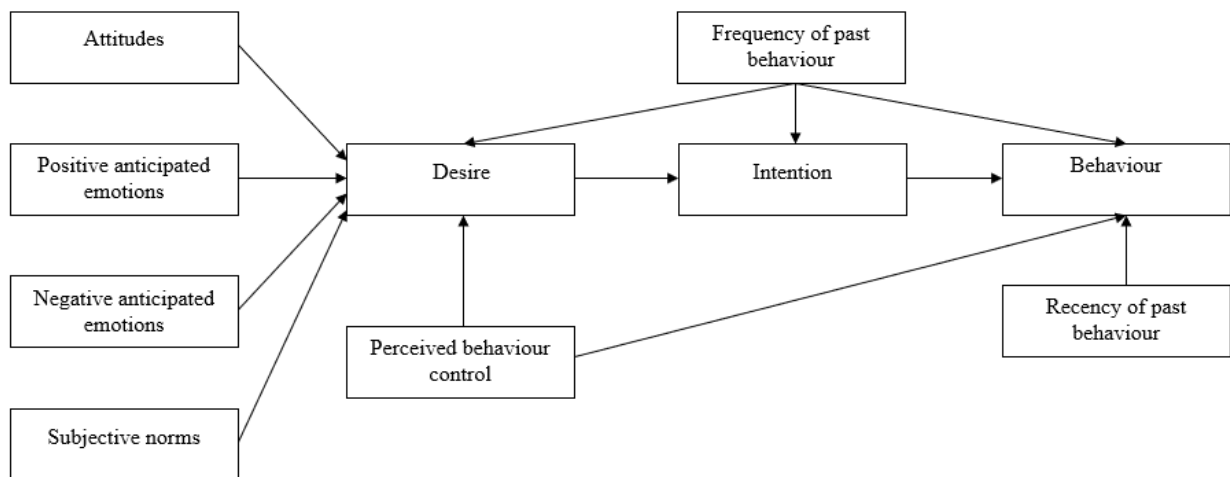
*Subjective norms* are characterized as the perceived social obligation and pressure from an individuals' external social environment that will compel him to engage or not to engage in a particular behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Subjective norms play an important part in the goal-directed behaviour paradigm, which aims to understand the elements affecting an individual's behavioural intentions and behaviours. Subjective norms in travelling refer to the perceived social influence and pressure that individuals sense from influential persons or reference groups in their social context regarding their travel decisions (Bui & Kiatkawsin, 2020). These standards include others' expectations, views and acceptance or disapproval of a certain conduct or deed. In the context of travel, subjective norms indicate the effect of family members, friends, peers, and society standards on an individual's travel decision-making process (Wang et al., 2021). They help to shape an individual's thoughts and intentions about travel since people tend to adhere to the perceived expectations and standards of their social networks (Platania et al., 2021).

Lastly, in the model of goal-directed behavior, the variables of *frequency of past behaviour* and *recency of past behavior* are important indicators for understanding individuals' likelihood of engaging in a particular behavior in the future. Frequency refers to the number of times an individual has performed the behavior within a given time period, while recency reflects the temporal proximity of the most recent occurrence of the behavior (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2004). According to Perugini and Bagozzi (2004) These variables can act as measures for the intensity and durability of the behavior, implying that increased and recent participation may suggest a greater level of intention and preparedness to participate in the behavior once more. However, it is worth considering the limitations and potential challenges associated with using frequency and recency as variables in tourism research. To begin, accurately analyzing and recording the frequency and recency of past travel behavior can be difficult due to concerns such as recall bias and individual memory inconsistency (Kim et al., 2022). Furthermore, the dynamic nature of travel patterns, with individuals engaging in travel at different intervals and for various purposes, adds complexity to capturing consistent and standardized measures of frequency and recency (Chen & Petrick, 2016b) .

In conclusion, Perugini and Bagozzi (2001) extended the TPB with the MGB framework, incorporating desire, anticipated emotions, subjective norms and past behavior. Attitudes influence desire, anticipated emotions impact desire and intention, subjective norms reflect social influence, and past behavior indicates likelihood and preparedness for future behavior, though measurement challenges exist.

## **Figure 2**

*The model of goal-directed behaviour*



Source: compiled by author, based on Bagozzi (2001)

### 1.1.3 Desire

Desire is considered to be a state of motivation that leads to an individual's behavioural intentions (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001). As noted by Perugini and Bagozzi (2004), desire plays an important role in decision making as it incorporates the influences of emotions, cognition, self-perception, and social evaluations. The researchers stated that an increase in the motivational basis to perform an action or achieve a goal will lead to a more significant and accurate prediction of behaviour intention. To distinguish desire from intention, Perugini and Bagozzi (2004) argued that desire can form even when the individual does not hold the belief that he has the capacity to perform the action or reach a set goal. According to the researchers, for a behaviour intention to exist, there needs to be, in some measure, a commitment and self-efficacy to conduct the behaviour, whereas desire can exist without the actual commitment of achieving it. Desire includes an emotional aspect as anticipated positive and negative emotions are added to the model as variables that impact desire.

In the context of tourism, desire to travel can be defined as a want to travel, either domestically or internationally. Many studies have found that there is a significant relationship of travel desire being a predicting variable of behaviour intentions (Song et al., 2012; C. K. Lee et al., 2012; Meng & Choi, 2016; E. Park et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2021). Individuals are more motivated to conduct the relevant behaviour when they have a desire for a specific action, according to studies in the tourist sector (Song et al., 2014).

The MGB framework has been extensively applied to various tourism and travel related studies. As it is suggested by Bagozzi, many researchers have decided to use an extended model and include additional predicting variables, that help to analyse desire and behavioural intentions. The

extended conceptual models involve components that have a direct or indirect relationship with desire. In the case of direct influence, (B. Meng & Choi, 2016) studied how tourists form their intentions to visit a slow tourism destination and extended the MGB model by adding the perception of authenticity as a direct factor influencing desire. Another study analysed the behaviour intention of tourists from Europe by expanding the theoretical framework and adding hedonism and tourism as ascendants of desire to travel (Huseynov et al., 2020).

In comparison to the direct relationship of additional components and desire, culture worldview and authenticity components were mediated by the ascendant variables of desire and therefore indirectly impacted desire and behavioural intentions of tourists visiting Korea (Lee et al., 2020). Song et al. (2014) conducted a study of an oriental medicine festival, where attitude mediated the effect of two additional components (destination image, perception of oriental medicine) on desire to travel. Contrary to most researchers that investigate how additional variables impact desire, Xu et al. (2021) have examined how desire to travel impacted cruises tourists' preparedness to presume Non-Pharmaceutical Interventions for Covid-19.

The adoption of supplementary variables aids tourism researchers to extend their theoretical models and improve the predicting ability of MBG. Such extensions make the MBG framework more applicable to various sectors of the tourism industry and can help to investigate how specific components impact the desire to travel and the following traveler behaviour intentions. In the case of perceived risks and uncertainties, the conceptual MGB model can be extended to include factors that will help to measure perceived risks and uncertainties and evaluate their impact on the desire to travel.

## 1.2 Tourist motivation

Crompton and McKay (1997) define tourism motivation as “ a dynamic process of internal psychological factors (needs and wants) that generate a state of tension or disequilibrium within individuals”. Motivation refers to the principles that guide the initial stages, direction, intensity and persistence of goal-directed behaviour (Ryan & Deci, 2020). It is the internal state or condition that energizes, directs and sustains behaviour towards a desired outcome (Reeve, 2018). Iso-Ahola (1984) described travel motivation as a process in which an individual's needs, desires and interests interact with situational and environmental factors to generate a desire to travel. Similarly, (Dann, 1981) outlined travel motivation as the internal and external factors that stimulate an individual's interest and desire to travel. The groundwork of Crompton (1979), Dann (1981) and Iso-Ahola (1984) has contributed to the development of understanding of how motivation affects the field of tourism. In tourist behaviour studies, motivation is a central construct as it helps to explain why tourists form motives to engage in certain behaviours and make particular choices (McKercher et al., 2021; Cannon & Rucker, 2022). Travel motivation have been extensively researched to provide insights on various aspects of tourism, such as the influence on re-visit intention (Huang & Hsu, 2009; Li et al., 2010; Hasan et al., 2017), destination image (O’Leary & Deegan, 2005; Yiap, 2020; Pereira et al., 2022; Chi & Pham, 2022), tourist segmentation (Park & Yoon, 2009; Albayrak & Caber, 2018; Carrascosa-López et al., 2021), tourist engagement (Villamediana-Pedrosa et al., 2020), emotions experienced during travel (Lin and Nawijn 2020), usage of air travel (Gössling et al., 2019; Lin & Zhang, 2021), rural tourism (Park & Yoon, 2009; Cao et al., 2022), senior travellers (Jang et al., 2009; Lu et al., 2016; Seyanont, 2017; Wijaya et al., 2018). According to Ryan and Deci (2000) self-determination theory, there are two main types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation is characterized by engaging in an activity for its inherent pleasure, interest, or challenge, whereas extrinsic motivation involves engaging in an activity to attain some external reward or avoid punishment. In general, leisure tourism research studies tend to focus on the intrinsic motivation aspect (Murphy et al., 2007; Jang et al., 2009; Sie et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020). Mokhtarian et al. (2015) stated that travel is a behaviour that is driven by internal motivations, thus depending on extrinsic motivations could lead to a significant underestimation of the true demand for travel experiences. Other authors have categorized motivation into different types or dimensions, such as either approach or avoidance, with approach motivation being driven by the desire to obtain a positive outcome (Wimmer et al., 2018), while avoidance motivation stems from a desire to avert an unfavourable result (Elliot & Covington, 2001). In correspondence, certain researchers have looked into de-motivating factors that influence not to participate in travel behaviour (Farmaki et al., 2019; Aebli et al., 2021). To conclude, travel motivation is a dynamic process impacted by internal

psychological elements as well as external stimuli that create a state of tension inside individuals, driving goal-directed behaviour and tourism decisions. Individuals' needs, preferences, and interests combine with contextual and environmental elements to generate a desire to travel.

### **1.2.1 Tourist motivation theories**

Iso-Ahola (1982) suggested “optimal arousal” theory to explain leisure tourist motivation. It included four motivational dimensions: personal escape, personal seeking, interpersonal escape and interpersonal seeking. The two main factors of the theory were “escaping” (routine environments) and “seeking” (intrinsic rewards). Snepenger et al. (2006) found that all four motivation dimensions are significant intrinsic motivational drives for traveller behaviour. Iso-Ahola (1983) proposed that the two primary travel motives, namely escape and seeking, are not entirely distinct and can coexist within an individual's travel decision-making process. In other words, the two motivations can be compatible with one another, and an individual might be motivated by both escape and seeking novelty at the very same time when making their travel choices. However, some researchers have criticized the theory for being too broad and not providing a clear understanding of the underlying factors that drive travel motivation (McKercher et al., 2021).

Maslow's (1969) Hierarchy of Needs has been a widely influential theory in the study of human motivation, including in the context of tourism Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) built on Maslow's framework to develop the “Travel Career Ladder,” a model for understanding travel motivation that suggests individuals may progress through a series of stages or levels of travel involvement over time. However, the model was criticized for being too rigid and assuming a linear progression of motivation progression, and thus providing difficulties in empirically measuring tourist motives and psychographic characteristics (Yoo et al., 2018). Pearce and Lee (2005) proposed the “Travel Career Approach” as a more flexible and dynamic alternative. This approach acknowledges the potential for movement both within and between different stages of travel involvement, as well as the role of personal and contextual factors in shaping an individual's travel motivations and experiences. Pearce and Lee (2005) findings showed that the most crucial elements in determining travel motivation are novelty, escape/relaxation and relationships, which correspond to the “push” and “pull” motives.

Plog's (2002) Model of Personality Types is another well-known model in tourism research that attempts to explain tourism motivation through the lens of personality types. According to Plog, individuals can be classified into two main types: “allocentrics”, individuals who are adventurous and motivated by the desire for new experiences and sensations, and “psychocentrics”, who are more cautious, security-oriented and are motivated by the desire for relaxation, comfort and predictability.

Plog's model suggests that different personality types are attracted to different types of tourism experiences, and that tourism destinations can be classified as either “mass-tourist” or “niche-tourist” based on the dominant personality type of their visitors. Mass-tourist destinations, such as theme parks or beach resorts, tend to attract psychocentric individuals who seek familiar experiences and value comfort. Niche-tourist destinations, such as ecotourism or adventure tourism, tend to attract allocentric individuals who seek new and exciting experiences (Plog, 2002). However, some researchers criticize Plog's model because it does not adequately explain tourist motivations or predict tourist behaviour (Huang & Hsu, 2009). Different motivations to travel may arise for tourists depending on the circumstances such as the season or the travel destination (Bigné et al., 2005). Additionally, the psychographic segmentation suggested by Plog might not be constant and could change over time (Park & Jang, 2014). As a result, Plog's model by itself can be insufficient to describe how tourists choose their destinations and behave while traveling.

Although travel motives and travel motivation are related concepts, they have different meanings. Langens and McClelland (1997) argued that motivation refers to the reason why people engage in a particular behaviour, while motives are the factors that drive or influence that behaviour. In the context of tourism, unfulfilled travel motives can be seen as a driving force that incentivizes tourists to relieve the internal psychological tension (Kruger et al., 2018). The internal and external motivations of travellers - referred to as “push” and “pull” - have long served as the foundation of a popular theory of travel motivation (Kim et al., 2003; Chan & Baum, 2007; Chang et al., 2014; Baniya & Paudel, 2016; Whyte, 2017). Crompton (1979) was one of the first scholars that defined travel motives as the underlying reasons or motivations that drive individuals to engage in travel activities. He suggested that these motives can be categorized into two distinct groups: push factors that drive individuals away from their usual environment and pull factors that attract them to a particular destination. In the past, it was believed that pull motives were ultimately in charge of determining where to go after push motives had only initially established a desire to travel (Dann, 1977). In total nine motives were discovered by Crompton (1979) that motivate tourists to engage in pleasure vacations. Seven “Push” motives were described as “socio-psychological impulses” and refer to the internal factors or needs that compel individuals to seek out new travel experiences, escape from a perceived mundane environment, exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships, facilitation of social interaction. The two remaining motives, novelty and education, were identified to reflect the characteristics of the destination and assigned to the 'pull' component. After push motivation has been taken place, pull factors are those that entice a person to a particular destination (Jang et al., 2009). Thus push factors refer to internal factors within

an individual that create the inclination or urge to travel, while pull factors are external elements originating from destination attractions that evoke interest and desire for travel (Whyte, 2017).

Overall, among the various theories of tourist motivation, including Iso-Ahola's Optimal Arousal theory, Plog's Model of Personality Types, and Pearce and Lee's Travel Career Approach, the Push and Pull theory is commonly employed in studies examining the factors that drive individuals to engage in tourism activities. This theory offers a comprehensive understanding of the internal motivations (push) and external attractions (pull) that influence people's decisions to travel. By considering both these dimensions, the push and pull theory provides valuable insights into the complex dynamics of tourist motivation. Its widespread use in research highlights its significance as a guiding framework for investigating the diverse range of factors that contribute to individuals' desire to explore and experience different destinations.

### **1.2.2 Travel motives categorization**

According to the push and pull theory, travel motives can be classified into multiple dimensions. Park and Yoon (2009) identified “relaxation” as a core travel motivation factor. This was further supported by Ma and Chow (2018) who found that “relaxation” was the most important motivation for respondents to travel. Van der Merwe et al. (2011) also found that “relaxation and escape” was the most significant motivation for tourists to visit marine destinations. Similarly, Chen and Bao (2014) discovered that “relaxation and escape” was a motivating factor for Chinese backpackers.

Dann (1977) recognized two major forces underpinning travel motivation as anomie and ego-enhancement. Furthermore, Dubois and Gibbs (2018) proposed that ego-enhancement, fantasy, status and prestige are internal motives that can pull potential visitors to a destination. Fodness (1994) suggested that ego-enhancement derives from the need for recognition and status. Tse (2015) identified ego-enhancement as one of the factors motivating Chinese travellers to visit the United States, and Yiap (2020) found that Malaysian Muslim tourists were motivated by ego-enhancement and prestige. The subjective perception of the prestige motivation to travel and the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on it were also explored by Kuhn et al. (2022). Furthermore, Social relationships and connection may drive a tourist to travel with relatives or close companions (Kim et al., 2019). Additionally, socialization and the opportunity to spend time with the family have been found as significant motives encouraging individuals to take a holiday (Ng & Ho 2018). Moreover, novelty seeking was found to be the most important travel motivation factor among Taiwanese seniors (Jang et al., 2009) and the motivation to explore rural areas was also influenced by novelty and learning (Park & Yoon, 2009). The dimension of novelty in travel motivation was shown to have a direct

impact on behavioural intention (Li & Cai, 2012) and was found to be a factor that visitors with higher environmental concerns tended to travel for (Cheung & Fok, 2014). These travel motive dimensions encompass a wide range of motivational factors, including personal desires for exploration, novelty, relaxation, and escape (push), as well as external attractions, amenities, and opportunities available at the destination (pull). By examining these dimensions, researchers gain a deeper understanding of the complex interplay between individual motivations and destination characteristics that shape travel behaviour.

### **1.2.3 Factors influencing tourist motives**

Studies related to tourism have also examined the ways in which nationality influences the underlying motives for traveling. Kozak and Rimmington (2000) found that pull factors such as overall value for money, quality accommodation, level of service at the accommodation and feelings of safety and security have an impact on British tourists on the intentions to visit Mallorca, Spain. The motivation of British tourists to travel to Turkey was also evaluated and results show that natural and cultural-historical sites, diversity of entertainment and different socio-cultural environment are one of the main motivating factors (Andreu et al., 2005). Another study by Kozak (2002) compared how British and German tourists differ in their motivations to visit two different destinations - Mallorca and Turkey. Albayrak (2018) analysed German tourist motivations to participate in adventure tourism in Turkey and segmented the travellers accordingly. A study on German travellers visiting Scandinavian mountains found five motivating factors - nature, focus on self, freedom, relationships and experience (Garms et al., 2017). Wu et al. (2009) explored Chinese tourists motivations for domestic travel and uncovered that certain destination attributes, such as cultural and historical attractions, natural resources, novelty and uniqueness, the cost of the trip, accommodation availability and trip cost, were important to the Chinese travellers. Whereas according to Lu et al. (2016) Chinese tourists' reasons for traveling abroad included knowledge enhancement, self-fulfilment, sensation seeking, socializing, pleasure seeking and escape motives. Jin et al. (2016) explored Chinese, Japanese and Westerners (Europeans and North Americans) tourists motivations and identified five “push” and “pull” factors: Self-development/Novelty, Kinship/relax, Proximity, Self-enhancement and Escape/relax. Overall, people from different countries can have distinct values, beliefs and travel behaviours shaped by their cultural background and upbringing. These cultural differences can manifest in diverse travel motives and preferences.

Moreover, there is a well-established link between tourist motives to travel and destination choice. Many studies have investigated the relationship between these two variables and have shown that for example, that travel destination can significantly influence the decision-making process of

tourists (Pereira et al., 2022). For example, Chi and Phuong (2022) found that Vietnam's city image will positively affect tourists with motives of knowledge enhancement, seeking, self-fulfilment, socializing and escape perceived, which in turn will increase their intention to travel to those locations. In O'Leary and Deegan (2005) study, the relationship between Ireland's destination image, destination attributes, and the motives that lead French tourists to choose it as a travel destination was analysed. Tourists are attracted to destinations that match their motives and preferences, and the image of the destination plays a crucial role in shaping their perceptions and expectations (Chi & Pham, 2022). Other studies have looked into how different motives can influence to visit an unknown destination (Kim et al., 2021). This motive is associated with the inclination to depart from a familiar setting and explore an unfamiliar destination (Dann, 1981). Mohaidin et al. (2017) examined how tourist motivation and destination image can influence the intention to visit a sustainable tourist destination. Carvache-Franco et al. (2022) undertook a study investigating the underlying motivation that drove various sociodemographic groups of tourists to visit an ecosite in Costa Rica and found such motives as nature, escapism, self-development, and building personal relationships to be impactful. Regarding ecotourism, López-Guzmán et al. (2014) identified eight distinct motivational dimensions, including interpersonal relationships, self-development, escape, building personal relationships, nature, ego-defensive function, rewards and fun, which drive tourists to visit natural parks located in the Spanish Mediterranean area. Prebensen (2005) conducted a segmentation study to identify the various motives that drive tourists to travel to warmer climate destinations in Southern Europe. A later study by Prebensen et al. (2010) aimed to analyse the motivational factors that drive tourists to travel to sun and sand destinations and found two "sun and warmth-related", "fitness and health-related" push motives and two "escapism-related" and "culture and nature-related" pull motives. Additionally, travel motivations of tourists who decide to visit marine destinations and beaches were analysed – destination attractiveness and escape and relaxation were two of the most significant factors (Van der Merwe et al., 2011). A recent study conducted by Valverde-Roda et al. (2022) examined how the culinary scene of a destination can play a significant role in the destination selection process of tourists. Specifically, the study analysed the influence of gastronomical and cultural motivations on the travel decisions of tourists visiting Granada, Spain. Similarly, López-Guzmán et al. (2014) analysed what motivates tourists to explore wine regions in Spain. In conclusion, travel motives play a pivotal role in destination choice, as they serve as the underlying drivers that guide individuals' decisions and preferences when selecting a specific travel destination.

Tourist motives to travel are closely connected not only to destination choice but also to the type of trip the tourist chooses. According to Pereira et al. (2022), there are different types of journeys that a traveller may participate in, such as business trips or travelling to see family members, and

among these distinctions, vacation travel for enjoyment and/or leisure has attracted the most research attention among these causes for visiting a place. Different trip types can satisfy different motives, such as adventure, relaxation, or cultural immersion. For instance, a tourist who is motivated by cultural immersion might choose a trip type that allows them to explore local traditions, heritage, and history (Wijaya et al., 2018; Wen et al., 2019). On the other hand, a tourist who is motivated by adventure might choose a trip type that involves outdoor activities and exploration (Bui & Kiatkawsin, 2020). Bichler and Peters (2021) found that adventure tourists participating in hiking are motivated by relaxation, discovery and socializing. Meanwhile Giddy (2018) found that Novelty, Nature and Escapism are one of the significant ‘push’ factors motivating tourists to participate in adventure tourism. Chan and Baum (2007) explored ecotourist motivating factors and found that natural-attractions and eco-activities served as destination attributes, otherwise known as pull factors, while escape and self-fulfilment were regarded as push factors. Similarly, ‘Nature’ was one of the main motivating factors for tourists to visit the Spanish Mediterranean area (Carrascosa-López et al., 2021). Another study focusing on tourists’ intention to participate in eco-tourism and found escape, excitement, knowledge-seeking and self-development to be motivating factors (Chi & Pham, 2022). Several studies have examined the influence of religion on travel behaviour, and it has been shown that religious beliefs and practices can play a vital role in determining the travel motives of individuals. Battour and Ismail (2014) investigated Islamic tourist segment in Malaysia and found that Religion significantly moderates the relationship between pull motivation (natural scenery, different culture, wide space & activities, modern atmosphere, cleanness & shopping,) and tourist satisfaction. Similarly, motivations of the Russian and German tourists visiting Saint Nicholas Church, a pilgrimage site in Antalya were investigated, with the results providing that religion was once again a significant motivating factor (Bideci & Albayrak, 2016). To summarise, tourists choose destinations and trip types that match their motives, preferences, and needs, and their decision-making process is influenced by various factors such as personal, social, and cultural influences.

### **1.3 Perceived risk**

Risk perception is a field of study that has interested researchers for many decades. Bauer (1960) has been the first to introduce the concept of risk into consumer behaviour research. The basis of his findings was extended by Taylor (1974) who defined risk and uncertainty as equivalent concepts that the consumer faces when he must make a choice, whose outcomes can only be determined in the future. The author argues that consumers deal with two types of perceived risk - uncertainty about the outcome and uncertainty about the consequences – and in both situations the consumers suffer psychological, social and functional and economic losses. Meanwhile Kaplan and Szybillo (1974) research highlighted the diverse aspects of risk that individuals consider when making decisions, encompassing concerns related to the financial implications, the ability of a product or service to perform as expected, potential harm to one's physical well-being, psychological factors such as anxiety or fear, and social consequences. In their seminal work, Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) endeavoured to gain insights into the nature of leisure travel by adopting a perceived risk framework and their analysis encompassed various dimensions of risk, including equipment, financial, physical, psychological, satisfaction, social and time risks. The findings of their study indicated that the perception of risks and subsequent travel behaviours exhibit a context-dependent nature, implying that tourists hold distinct risk perceptions towards different destinations. This underscores the necessity of examining destination-specific risk perceptions in order to attain a comprehensive understanding of tourist behaviour. Other researchers have identified additional risk dimensions, such as the perceived risk of time loss and opportunity loss (Roselius, 1971; Mitchell, 1992; Mitchell & Harris, 2005). Mitchell (1992) defined time loss as “the risk that the consumer will waste time, lose convenience or waste effort in getting a service redone”, but due to the difficulty of measuring this concept, it is often omitted from risk related research (Falahuddin et al., 2021).

Travelling is a volatile industry that is easily affected by various risks and leisure travellers make decisions corresponding to their perceptions of estimated dangers. In an overview of tourism risk perceptions Cui et al. (2016) found that tourism risk perception could be categorized into three perspectives, which are “subjective feelings, objective evaluation and the cognition of exceeding the threshold portion of the negative consequences or negative impact that may occur during travel”. Gao and Chen (2022) noted that many risk perception studies, related to the tourism and travel industry, tend to highlight the cognitive risk factors and ignore emotional risk dimensions, such as anxiety and fear. Law (2006) has identified three main types of risks (infectious diseases, terrorist attacks and natural disasters) associated with international travel that influence travellers' perception. From this, two main dimensions of perceived risk factors emerge – the subjective factors, which cover psychosocial processes of the individual, and objective factors that can negatively affect the travel

experience (Cui et al., 2016). In tourism research, most commonly perceived risk factors are viewed as objective factors, therefore as a multidimensional. Floyd et al (2003) categorized travel risk into financial, health, physical, crime, terrorism, social, psychological and natural disaster components. Most commonly, researchers in travel related studies will equip the five dimension risk measurement model that consists of financial risks, psychological risks, performance risks, health risks and social risks (Cui et al., 2016).

Corresponding with existing traveller behaviour research it was examined that tourists would choose to travel to places with little chance of risk and where the severity of dangers was minimal (Floyd et al., 2008; Law, 2006; Lepp & Gibson, 2008; Cahyanto & Liu-Lastres, 2020). (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005a) found that perceived health and financial risks have a negative association with the motivation for travel. International tourists are inclined to choose destinations where the likelihood of falling ill, sustaining physical injuries and as well as the likelihood of receiving inadequate value for the cost incurred is minimal. Travelers, that display a lower risk perception are more likely to have stronger behavioural intentions to participate in leisure tourism (Tavitiyaman & Qu, 2013).

Rahmafitria et al. (2021) found that perceived risk affected tourist behaviour during the Covid-19 pandemic as the intention to travel is more strongly influenced by perceived risk when attitude and behavioural control are used as mediators. Similar results were found by (Abraham et al., 2021) where willingness to travel during the pandemic was negatively associated with perceived travel risk. Overall, there is significant proof that leisure tourists' perceived risk-related factors have a negative impact on the antecedent components of desire and on behaviour intention (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005; Loureiro & L. Jesus, 2019; Golets et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022). In short, scholars have explored various dimensions of perceived risk, including uncertainty about outcomes and consequences, financial implications, performance concerns, physical well-being, psychological factors, social consequences and time and opportunity losses. Ultimately, leisure tourists' perceptions of risk-related factors have a negative influence on their desire and behavioural intentions.

### **1.3.1 Perceived uncertainties as risks**

Tourism risk perception refers to visitors' assessments of the degree of uncertainty connected with the outcomes and procedures inherent in tourism activities (Cui et al., 2016). Although the most common perception is that uncertainties and risks are synonymous concepts, there have been arguments that these variables should be separated (Quintal et al., 2010; Stewart, 2021; Yang & Wibowo, 2022). In such literature, risk is defined as a measurable variable, that possesses identifiable outcomes and consequently, probabilities assigned to the outcomes. Whereas uncertainty cannot be quantified as there can be several potential outcomes, some of them which could be unmeasurable or

unknown. A study done by Yang and Wibowo (2022) examined how various risks and uncertainties, perceived by tourists, can affect travel intentions of leisure tourists. Perceived risk and uncertainty were approached as two separate concepts and categorized as follows: perceived financial risk, perceived performance risk, perceived physical risk and perceived socio-psychological risk; perceived choice uncertainty, perceived knowledge uncertainty, perceived needs uncertainty and perceived outcome uncertainty. Yang and Wibowo (2020) noted that the influence of leisure traveller's perceived uncertainty on their perceived risks may vary since they are multidimensional entities, but the study had limitations due to only overviews domestic tourists visit intentions in China amid the pandemic. In a study performed by Quintal et al. (2010), perceived risk and perceived uncertainty were identified as two separate, multi-dimensional concepts that were integrated in an extended TPB model. Perceived risk impacted the attitudes towards visiting Australia, and perceived uncertainty impacted the attitude and perceived behavioural control. Quintal et al. (2010) found that perceived risk and perceived uncertainty negatively affected behavioural intention, but due to three different travel groups, only directional support was examined. Nevertheless, many studies still include uncertainty in the definition of risk, such as Cho (2006) emphasizing uncertainty as the primary component shaping the perception of risk, Choe et al. (2022) stating that travellers seek to reduce uncertainty, and therefore risk, by employing various risk reduction strategies and (Hanafiah et al., 2022) writing that substantial significance events such as the pandemic create uncertainty which becomes a part of the perceived risks for tourists.

Despite the fact that the relationship between perceived risks and uncertainty, and travel intention in the tourism and hospitality industry has been analysed quite extensively, the effect of perceived risks and uncertainties on desire to travel has not been well-researched. The existing studies analysed the impact of war and terrorism on travel desire and risk judgements (Larsen et al., 2011), how perceived risks impact the desire to revisit a destination (Tiam Chin et al., 2021) and the moderating influence of travel desire towards attitudes concerning COVID-19 vaccinations and intentions to get the vaccine, with perceived vaccination risk affecting attitudes and intentions (Larsen et al., 2011). Contradictorily, Loureiro & Jesus (2019) research provided information that even though perceived travel risks will significantly affect the destination image, tourists desire to visit a destination might still remain. Despite the extensive body of research in the risk field, the impact of perceived risk on the desire to travel remains relatively understudied, warranting further investigation in the academic literature. The extended MGB model in the study suggests that the predictive power of perceived risks could be increased by adding desire as a mediating variable – as multiple studies confirmed the impact of emotional, cognitive and behavioural variables on desire, and therefore, behaviour intentions (Song et al., 2014; J. Wang et al., 2020; Yang & Wibowo, 2022).

### 1.3.2 Types of risks

Researchers in the field of tourism have identified multiple categories of perceived risk experienced by tourists. To begin, in terms of visitors' perception of health risk, research results on the impact of health risk on destination choice and travel behaviour variate (Perić et al., 2021). For example, according to the findings Jonas et al. (2010) study, health risk perception rates quite high when compared to other categories of risk perception, whereas other research states that large number of travellers that are unaware of the health risks abroad (Dahlgren et al., 2009; El-Ghitany et al., 2018). Additionally, variations in perception patterns concerning health risks associated with travel may exist among different groups of travellers, such health risks that may be inadequately perceived include sexually transmitted infections (STIs) and accidents (Zimmermann et al., 2013). Nevertheless, the health concerns that present during travel determine visitors' risk perception, which may have an impact on the intention to travel, behaviour during the trip and destination choice (Kozak et al., 2007). In recent decades, there has been a discernible escalation in the prevalence of viral infections and epidemics worldwide, with these infectious diseases transcending national borders and spreading beyond their original geographic origins. Examples of infectious diseases that have spread globally include influenza (Lee et al., 2012), Zika virus (Hugo & Miller, 2017), Ebola virus disease (Novelli et al., 2018), severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) (Zeng et al., 2005), have made a significant impact on the tourism industry. Notably, COVID-19 is the most recent and visible example of a disease that has swiftly spread throughout the globe, showing the growing worldwide interdependence and vulnerability to infectious epidemics. Numerous research studies have indicated that the impact of Covid-19 on the perceived health risk has been substantial, subsequently leading to a detrimental effect on individuals' inclination or willingness to engage in travel activities (Luo & Lam, 2020; Radic et al., 2020; Chua et al., 2021; Perić et al., 2021). Individuals' perceptions and assessments of potential health concerns associated with travel during the pandemic have profoundly affected their decision-making processes and actions, with considerable consequences for the international travel sector (Chua et al., 2021).

The perception of financial risk holds substantial influence over tourists' travel choices and behaviours. It encompasses the uncertainty surrounding the expenses associated with tourism activities, as well as the potential monetary loss resulting from unexpected situations (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992). When individuals perceive a higher level of financial risk associated with travel, such as concerns over expenses exceeding their budget, unforeseen costs or economic instability at their destination, it can create a sense of apprehension and hesitation towards travel (Fuchs & Reichel, 2008). The fear of incurring substantial financial burdens or experiencing unfavourable financial outcomes acts as a deterrent, reducing the desire to embark on travel ventures. (Chew & Jahari, 2014)

found that perceived financial risks, mediated by destination image, influenced tourists' decision to revisit. Conversely, when individuals perceive lower financial risks, such as clear cost transparency, affordability and favourable economic conditions, their desire to travel may be enhanced, as they feel more confident in the financial aspects of their journey.

The perceived uncertainty or apprehension about a travel product's or service's ability to meet expected performance or quality standards is referred to as performance, or sometimes as service (Fuchs & Reichel, 2008), risk in tourism (An et al., 2010). It involves concerns about whether the chosen accommodation, transportation, attractions, or other elements of the travel experience will deliver the desired level of satisfaction or fulfil the anticipated benefits (Casidy & Wymer, 2016). Travelers may worry about aspects such as poor service quality, subpar facilities, lack of reliability, or underwhelming experiences, all of which contribute to performance risk (Boksberger et al., 2007).

When travellers perceive a higher level of performance risk associated with a destination, accommodation, or activity, they may feel less motivated to engage in travel or may choose to travel to a different destination that they perceive as less risky (Chew & Jahari, 2014). This is because performance risk is closely tied to the level of uncertainty and unpredictability that travellers feel regarding their travel experience (Hanafiah et al., 2022). When tourists perceive a high level of risk, they may worry that their trip will not meet their expectations or that they will not have a satisfying experience.

In summary, the concept of perceived risk has been explored by researchers in the field of consumer behaviour, highlighting its importance in decision-making processes. Various dimensions of perceived risk have been identified, including uncertainty about outcomes and consequences, financial implications, product or service performance, physical well-being, psychological factors, social consequences and opportunity loss. Within the tourism context, destination-specific risk perceptions have been found to play a crucial role in understanding tourist behaviour. Additionally, the emotional dimensions of risk, such as anxiety and fear, have been recognized as significant factors influencing risk perception. Research suggests that perceived risk negatively affects travel intentions and desire, with studies indicating that tourists are more likely to choose destinations with lower risk perceptions. Furthermore, during the Covid-19 pandemic, perceived risk has shown a stronger influence on travel intentions, emphasizing its impact on tourist behaviour. Overall, the evidence supports the notion that perceived risk-related factors have a detrimental effect on desire and behavioural intentions in leisure tourism.

## 2. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 2.1 Research model and hypotheses

Tenerife is a popular travel destination, known for its warm climate, beautiful beaches and natural attractions such as Mount Teide. As a result, it is likely to attract a diverse range of tourists with different motives for visiting the island, providing ample opportunity to study the factors that influence their travel decision-making. Tenerife also has a well-developed tourism industry with a wide range of accommodation options, restaurants, and tourist activities. Finally, Tenerife's location as a Spanish island in the Atlantic Ocean, its position as a European vacation hotspot, and its diverse tourist profile make it an interesting case study for understanding the dynamics of travel motivation and destination choice in the context of international tourism.

**Aim of the empirical research** – to collect empirical data and, based on its analysis, to find out what is the influence of perceived risks and motivations on the desire to travel to Tenerife.

The following research part will rely on the theoretical part of the paper and the conceptual research model (Figure 3). In this study, the extended model of goal-directed behaviour was employed as the theoretical framework to investigate the factors influencing desire to travel. The research model incorporates several key constructs, including (push and pull) travel motives, perceived risks, attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control and desire to travel. According to the model, travel motives and perceived risks are considered as influential factors that directly impact attitudes and subjective norms, whereas perceived risks are estimated to also affect perceived behavioural control. These attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, in turn, play a significant role in shaping individuals' desire to travel.

The inclusion of travel motives (push and pull) in the model allows for a comprehensive understanding of the underlying factors that drive individuals' travel behaviour. Push motives represent internal factors that compel individuals to seek travel experiences, such as the desire for relaxation or adventure, while pull motives encompass external factors that attract individuals to specific destinations, such as cultural attractions or natural scenery.

Perceived risks, another essential construct in the model, acknowledges the potential barriers or uncertainties associated with travel, including health risks, financial risks and service risks. By considering perceived risks as an influencing factor, the study aims to assess their impact on individuals' attitudes and subjective norms, which can subsequently shape their desire to travel. Furthermore, perceived risks, such as Covid-19 health risk, financial risk, or service risk, are likely

to influence individuals' perceptions of their own ability to engage in a particular behaviour, in this case, travel to Tenerife. When individuals perceive higher risks associated with travel, they may perceive lower control over their ability to carry out the behaviour. As a result, perceived risks could have a direct impact on perceived behavioural control.

On the other hand, motives to travel, such as seeking relaxation, novelty, or cultural experiences, may not directly influence individuals' perceived control over their travel behaviour. Motives are more closely related to one's desires, interests, and preferences for engaging in travel, rather than perceptions of control. While motives can influence attitudes and subjective norms towards travel, they may not necessarily impact perceived behavioural control, which focuses more on individuals' beliefs about their own capability to perform the behaviour.

The theoretical analysis allowed to identify several factors and highlighted which of them were the most important. Those factors were used in the empirical research. **The following hypotheses are set in this paper:**

There is evidence to suggest that the perceived health risks associated with Covid-19 have a negative impact on various factors related to travel behaviour. Specifically, research has indicated that perceived Covid-19 health risks have a negative influence on perceived behavioural control, attitudes, subjective norms, and desire to travel (Kement et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022). For instance, Qiu et al. (2020) and Meng et al. (2021) found individuals may feel less in control of their travel decisions due to concerns about health risks, which in turn can negatively affect their attitudes towards travel and influence the subjective norms of others around them (Golets et al., 2021b). Moreover, the perceived health risks associated with Covid-19 may lead to a decrease in individuals' desire to travel due to concerns about their personal safety and the safety of others (Yang & Wibowo, 2022). Overall, it appears that perceived Covid-19 health risks have a significant impact on the various factors that influence travel behaviour, and understanding these effects is crucial for developing effective strategies to encourage travel in the current context.

**H1: Perceived Covid health risk negatively impacts perceived behavioural control**

**H2: Perceived Covid health risk negatively impacts attitudes**

**H3: Perceived Covid health risk negatively impacts subjective norms**

Several studies have suggested that perceived financial risks have a negative impact on various aspects of travel behaviour (Fuchs & Reichel, 2011; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005; Cui et al., 2016). For instance, it has been stated by Hasan et al. (2017) that perceived financial risks can negatively affect perceived behavioural control, which is an individual's perceived ability to control

their own behaviour. Additionally, Huang and Hsu (2009) analysed that attitudes towards travel can also be negatively impacted by perceived financial risks. This is because individuals may perceive that the cost of travel is too high, leading them to develop negative attitudes towards travel. Finally, subjective norms, which are social norms that influence an individual's behaviour, can also be negatively impacted by perceived financial risks (Hasan et al., 2017).

**H4: Perceived financial risk negatively impacts perceived behavioural control**

**H5: Perceived financial risk negatively impacts attitudes**

**H6: Perceived financial risk negatively impacts subjective norms**

Perceived service risk, often identified as performance risk in other studies, is a significant factor in travel decision-making as it influences how customers perceive the likelihood of experiencing service failure or unsatisfactory service encounters during their travel experience (Fuchs & Reichel, 2008). This risk can result from the uncertainty about the quality of the services provided by a destination or travel supplier. Research shows that tourists' perceptions of risks related to perceived service can reduce their perceived control over the travel process (Hasan et al., 2017), leading to negative attitudes towards the travel experience, and decreasing their willingness to engage in the behaviour (Cui et al., 2016). Additionally, perceived service risk can also negatively affect subjective norms by creating negative word-of-mouth and influencing the opinions of others about the destination or travel supplier (Çetinsöz & Ege, 2013).

**H7: Perceived service risk negatively impacts perceived behavioural control**

**H8: Perceived service risk negatively impacts attitudes**

**H9: Perceived service risk negatively impacts subjective norms**

Natural scenery and environment are often cited as major motivations for travel, particularly for ecotourism and nature-based tourism (Chan & Baum, 2007; Cheung & Fok, 2014; Chi & Pham, 2022). The beauty and uniqueness of natural landscapes and environments can generate positive emotions and attitudes towards a destination (Adam et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2018). Furthermore, natural attractions can also serve as a point of cultural pride and appreciation, promoting positive subjective norms towards the preservation and conservation of natural resources (Lee et al., 2020).

**H10: Nature appreciation motive positively impacts attitudes**

**H11: Nature appreciation motive positively impacts subjective norms**

Visitors are attracted to cultural and heritage sites because of the unique experiences they offer (Chen et al., 2013). These attractions provide a sense of connection with history and tradition,

enriching the cultural understanding of the visitors (Yiap, 2020). Research indicates that cultural attractions and heritage sites positively impact perceived attitudes and subjective norms towards travelling (Lee et al., 2020). Tourists who visit cultural and heritage sites have more positive attitudes towards the destination and are more likely to recommend it to others, indicating a significant influence of these factors on the decision-making process (Wen et al., 2019).

**H12: Cultural Attractions and Heritage Sites motive positively impacts attitudes**

**H13: Cultural Attractions and Heritage Sites motive positively impacts subjective norms**

Chen et al. (2014) suggested that escape and relaxation are correlated motives and can therefore be included in one motivation factor. Tourists often seek to escape from their daily routines and find relaxation in new environments, which can positively influence their attitudes towards travel (Jin et al., 2016). Moreover, experiencing a sense of relaxation and rejuvenation during travel can create positive memories and perceptions of the destination, leading to a positive impact on subjective norms (Park & Yoon, 2009; Jensen, 2015).

**H14: Escapism and relaxation motive positively impacts attitudes**

**H15: Escapism and relaxation motive positively impacts subjective norms**

Research suggests individuals driven by the desire for novelty and seeking new experiences tend to exhibit more positive attitudes towards travel in general (Jang et al., 2009; Carvache-Franco et al., 2022; Pereira et al., 2022). Novel experiences and the acquisition of new knowledge can positively impact a traveller's perceived attitudes towards a destination, as well as their subjective norms or beliefs about what others think they should do (Huang & Hsu, 2009; Zhang et al., 2020). For example, a traveller who learns about the unique history of a destination may develop a more positive attitude towards it and feel encouraged by social norms to explore and learn more (Lee et al., 2020).

**H16: Novelty and knowledge seeking motive positively impacts attitudes**

**H17: Novelty and knowledge seeking motive positively impacts subjective norms**

Tourists, driven by the desire for fulfilling prestige, also referred to as ego-enhancement, seek to enhance their self-image, status, and social standing through their travel experiences (Yiap, 2020). These individuals prioritize luxurious accommodations, exclusive destinations, and high-end experiences that allow them to display their social status and gain recognition from others (Tse, 2015). As a result, they develop positive attitudes towards travel, perceiving it as a means to showcase their accomplishments and elevate their social identity. This motive also influences subjective norms, as

individuals seeking fulfilling prestige are likely to be influenced by social expectations and norms that promote the pursuit of high-status and exclusive travel experiences (Kuhn et al., 2022).

**H18: Fulfilling prestige motive positively impacts attitudes**

**H19: Fulfilling prestige motive positively impacts subjective norms**

Attitudes, perceived behavioural control, and subjective norms are important factors that contribute to an individual's desire to travel (Huseynov et al., 2020). Research has shown that a positive attitude towards travel, a sense of control over the decision to travel, and the influence of social norms and expectations can increase an individual's motivation to travel (Song et al., 2014; Meng & Choi, 2016; Bui & Kiatkawsin, 2020). Park et al. (2017) stated that individuals with more positive attitudes towards traveling to the destination are more likely to have a stronger desire to engage in that behaviour. Positive subjective norms, characterized by endorsements and social support for tourism engagement, are likely to increase individuals' desire to participate in tourism activities as they perceive conformity with the expectations and preferences of others (Das & Tiwari, 2021). Lastly, positive perceptions of behavioural control are expected to enhance individuals' desire to engage in tourism, as they feel empowered and capable of successfully navigating and enjoying the tourism experience (Song et al., 2014).

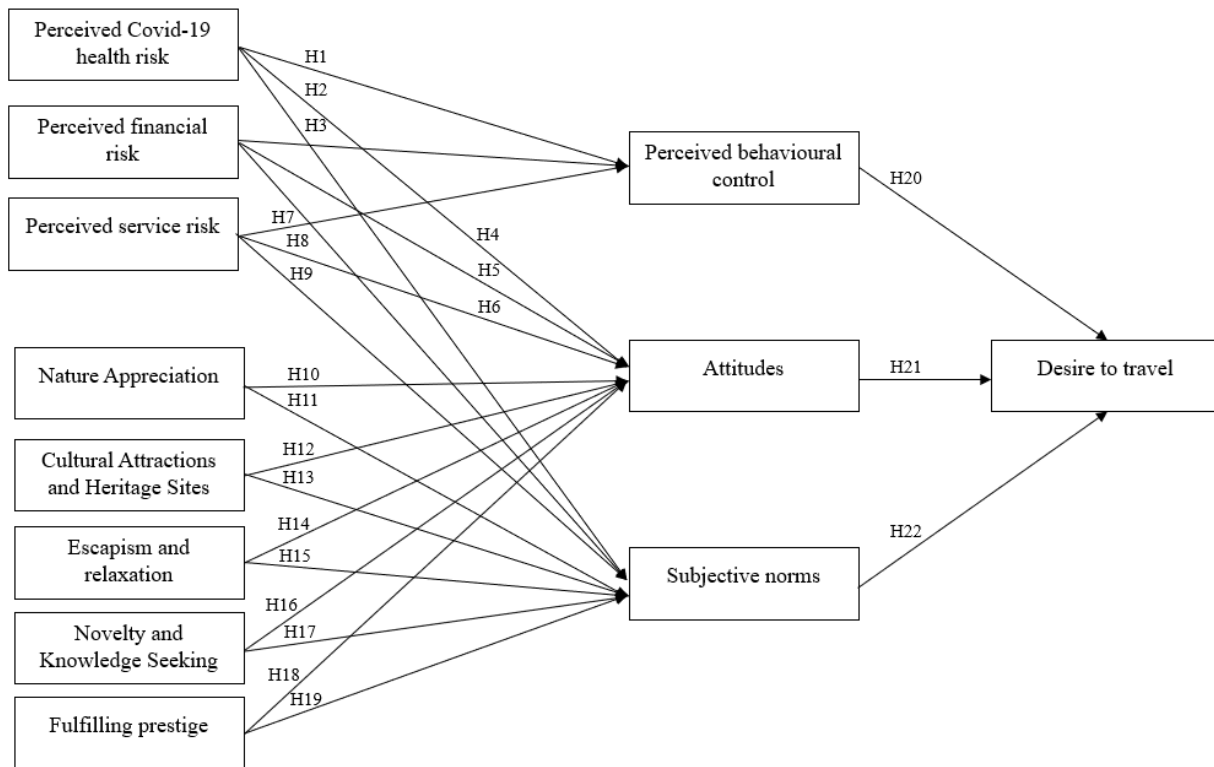
**H20: Attitudes positively impact desire**

**H21: Subjective norms positively impact desire**

**H22: Perceived behavioural control positively impacts desire**

### **Figure 3**

Conceptual research model



Source: prepared by the author based on the research

## 2.2 Methods and procedures for data collection

This study employed an online questionnaire with Liker-scale type questions to perform the quantitative research method, allowing for statistical analysis and interpretation of the data. The selection of an online questionnaire as a research method was based on its numerous advantages. Firstly, an online questionnaire provides a cost-effective and efficient means of data collection, as it eliminates the need for paper-based surveys and the associated printing and mailing costs (Singh & Sagar, 2021). Secondly, the use of an online questionnaire allows for greater reach and accessibility to a wider audience, as it can be easily distributed via social media, email, or other online platforms (Ball, 2019). Thirdly, the online format provides greater flexibility for respondents, allowing them to complete the survey at a time and location of their convenience, thereby increasing response rates (Regmi et al., 2016).

While online questionnaires offer a convenient and cost-effective way to collect data, there are several drawbacks to this research method. One of the main drawbacks is that online questionnaires rely on self-report data, which may not always be accurate or truthful (Wu et al., 2022). Participants may also rush through the survey, leading to incomplete or inconsistent responses. Another drawback is the potential for selection bias, as participants who are more tech-savvy or have a stronger interest in the topic may be more likely to complete the survey (Andrews et al., 2003).

Additionally, online questionnaires may have lower response rates than other methods, as participants may be more likely to ignore or delete survey invitations sent via email or social media (Regmi et al., 2016). Finally, online questionnaires may not be appropriate for certain populations, such as those with limited internet access or who have visual or motor impairments (Andrews et al., 2003) .

In this study, a non-probability convenience sampling method will be employed to inquire individuals about their perceptions of risks and motivations related to a hypothetical journey to Tenerife. Non-probability sampling is chosen as it allows for the selection of participants based on convenience and accessibility, considering the specific target group of individuals interested in travel (Vehovar et al., 2016). By utilizing an online questionnaire, the study will reach a wider audience and gather diverse perspectives on the subject matter. While the findings may not be generalizable to the entire population, the focus on individuals' perceptions and motivations specific to Tenerife will provide valuable insights for understanding the factors influencing travel decisions. The use of a non-probability convenience sampling method is deemed suitable for this research as it enables efficient data collection and analysis within the given resources and time constraints.

A comprehensive investigation of sample sizes across several studies of similar topics was conducted to assess the diversity in participant responses. The study conducted by Van der Merwe et al. (2011) examined the motivations of tourists visiting marine resorts, employing five questionnaires for each analysed destination, resulting in varying response rates: 202, 210, 333, 237 and 153 participants, respectively. In a separate study on push and pull motivations of tourists, Baniya and Paudel (2016) utilized 132 surveys. Similarly, another study investigating tourist motives gathered responses from 184 participants (Kim et al., 2021). Carrascosa-López et al. (2021) explored the Mediterranean region in Spain and obtained 349 responses. Khan et al. (2019) investigated perceived travel risks and motivations, accumulating a sample of 316 participants. Additionally, Caber et al. (2020) examined the moderating role of perceived risk on the relationship between travel motivations and intentions for two destinations, Spain and Greece, with response rates of 150 and 182, respectively. Therefore, the average number of respondents from the studies mentioned in the paragraph is approximately 223.

### **2.3 Research instrument and data collection**

The online questionnaire was created on the “Google Docs” and distributed to participants via e-mail and social networks. The questionnaire was made in English in order to reach an international audience - before beginning the survey respondents were asked to confirm their consent to take the survey in English. The questionnaire was divided into 13 sections: three sections for perceived risks,

five sections for perceived motivation, four sections for components of goal-directed behaviour and desire, and one section for demographics (see Annex 1).

Regarding the demographic criteria, the study aimed to segment the participants into more specific groups based on their age, gender, education level, and income. To align with the research topic's specific requirements, the measurement scales were adopted from previously conducted research and some were subsequently modified. The Likert scale, comprising seven points ranging from 1 - "strongly disagree," 2 - "disagree," 3 - "slightly disagree," 4 - "neither agree nor disagree," 5 - "slightly agree," 6 - "agree," to 7 - "strongly agree," was employed for all questions, excluding the demographic ones. In total the questionnaire included 55 closed-ended questions.

To conform to the peculiarities of the research topic, the measurement scales that have been successfully used in prior studies were used to measure all variables. and part of them were accordingly modified. Perceived Covid-19 health risk was assessed using a 3-item scale adapted from the work of Hanafiah et al. (2022). The original study focused on investigating tourist intentions to travel in the post-pandemic period, and the validity and reliability of the instruments used have been confirmed in the study. For measuring perceived financial risk, a 4-item scale for international tourists developed by Fuchs and Reichel (2008) was employed. The factor was empirically validated in their study, demonstrating a satisfactory Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.71. Similarly, perceived service risk was measured using a 4-item scale derived from the work of Fuchs and Reichel (2008). The study conducted by Fuchs and Reichel (2008) also reported an empirically validated factor with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.75. The measurement of the motives in the model followed established scales from previous research. The measurement of nature appreciation was assessed using a 3-item scale developed by Carvache-Franco et al. (2022), demonstrating satisfactory internal consistency with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.80. The Cultural Attractions and Heritage Sites motive was measured with a 4-item scale developed by Battour and Ismail (2014), with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.82. The measurement of the Escapism and Relaxation motive was conducted utilizing a 4-item scale developed by Jensen (2015), exhibiting sufficient internal consistency with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.83. Seyanont (2017) research was used to measure Novelty and Knowledge Seeking motive using 5-item scale with a reliability of 0.7. Fulfilling prestige motive was assessed using a 3-item scale by Jensen (2015) with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.71.

The components of the model of goal-directed behaviour were adapted from scales developed by Das and Tiwari (2021). In the current study, the construct "travel internationally" was replaced with "travel to Tenerife." All the constructs demonstrated acceptable composite reliability and convergent validity. Attitudes towards the traveling motive were measured using a 6-item scale. Subjective norms towards the traveling motive were assessed with a 4-item scale from the same study.

Perceived behavioural control regarding the traveling motive was measured using a 5-item scale. Lastly, the desire to travel to Tenerife was assessed using a 4-item scale.

The present study employed IBM SPSS (Statistical Product and Service Solutions) software for data analysis. The analysis included computation of Cronbach alpha coefficients, calculation of means for the constructs, tests for normality, as well as linear and multiple regression analyses. Upon obtaining the results, Microsoft Excel software was utilized to visualize the data.

### 3. ANALYSIS OF EMPIRICAL DATA

#### 3.1. Demographic indicators of respondents

Demographics statistics (gender, age, education, occupation) of the respondents will be discussed in this section. In total 202 valid responses were collected in the questionnaire. In regards to gender, 119 (59.2%) respondents identified as female and 82 (40.8%) respondents identified as male. The frequencies indicate that there is a slightly larger proportion of female respondents in the sample than male, hence females were more responsive to the survey.

**Table 1**

*Gender distribution of respondents*

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	119	59.2%
Male	82	40.8%

Source: prepared by the author based on the research

The study surveyed respondents within six age ranges: 18-23, 24-29, 30-35, 36-41, 42-47 and 48-55. The highest frequency of respondents was in the 24-29 age range with 66 participants, representing 32.8% of the total sample. The second highest frequency was 28.9% in the 18-23. The third highest frequency of participants was in the 30-35 age range representing 20.9% of the total sample. The remaining age ranges had smaller frequencies, with 18 participants (9%) in the 36-41 range, 12 participants (6%) in the 42-47 range, and 5 participants (2.5%) in the 48-55 range. Overall, the sample had a relatively wide age range, with most participants falling within the 18-35 age range.

**Table 2**

*Age distribution of respondents*

Age	Frequency	Percent
18-23	58	28,9%
24-29	66	32,8%
30-35	42	20,9%
36-41	18	9%
42-47	12	6%
48-55	5	2,5%

Source: prepared by the author based on the research

The respondents' highest educational attainment was categorized into six groups: less than a high school diploma, high school graduate or equivalent, trade/technical/vocational training, some college credit without a degree, bachelor's degree or equivalent, and master's degree or higher. There were no respondents with an education less than a high school diploma. Among the respondents, 113 of them (56.2%) held a bachelor's degree or equivalent, while 18 (21.9%) had a master's degree or higher. The remaining respondents had educational attainment levels below the bachelor's degree, with 18 (9%) holding a high school diploma or equivalent, 6 (3%) having trade/technical/vocational training, and 20 (10%) having some college credit but no degree.

**Table 3**

*Highest education level distribution of respondents*

Education	Frequency	Percent
Less than a high school diploma	0	0%
High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent	18	9%
Trade, technical or vocational training	6	3%
Some college credit, no degree	20	10%
Bachelor's degree or equivalent	113	56.2%
Master's degree or higher	44	21.9%

Source: prepared by the author based on the research

The data regarding the respondents' occupation status in Table 4 shows that a majority of participants, comprising 135 (67.2%), were employed. A smaller percentage, 6.5% or 13 respondents, identified themselves as self-employed. The category of students represented 49 (29.9%) of the respondents. None of the participants indicated being retired, while a minority of 4 (2%) fell under the "Other" category.

**Table 4**

*Occupation of respondents*

Occupation	Frequency	Percent
Employed	135	67,2%
Self-employed	13	6,5%
Student	49	29,9%
Retired	0	0%
Other	4	2%

Source: prepared by the author based on the research

The data presented in Annex 2 represents the country of origin of the respondents. The majority of 87 respondents originated from Lithuania, comprising 43.3% of the sample. Other countries represented in the sample include Ukraine with 17 respondents (7.5%), Belarus with 11 respondents (5.5%) and Germany with 11 respondents (5.5%). The remaining countries each represented less than 5% of the sample. In total participants from 32 countries were recorded.

### 3.2. Reliability of constructs and computing variables

The reliability of each construct in the study was assessed through the calculation of Cronbach's Alpha coefficients, with the original tables of these coefficients provided in the annexes section. As depicted in Table 5, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from 0.718 to 0.959. Notably, all values exceeded the generally accepted minimum threshold of 0.7, indicating high levels of reliability for all the questionnaire items that were measured. Therefore, it can be concluded that the constructs in the research are reliable based on the calculated Cronbach's Alpha coefficients.

**Table 5**

*Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of the tested constructs*

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha coefficient
Perceived Covid-19 health risk	0.920
Perceived financial risk	0.918
Perceived service risk	0.830
Escapism and relaxation	0.869
Novelty and knowledge seeking	0.902
Fulfilling prestige	0.718
Natural scenery and environment	0.905
Cultural attractions and heritage sites	0.927
Attitudes	0.959
Subjective norms	0.954
Perceived behavioural control	0.922
Desire to travel	0.938

Source: prepared by the author based on the research

The mean values for the constructs, measured on a 1-7 Likert scale, were calculated to provide insights into participants' perceptions. The results revealed that participants perceived financial risk ( $\bar{x}=4.03$ ) as the highest, indicating concerns regarding the potential financial implications associated with travel. Perceived service risk ( $\bar{x}=3.22$ ) was also moderately perceived, suggesting participants' awareness of potential risks related to service quality and reliability. Participants reported the lowest perceived risk for COVID-19 ( $\bar{x}=2.70$ ), indicating a relatively lower level of concern about the health risks associated with the pandemic.

Furthermore, participants expressed a strong inclination towards escapism and relaxation ( $\bar{x}=5.60$ ) and novelty and knowledge seeking ( $\bar{x}=5.55$ ), suggesting that they perceive travel as an opportunity to unwind and explore new experiences and knowledge. This finding highlights the desire for personal rejuvenation and the pursuit of novel experiences among the participants. Moreover, participants showed a high level of interest in cultural attractions and heritage sites ( $\bar{x}=5.48$ ) and natural resources ( $\bar{x}=5.42$ ), indicating a recognition of the value and appeal of these tourism offerings.

Participants exhibited positive attitudes ( $\bar{x}=5.42$ ), indicating a favourable perception of travel in general. The subjective norms ( $\bar{x}=5.45$ ) reported by participants also reflected a social influence that supports travel-related behaviours. Additionally, participants demonstrated a strong desire to travel ( $\bar{x}=4.84$ ), indicating a substantial motivation to engage in travel experiences.

These results suggest that despite the perceived risks, participants maintained positive attitudes and displayed high levels of interest and motivation towards travel. Possible explanations for the relatively lower perceived risk of COVID-19 could include factors such as increased vaccination rates, trust in safety measures implemented by the tourism industry, or a sense of adaptability and resilience developed over time (Ekinci et al., 2022; Gillman et al., 2022; Gursoy et al., 2021). Nonetheless, these findings indicate that participants perceive the benefits and opportunities associated with travel to outweigh the potential risks.

**Table 7**  
*Comparison of means*

Construct	Mean
Perceived Covid-19 health risk	2.698
Perceived financial risk	4.027
Perceived service risk	3.224
Relaxation and escape	5.602
Novelty and knowledge seeking	5.552

Continuation of Table 7

Fulfilling prestige	4.756
Natural scenery and environment	5.425
Cultural attractions and heritage sites	5.481
Attitudes	5.422
Subjective norms	5.453
Perceived behavioural control	4.810
Desire to travel	4.838

Source: prepared by the author based on the research

Prior to hypothesis testing, it is important to examine the normality of the data to ensure that the statistical tests applied are reliable. Normality can be evaluated both numerically and graphically. In this study, normality tests were conducted using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests, with a significance level of 0.05. The results of these tests (see Table 8) indicated that the data did not meet the assumption of normality ( $p < .001$ ). However, the normality of the data can also be assessed graphically, and a normal Q-Q plot was used for this purpose. Field (2013, pp. 185–188) states it is important to note that formal normality tests have their limitations, especially when dealing with large sample sizes. These tests can be overly sensitive and may detect even slight deviations from perfect normality. The aforementioned author argues that in such cases, the Q-Q plot provides a visual assessment of normality, allowing for a more nuanced interpretation of the data distribution. The Q-Q plots, included in Annex 2, indicated that the data for all constructs were normally distributed, with data points close to the diagonal line. Therefore, by considering the Q-Q plot's alignment with the diagonal line and recognizing the limitations of formal tests, one can argue for a reasonably normal data distribution, even if the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests suggest otherwise. Therefore, the assumptions of normality were met and hypothesis testing can proceed.

**Table 8**

*Test of normality*

	Kolmogorov-Smirnova			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Perceived covid-19 risk	0.136	201	<.001	0.909	201	<.001
Perceived financial risk	0.099	201	<.001	0.972	201	<.001
Perceived service risk	0.122	201	<.001	0.963	201	<.001
Escapism and relaxation	0.131	201	<.001	0.933	201	<.001
Novelty and knowledge seeking	0.114	201	<.001	0.930	201	<.001
Fulfilling prestige	0.099	201	<.001	0.968	201	<.001

Continuation of Table 8

Natural resources	0.137	201	<.001	0.918	201	<.001
Cultural attractions and heritage sites	0.126	201	<.001	0.914	201	<.001
Attitudes	0.135	201	<.001	0.920	201	<.001
Subjective norms	0.171	201	<.001	0.916	201	<.001
Perceived behavioural control	0.095	201	<.001	0.964	201	<.001
Desire to travel	0.110	201	<.001	0.941	201	<.001

Source: prepared by the author based on the research

### 3.3 Hypotheses testing

Firstly, multiple regression analysis was conducted to analyse the variable of perceived behavioural control (see Table 10), which is impacted by three variables: perceived Covid-19 risk, perceived service risk and perceived financial risk. The following hypotheses H1 (Perceived Covid-19 health risk negatively impacts perceived behavioural control), H4 (Perceived Covid-19 health risk negatively impacts perceived behavioural control) and H7 (Perceived Covid-19 health risk negatively impacts perceived behavioural control) were tested. The results of the regression indicated the three predictors explained 5.2% of the variance in perceived behavioural control (Adjusted R<sup>2</sup> =.052, F(3,319)=6.845, p<.001). Further analysis of the individual predictors revealed that perceived Covid-19 risk (p = .645) was insignificant, while perceived financial risk ( $\beta$  = -0.197, p = .012), and perceived service risk ( $\beta$  = -0.187, p = .034) were significant at a 95% level and had a negative impact on perceived behavioural control. Hypothesis H1 was rejected, while hypotheses H4 and H7 were accepted.

**Table 10**

*Regression analysis of H1, H4, H7*

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	6.326	0.301		20.990	0.000
Perceived covid-19 risk	-0.039	0.085	-0.037	-0.461	0.645
Perceived financial risk	-0.187	0.074	-0.197	-2.529	0.012
Perceived service risk	-0.204	0.095	-0.187	-2.135	0.034

Source: prepared by the author based on the research

Multiple regression analysis was used to analyse attitudes towards travelling to Tenerife (see Table 11). In total eight hypotheses were tested: H2 (perceived Covid health risk negatively impacts attitudes), H5 (perceived financial risk negatively impacts attitudes), H8 (perceived service risk negatively impacts attitudes), H10 (natural scenery and environment positively impacts attitudes), H12 (cultural attractions and heritage sites positively impact attitudes), H14 (escapism and relaxation positively impacts attitudes), H16 (Novelty and knowledge seeking positively impacts attitudes), H18 (fulfilling prestige positively impacts attitudes). The regression analysis showed that the predictors explained 61.8% of the variance in attitudes ( $R$ -squared = 0.618,  $F(41,408) = 8.192$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Perceived Covid-19 health risk ( $p = .224$ ), perceived service risk ( $p = .554$ ), natural scenery and environment ( $p = .109$ ), cultural attractions and heritage sites ( $p = .153$ ) and novelty and knowledge seeking ( $p = .152$ ) were found to be insignificant predictors and hypotheses H2, H8, H10, H12 and H16 were rejected. On the other hand, perceived financial risk ( $\beta = -0.106$ ,  $p = .050$ ), escapism and relaxation ( $\beta = 0.258$ ,  $p = .002$ ) and fulfilling prestige ( $\beta = 0.262$ ,  $p < .001$ ) were found to be significant predictors of attitudes, thus hypotheses H5, H14 and H18 were accepted.

**Table 11**

*Regression analysis of H2, H5, H8, H10, H12, H14, H16, H18*

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	0.937	0.384		2.440	0.016
Perceived covid-19 risk	-0.066	0.054	-0.068	-1.221	0.224
Perceived financial risk	-0.093	0.047	-0.106	-1.970	0.050
Perceived service risk	-0.035	0.059	-0.034	-0.593	0.554
Escapism and relaxation	0.318	0.101	0.258	3.142	0.002
Novelty and knowledge seeking	0.133	0.093	0.118	1.440	0.152
Fulfilling prestige	0.280	0.067	0.262	4.149	<0,001
Natural resources	0.127	0.079	0.126	1.611	0.109
Cultural attractions and heritage sites	0.111	0.078	0.111	1.436	0.153

Source: prepared by the author based on the research

The present study employed multiple regression analysis to investigate the impact of various factors on subjective norms related to travel to Tenerife (see Table 12). Specifically, nine hypotheses were tested, including H3 (perceived Covid-19 health risk negatively impacts subjective norms), H6 (perceived financial risk negatively impacts subjective norms), H9 (perceived service risk negatively impacts subjective norms), H11 (natural scenery and environment positively impacts subjective norms), H13 (cultural attractions and heritage sites positively impact subjective norms), H15 (escapism and relaxation positively impacts subjective norms), H17 (novelty and knowledge seeking positively impacts subjective norms), and H19 (fulfilling prestige positively impacts subjective norms). The regression analysis indicated that the predictors accounted for 45% of the variance in subjective norms (Adjusted R-squared .460,  $F(22.30) = 8.192$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Among the hypotheses, the results showed that perceived Covid health risk ( $\beta = -0.068$ ,  $p < .001$ ), perceived service risk ( $\beta = -0.034$ ,  $p = .005$ ), and escapism and relaxation ( $\beta = 0.258$ ,  $p = .028$ ) were statistically significant at a level of  $p < 0.05$ , indicating that the hypotheses H3, H9 and H15 were supported by the data. Perceived financial risk ( $\beta = 0.123$ ,  $p = .055$ ) and fulfilling prestige ( $\beta = 0.140$ ,  $p = .064$ ) were significant at a 90% level. However, natural scenery and environment ( $p = .533$ ), cultural attractions and heritage sites ( $p = .228$ ), novelty and knowledge seeking ( $p = .207$ ) and were not statistically significant at a level of  $p < 0.05$  and hypotheses H6, H11, H13, H17 and H19 were rejected.

**Table 12**

*Regression analysis of H3, H6, H9, H11, H13, H15, H17, H19*

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	2.340	0.460		5.083	0.000
Perceived covid-19 risk	-0.227	0.064	-0.233	-3.529	<0.001
Perceived financial risk	0.109	0.057	0.123	1.929	0.055
Perceived service risk	-0.199	0.070	-0.195	-2.824	0.005
Escapism and relaxation	0.267	0.121	0.215	2.208	0.028
Novelty and knowledge seeking	0.140	0.111	0.123	1.265	0.207

Continuation of Table 12

Fulfilling prestige	0.150	0.081	0.140	1.862	0.064
Natural resources	0.059	0.094	0.058	0.624	0.533
Cultural attractions and heritage sites	0.112	0.093	0.111	1.209	0.228

Source: prepared by the author based on the research

Lastly, a multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the impact of attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control on the desire to travel to Tenerife (see Table 13). Three hypotheses were tested: H20 (attitudes positively impact desire), H21 (subjective norms positively impact desire) and H22 (perceived behavioural control positively impacts desire). The results indicated that the predictors explained 61.3% of the variance in desire (Adjusted R-squared .613,  $F(106.50) = 3.197$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

The analysis revealed that attitudes ( $\beta = 0.440$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and perceived behavioural control ( $\beta = 0.558$ ,  $p < .001$ ) had a significant positive impact on the desire to travel to Tenerife at a 99% confidence level. Additionally, subjective norms were found to have a significant positive impact on desire ( $\beta = -0.149$ ,  $p = .027$ ) at a 95% significance level. The relatively lower standardized coefficient for subjective norms' compared to the coefficients for attitudes' and perceived behavioural control suggests that subjective norms may have a slightly weaker influence on the desire to travel in this particular model. Hence all three hypotheses H20, H21 and H22 were accepted.

**Table 13**

*Regression analysis of H20, H21, H22*

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	0.147	0.308		0.478	0.633
Attitudes	0.507	0.075	0.440	6.753	<0,001
Subjective norms	0.170	0.076	0.149	2.228	0.027
Perceived behavioural control	0.596	0.061	0.558	9.746	<0,001

Source: prepared by the author based on the research

After the empirical research has been conducted, the summarised hypotheses analysis results state that 10 hypotheses were rejected and 12 accepted (see Table 14).

**Table 14***Hypotheses testing results*

<b>Hypothesis</b>		<b>Estimate</b>	<b>P-value</b>	<b>Result</b>
H1	Perceived Covid-19 health risk negatively impacts perceived behavioural control	-0.037	-	Rejected
H2	Perceived Covid-19 health risk negatively impacts attitudes	-0.068	-	Rejected
H3	Perceived Covid-19 health risk negatively impacts subjective norms	-0.233	<0.001	Accepted
H4	Perceived financial risk negatively impacts perceived behavioural control	-0.197	0.012	Accepted
H5	Perceived financial risk negatively impacts attitudes	-0.106	0.050	Accepted
H6	Perceived financial risk negatively impacts subjective norms	0.123	0.055	Accepted
H7	Perceived service risk negatively impacts perceived behavioural control	-0.187	0.034	Accepted
H8	Perceived service risk negatively impacts attitudes	-0.034	-	Rejected
H9	Perceived service risk negatively impacts subjective norms	-0.195	-	Rejected
H10	Natural resources motive positively impacts attitudes	0.126	-	Rejected
H11	Natural resources motive positively impacts subjective norms	0.058	-	Rejected
H12	Cultural Attractions and Heritage Sites motive positively impacts attitudes	0.111	-	Rejected
H13	Cultural Attractions and Heritage Sites motive positively impacts subjective norms	0.111	-	Rejected
H14	Escapism and relaxation motive positively impacts attitudes	0.258	0.002	Accepted
H15	Escapism and relaxation positively motive impacts subjective norms	0.215	0.028	Accepted
H16	Novelty and knowledge seeking motive positively impacts attitudes	0.118	-	Rejected
H17	Novelty and knowledge seeking motive positively impacts subjective norms	0.123	-	Rejected
H18	Fulfilling prestige motive positively impacts attitudes	0.262	<0.001	Accepted
H19	Fulfilling prestige motive positively impacts subjective norms	0.140	0.064	Accepted
H20	Attitudes positively impact desire to travel	0.440	<0.001	Accepted
H21	Subjective norms positively impact desire to travel	0.149	0.027	Accepted
H22	Perceived behavioural control positively impacts desire to travel	0.558	<0.001	Accepted

Source: prepared by the author based on the research

The findings of the study confirm the importance of the antecedents of desire from the original Model of Goal Directed Behaviour (MGB) model and prove that they are applicable in the extended MGB. The research results correspond with the finding of previous studies ((Song et al., 2012; Meng & Choi, 2016; Park et al., 2017; Bui & Kiatkawsin, 2020). All analysed constructs desire (attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control) were found to positively influence desire to travel to Tenerife. The standardized coefficients ( $\beta$ ) of attitudes and perceived behavioural control suggest a relatively strong impact on the desire to travel in the context in this study. Similarly, to Meng and Choi (2016) results, this study found perceived behavioural control to had the highest impact on the desire to travel out of the three descendants analysed in this study. The relatively lower standardized coefficient for subjective norms compared to the coefficients for attitudes and perceived behavioural control suggests that subjective norms may have a slightly weaker influence on the desire to travel in this particular model. It is important to note that the strength of the relationship between variables can vary based on several factors, such as the measurement scale used, the sample characteristics and the specific context of the study.

Regarding perceived risks, financial risks were found to negatively affect all three descendants of desire. Such findings correspond with previous studies, where financial risks were found to be one of most the most significant perceived risk factors for tourists ((Fuchs & Reichel, 2008; Hasan et al., 2017; Perić et al., 2021). Further findings of this study diverge from previous research, as perceived Covid-19 risk was not found to significantly influence perceived behavioural control or attitudes towards traveling to Tenerife (Bratić et al., 2021; Falahuddin et al., 2021; Perić et al., 2021). This suggests that individuals' perception of the Covid-19 risk may not play a substantial role in shaping their beliefs about their ability to control their travel behaviour or their overall evaluation of travel. However, it is important to note that perceived Covid-19 risk did have a significant negative impact on subjective norms related to travel, which Shin et al. (2022) also found in her study and stated that individuals' perception of the risk is likely to be influenced by the social pressure and influence they perceive from others regarding their travel decisions. These results highlight the complex nature of the relationship between perceived risk and different aspects of travel-related beliefs and behaviours, and further research is needed to explore the underlying mechanisms and contextual factors that may contribute to these findings. It is important to note that this study employed a 3-item measurement scale, whereas there are studies with multidimensional scales, such as Yoo et al. (2022), evaluating severity, susceptibility and avoidability of Covid-19. Additionally, enough of time has passed since the commencement of the Covid-19 pandemic, that can lead to a decline in tourists' concern towards the associated risks. Studies have noted that both the physical (Cui & Cui, 2022), and perceived social-psychological risk of Covid-19 has decreased (Deen, 2023). The other findings of this study

reveal that perceived service risk exerts a detrimental influence on individuals' perceived behavioural control, indicating that concerns related to service quality, reliability, or safety may hinder individuals' sense of control over their travel behaviour. However, no significant associations were observed between perceived service risk and attitudes or subjective norms, suggesting that this particular risk factor may not strongly influence individuals' overall evaluations or the social pressure they perceive regarding their travel decisions.

The results of this study indicate that two specific motives for travel, namely the escape and relaxation motive, as well as the fulfilling prestige motive, exert a positive influence on both attitudes and subjective norms in relation to travel. These motives play a significant role in shaping individuals' overall evaluations (Carvache-Franco, et al., 2022), and their perceptions of social expectations regarding travel decisions (Kuhn et al., 2022). Furthermore, the impact of these motives on attitudes and subjective norms subsequently translates into a heightened desire to travel. These findings align with previous research that has also emphasized the importance of these motives in shaping tourist behaviour (Jang et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2014). The results of the study indicate that the three examined motives, namely the natural resources, cultural attractions and heritage sites and novelty and knowledge seeking, were not found to have a significant impact on attitudes and subjective norms regarding travel to Tenerife. Consequently, these motives did not have an indirect effect on the desire to travel to the destination through their influence on attitudes and subjective norms. These findings suggest that, in the context of Tenerife, these specific motives may not play a substantial role in shaping individuals' attitudes or social expectations related to travel decisions. It is important to note that these results differ from previous studies that have highlighted the significance of natural (Cheung & Fok, 2014; Adam et al., 2017), cultural (Chen et al., 2013; Wen et al., 2019) and novelty (Jang et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2020) in predicting motivation and intention to travel. The measurement instruments used to assess the motives may not have captured the constructs accurately or comprehensively. There might also be other motives or factors that are more salient and influential in shaping attitudes and subjective norms regarding travel to Tenerife. These dominant motives could overshadow the impact of the examined motives, rendering them statistically insignificant in the analysis.

## 4. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on theoretical literature analysis and empirical research, the **following conclusions were made:**

1. The study revealed that certain travel motives have a significant positive impact on attitudes and subjective norms. Specifically, motivations related to escape and relaxation, as well as fulfilling prestige, were found to positively influence individuals' attitudes and subjective norms towards travel. This aligns with previous studies in the literature, highlighting the importance of these motives in shaping individuals' perceptions and social norms related to travel.

2. However, certain travel motives were found to be insignificant in impacting attitudes and subjective norms, and consequently, the desire to travel. The motivations associated with natural resources, cultural attractions and heritage sites, and novelty and knowledge seeking did not exhibit a significant influence on individuals' attitudes and subjective norms towards travel. These findings suggest that these specific motives may not be strong determinants of individuals' travel desires in the context of this study.

3. In addition to the descendants of desire, it is important to consider the influence of perceived risks on the desire to travel. Results indicated that perceived financial risk did have a significant impact on attitudes, subjective norms, or perceived behavioural control, and therefore did directly influenced desire. However, perceived service risk did not show a significant effect on attitudes or subjective norms, but it did have a negative impact on perceived behavioural control.

4. Study revealed that perceived Covid-19 risk has a significant negative impact on subjective norms related to travel. This implies that individuals' perceptions of the risks associated with travel, specifically in the context of the Covid-19 pandemic, can influence their perceived social norms regarding travel behaviour. This finding suggests that individuals may be influenced by societal expectations and judgments related to travel risks, which in turn affects their willingness to engage in travel activities.

5. The insignificant impact of perceived risks on desire's descendants may be attributed to various factors. One possible explanation could be the availability of risk mitigation measures or safety protocols in place, which may alleviate individuals' concerns and enhance their perceived control over the risks. Additionally, individual differences in risk tolerance and perception may also play a role in shaping the relationship between perceived risks and attitudes/perceived behavioural control.

6. Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded that the descendants of desire, namely attitudes, perceived behavioural control and subjective norms, positively impact the desire to travel in the extended model of goal-directed behaviour. The results indicate significant relationships between these constructs, highlighting their importance in shaping individuals' motivation to engage in travel behaviour.

7. The analysis revealed that attitudes, representing individuals' positive or negative evaluations of traveling, had a significant positive effect on desire. This suggests that individuals with more favourable attitudes toward travel are more likely to exhibit a stronger desire to engage in travel-related activities.

8. Perceived behavioural control, which reflects individuals' beliefs about their ability to overcome obstacles and engage in desired travel behaviour, also showed a positive influence on desire. This indicates that individuals who perceive a higher level of control over their travel decisions and actions are more likely to experience a stronger desire to travel.

9. Additionally, subjective norms, representing the social influences and expectations related to travel behaviour, positively impacted desire. This suggests that individuals who perceive greater social approval or pressure to engage in travel are more likely to have a heightened desire for travel experiences.

Based on these conclusions, **the following recommendations can be made:**

1. Address perceived financial risk: Given the significant impact of perceived financial risk on attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control, it is crucial for policymakers and destination marketers to address this concern. Implementing measures such as flexible cancellation policies, travel insurance options, or attractive pricing strategies can help alleviate financial uncertainties and increase individuals' confidence in making travel decisions.

2. Enhance service quality and minimize perceived service risk: Although perceived service risk did not directly impact attitudes or subjective norms, its negative influence on perceived behavioural control suggests the importance of providing high-quality services and ensuring a safe and reliable travel experience. Destination marketers should focus on delivering excellent customer service, emphasizing health and safety measures, and promoting transparent communication to minimize perceived service risk and increase individuals' perceived control over their travel experience.

3. Promote the positive aspects of travel motives: The positive impact of travel motives, such as escape and relaxation, and fulfilling prestige, on attitudes and subjective

norms highlights their significance in shaping individuals' desire to travel. Policymakers and destination marketers should emphasize these motivations in their promotional campaigns, showcasing the unique offerings, natural attractions, and cultural heritage of the destination. By highlighting the positive aspects associated with these motives, they can enhance individuals' attitudes and subjective norms towards the destination and ultimately increase the desire to travel.

4. Consider individual differences and tailor marketing strategies: It is essential to recognize that individuals may have varying perceptions of risk and motivations. Policymakers and destination marketers should segment their target audience based on demographic factors, travel preferences, and risk perceptions. This allows for the development of personalized marketing strategies that address specific concerns and resonate with the interests and motivations of different traveller segments.

5. Continuously monitor and adapt to changing circumstances: The travel landscape is dynamic, and individual perceptions of risks and motivations may evolve over time. Policymakers and destination marketers should stay informed about the latest trends, regulations, and consumer sentiments. Regularly monitoring and adapting marketing strategies and policies to align with the changing circumstances will enable them to effectively address emerging concerns and capitalize on new opportunities.

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## **SUMMARY**

### **THE IMPACT OF PERCEIVED RISKS AND MOTIVATION ON THE DESIRE TO TRAVEL TO TENERIFE**

**AGNĖ GASIŪNAITĖ**

**Bachelor Thesis**

***Management programme, Marketing and Global Business specialisation***

Faculty of Economics and Business Administration of Vilnius University

Supervisor – prof. dr. (HP) Sigitas Urbonavičius

Vilnius, 2023

77 pages, 3 figures, 14 tables, 196 references

Tourism industry is a prospective market, yet in the recent years it has faced significant challenges due to various risks, such as health concerns and financial volatility. Understanding how these risks and personal motivations shape individuals' travel desires is crucial for tourism operators and destination marketers.

The aim of this bachelor thesis is to examine the influence of perceived risk and motivations on individuals' desire to travel to Tenerife, based on theoretical literature review and empirical research. The thesis consists of four main parts: the analysis of literature, research methodology, analysis of empirical research, conclusions, and recommendations.

The literature analysis includes the overview of two consumer behaviour theories, theory of planned behaviour and model of goal directed behaviour, perceived risk examination, which explored the various dimensions of perceived risk, such as health, financial, and service-related risks, and an overview of tourist motivation theories, which delves into different travel motivations, such as escapism, relaxation, cultural attractions, and novelty seeking.

Following literature analysis, research methodology section outlines the approach employed, hypotheses, research model and questionnaire structure.

The results section presents the findings obtained from the data analysis. It discusses the relationships between perceived risks, motivation and desire to travel. Perceived financial risks, motives of escapism and relaxation, and fulfilling prestige were found to influence descendants of desire, which in turn positively impact desire to travel. Other perceived risks were found to have only a partial effect. Based on the results, the conclusions and recommendations section summarize the key findings and provides insights for practitioners and policymakers in the travel industry.

## **SANTRAUKA**

### **THE IMPACT OF PERCEIVED RISKS AND MOTIVATION ON THE DESIRE TO TRAVEL TO TENERIFE**

**AGNĖ GASIŪNAITĖ**

**Baigiamasis bakalauro darbas**

***Vadyba, Rinkodaros ir globalaus verslo specializacija***

Vilniaus Universiteto Ekonomikos ir verslo administravimo fakultetas

Darbo vadovas – prof. dr. (HP) Sigitas Urbonavičius

Vilnius, 2023

77 puslapiai, 3 figūros, 14 lentelių, 196 šaltinių nuorodos

Turizmo sektorius yra perspektyvi rinka, tačiau pastaraisiais metais ji susidūrė su dideliais sunkumais dėl įvairių pavojų, susijusių su sveikatos problemomis ir finansiniu nestabilumu. Turizmo paslaugų teikėjams ir vietovių rinkodaros specialistams labai svarbu suprasti, kaip šie pavojai ir asmeniniai motyvai lemia asmenų kelionių norus.

Šio bakalaurinio darbo tikslas - remiantis teorinės literatūros apžvalga ir empiriniais tyrimais išnagrinėti suvokiamos rizikos ir motyvų įtaką asmenų norui keliauti į Tenerifę. Darbą sudaro keturios pagrindinės dalys: literatūros analizė, tyrimo metodologija, empirinių tyrimų analizė, išvados ir rekomendacijos.

Literatūros analizėje apžvelgiamos dvi vartotojų elgsenos teorijos - planuotos elgsenos teorija ir į tikslą nukreiptos elgsenos modelis, taip pat suvokiama rizika, kurioje nagrinėjami įvairūs suvokiamos rizikos aspektai, pavyzdžiui, sveikatos, finansinė ir su paslaugomis susijusi rizika, ir turistų motyvacijos teorijų apžvalga, kurioje gilinamasi į įvairius kelionių motyvus, pavyzdžiui, pabėgimo, atsipalaidavimo, kultūrinių pramogų ir naujovių siekimo.

Atlikus literatūros analizę, tyrimo metodologijos dalyje aprašomas taikytas metodas, hipotezės, tyrimo modelis ir klausimyno struktūra.

Rezultatų dalyje pateikiamos duomenų analizės metu gautos išvados. Jame aptariami suvokiamos rizikos, motyvų ir noro keliauti ryšiai. Nustatyta, kad suvokiama finansinė rizika, pabėgimo ir atsipalaidavimo motyvai bei prestižo tenkinimas daro įtaką noro atžymoms, kurios savo ruožtu teigiamai veikia norą keliauti. Nustatyta, kad kitos suvokiamos rizikos turi tik dalinį poveikį. Remiantis gautais rezultatais, išvadų ir rekomendacijų skyriuje apibendrinamos pagrindinės išvados ir pateikiamos įžvalgos kelionių sektoriaus profesionalams ir sprendimų priėmėjams.

## ANNEXES

### Annex 1 Questionnaire

1. Do you agree to participate in this survey and answer the questions in English?

- Yes
- No

2. Firstly, you will see statements regarding Covid-19 and your trip. Please evaluate the statements and indicate your answers on a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means “strongly disagree” and 7 means “strongly agree”.

	Strongly disagree (1)	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree (7)
I feel nervous about travelling to Tenerife because of the high COVID-19 cases							
Travelling is risky for my health because of COVID-19							
I feel it is dangerous to travel because of COVID-19							

3. The following statements concern possible financial expenses during travelling. Please evaluate the statements and indicate your answers on a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means “strongly disagree” and 7 means “strongly agree”.

	Strongly disagree (1)	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree (7)
I am worried the trip to Tenerife would involve unexpected extra expenses							
I am worried the trip to Tenerife							

would be more expensive than other international trips							
I am worried that the trip to Tenerife would involve more expenses than I had anticipated							
I am worried that the trip to Tenerife would have an impact on my financial situation							

4. Please evaluate the statements regarding other possible inconveniences during your trip and indicate your answers on a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means “strongly disagree” and 7 means “strongly agree”.

	Strongly disagree (1)	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree (7)
I am afraid that the accommodation facilities will not be sanitary if I visit Tenerife							
I am worried about getting sick during my travel if I visit Tenerife							
I am worried about other physical harm during my travel if I visit Tenerife							
I am afraid that I can't get timely treatment for							

illness or other physical harm during my travel if I visit Tenerife							
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5. In this section you will see statements about your possible motives travelling to Tenerife. Please evaluate the statements and indicate your answers on a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means “strongly disagree” and 7 means “strongly agree”.

	Strongly disagree (1)	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree (7)
I want to escape from work responsibilities/stress							
I seek release from work pressure							
I want to get away from everyday life/routine							
I want to rest and relax							

6. These statements concern your interest in new experiences in Tenerife. Please evaluate the statements and indicate your answers on a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means “strongly disagree” and 7 means “strongly agree”.

	Strongly disagree (1)	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree (7)
I want to see something new and exciting							
I want to see something different that I don't normally see							
I just want to travel, to go somewhere and do something in different environment							
I want to enhance my knowledge about Tenerife							

I want to travel to a country that I have not visited before							
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7. The following statements consider your further expectation of a trip to Tenerife. Please evaluate the statements and indicate your answers on a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means “strongly disagree” and 7 means “strongly agree”.

	Strongly disagree (1)	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree (7)
I want to experience luxury things, nice food, and a comfortable place to stay							
I want to visit a country which most people value and appreciate							
I want to go to the places my friends want to go							

8. The provided statements examine your opinion of Tenerife's natural resources. Please evaluate the statements and indicate your answers on a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means “strongly disagree” and 7 means “strongly agree”.

	Strongly disagree (1)	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree (7)
I want to better appreciate nature							
I want to be close to nature							
I want to learn about nature							

9. The following statements review your opinion of cultural attractions in Tenerife. Please evaluate the statements and indicate your answers on a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means “strongly disagree” and 7 means “strongly agree”.

	Strongly disagree (1)	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree (7)
I want to visit historic heritage sites							
I want to experience a different culture from my own							
I want to see interesting towns/villages							
I want to meet interesting and friendly locals							

10. In this section the statements concern your attitude towards travelling. Please evaluate the statements and indicate your answers on a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means “strongly disagree” and 7 means “strongly agree”.

	Strongly disagree (1)	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree (7)
I think that travelling to Tenerife is positive							
I think that travelling to Tenerife is useful							
I think that travelling to Tenerife is valuable							
I think that travelling to Tenerife is dynamic							
I think that travelling to Tenerife is attractive							
I think that travelling to Tenerife is delightful							

11. The provided statements cover your social circle. Please evaluate the statements and indicate your answers on a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means “strongly disagree” and 7 means “strongly agree”.

	Strongly disagree (1)	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree (7)
Most people who are important to me think it is okay for me to travel to Tenerife							
Most people who are important to me support that I travel to Tenerife							
Most people who are important to me understand that I travel to Tenerife							
Most people who are important to me agree with me about traveling to Tenerife							

12. These statements review your perception of being able to travel to Tenerife. Please evaluate the statements and indicate your answers on a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means “strongly disagree” and 7 means “strongly agree”.

	Strongly disagree (1)	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree (7)
I am capable of travelling to Tenerife							
I am confident that if I want, I can travel to Tenerife							

I have enough resources (money) to travel to Tenerife							
I have enough time to travel to Tenerife							
Whether or not I travel to Tenerife is completely up to me							

13. Lastly, the statements below relate to your want to travel to Tenerife. Please evaluate the statements and indicate your answers on a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 means “strongly disagree” and 7 means “strongly agree”.

	Strongly disagree (1)	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly agree (7)
I want to travel to Tenerife in the near future							
I wish to travel to Tenerife in the near future							
I am eager to travel Tenerife in the near future							
My wish to travel Tenerife in the near future can be described desirably							

In the final section of this questionnaire, please answer the provided demographic questions.

14. Your age (number of years):

15. Your gender:

- Female
- Male

16. The country you are from:

- Your education:
- Less than a high school diploma
- High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent
- Trade/technical/vocational training
- Some college credit, no degree
- Bachelor's degree or equivalent
- Master's degree or higher

17. Your occupation:

- Employed
- Self-employed
- Unemployed
- Student
- Retired
- Other

## Annex 2

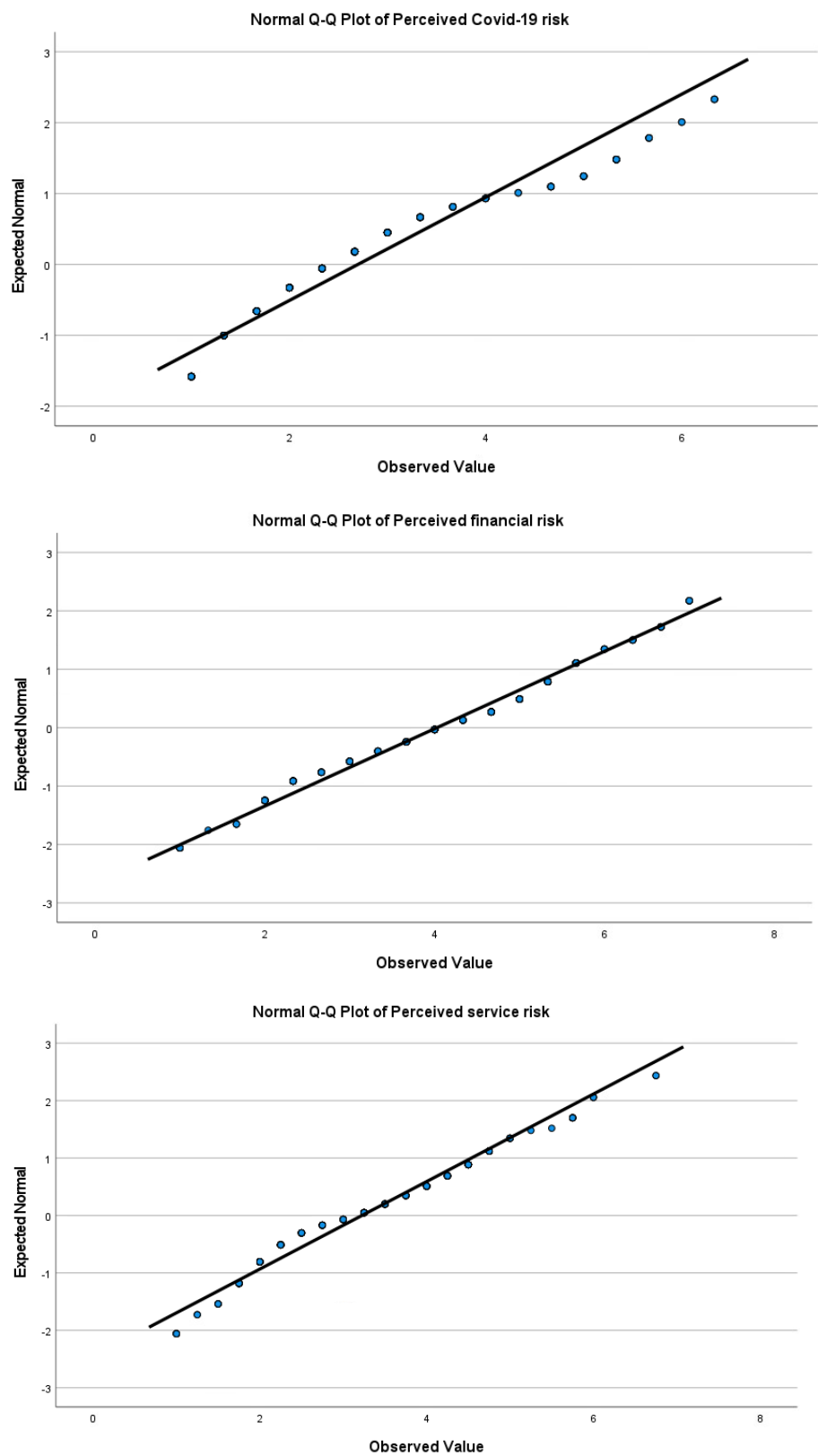
### Country distribution of respondents

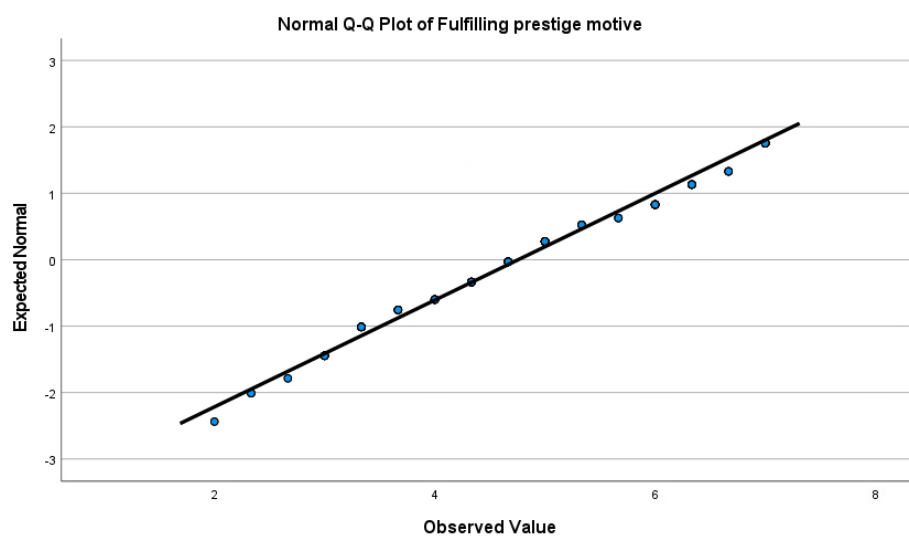
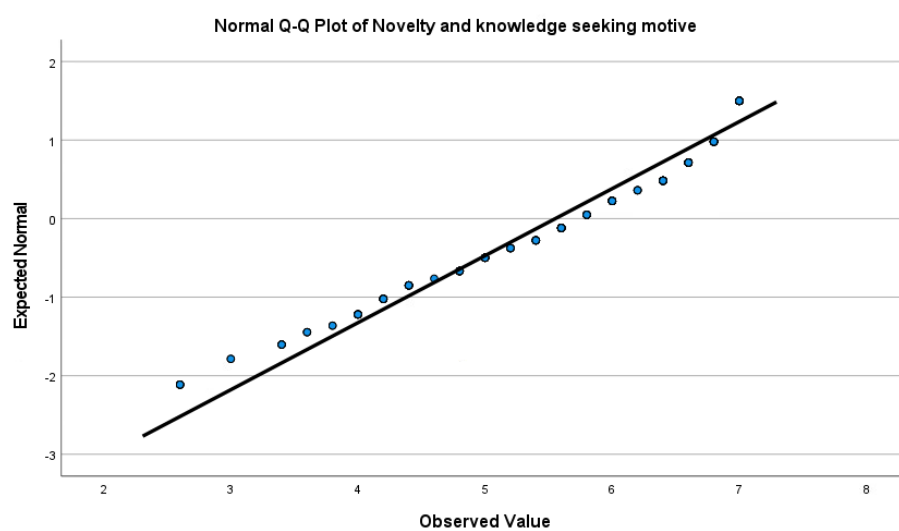
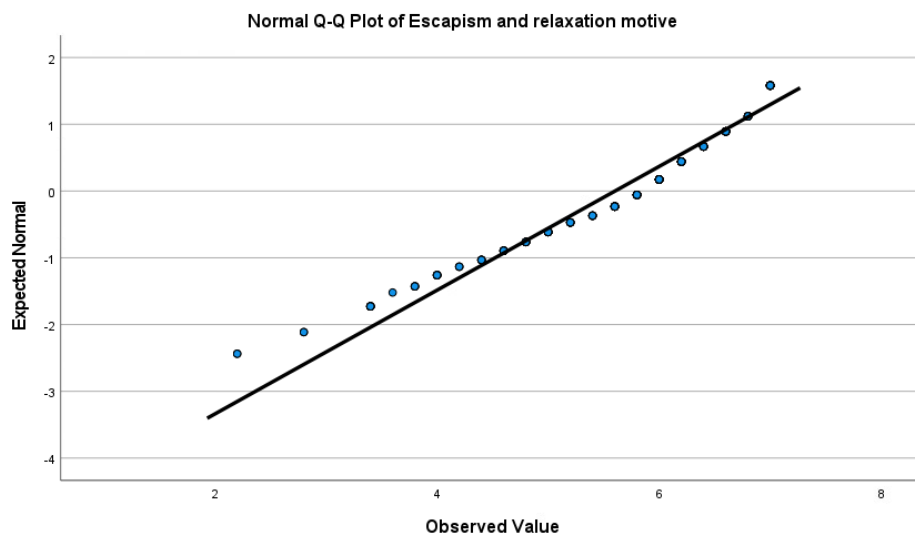
Country	Frequency	Percent
Azerbaijan	2	1.0 %
Belarus	11	5.5 %
Belgium	1	0.5 %
China	1	0.5 %
Costa Rica	1	0.5 %
Croatia	1	0.5 %
Czech Republic	1	0.5 %
Denmark	1	0.5 %
Estonia	1	0.5 %
Finland	1	0.5 %
France	5	2.5 %
Georgia	2	1.0 %
Germany	11	5.5 %
Ghana	1	0.5 %
Greece	1	0.5 %

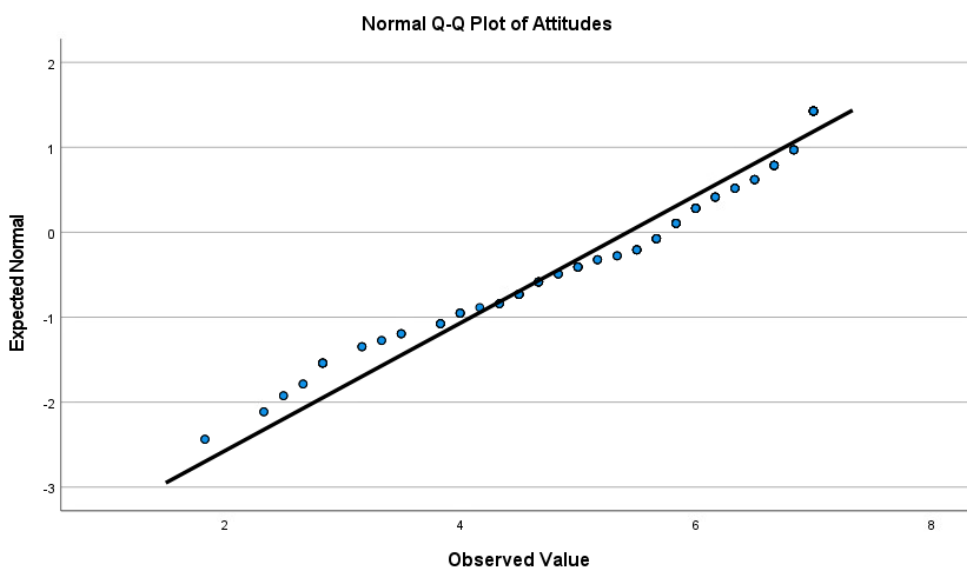
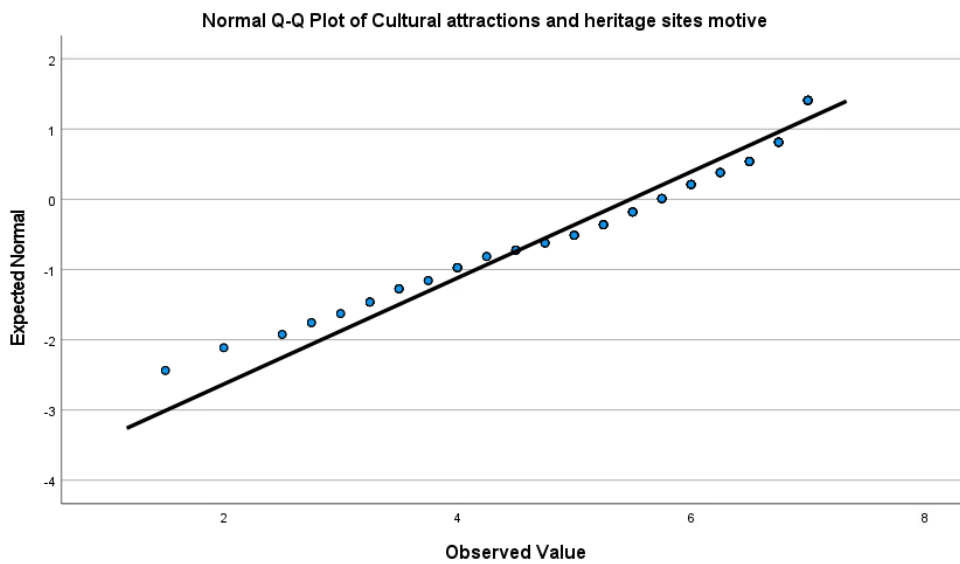
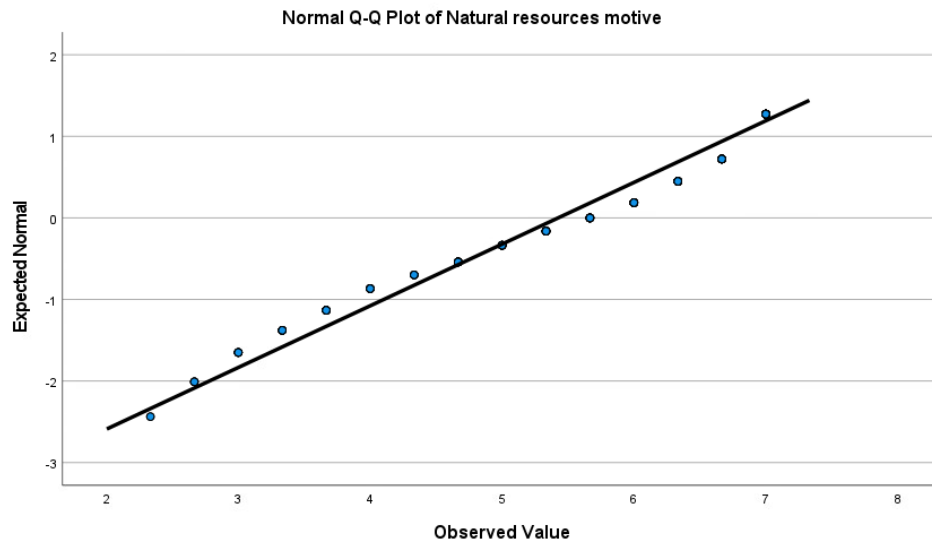
Hungary	1	0.5 %
India	5	2.5 %
Indonesia	1	0.5 %
Ireland	1	0.5 %
Israel	3	1.5 %
Italy	4	2.0 %
Latvia	1	0.5 %
Lithuania	87	43.3 %
Morocco	2	1.0 %
Netherlands	1	0.5 %
Nigeria	3	1.5 %
Norway	2	1.0 %
Pakistan	1	0.5 %
Poland	5	2.5 %
Portugal	2	1.0 %
Romania	1	0.5 %
Russia	1	0.5 %
Scotland	1	0.5 %
Slovenia	1	0.5 %
South Africa	1	0.5 %
Spain	4	2.0 %
Sweden	1	0.5 %
Turkey	6	3.0 %
Ukraine	15	7.5 %
United Kingdom	4	2.0 %
United States	6	3.0 %

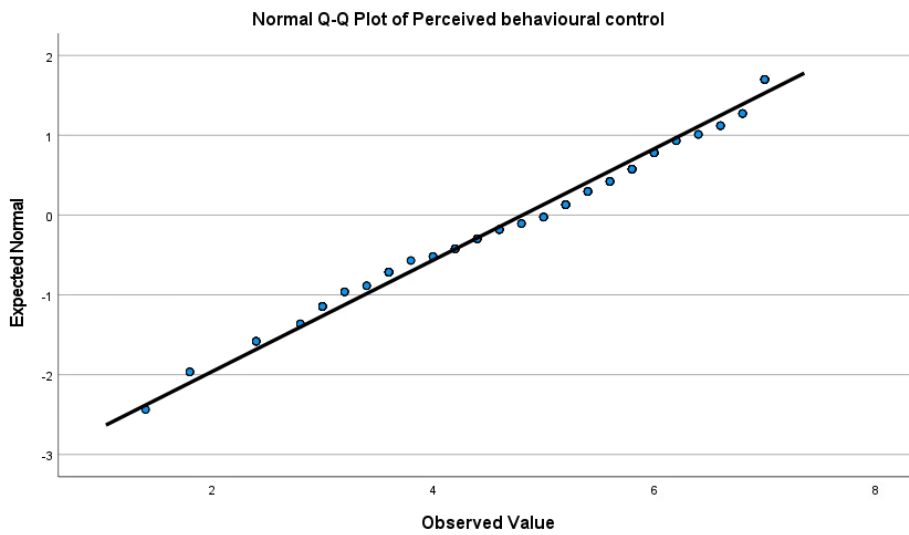
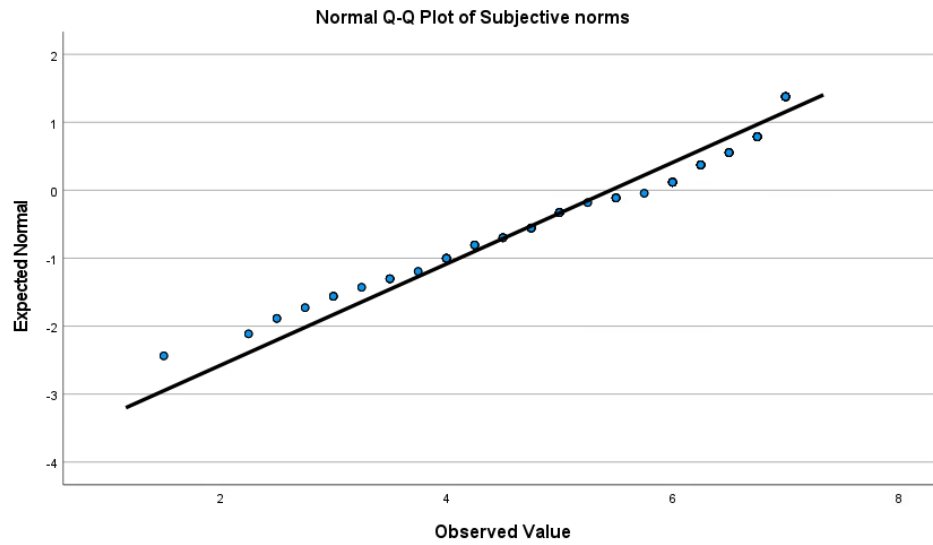
Annex 3

Normal Q-Q plots in SPSS

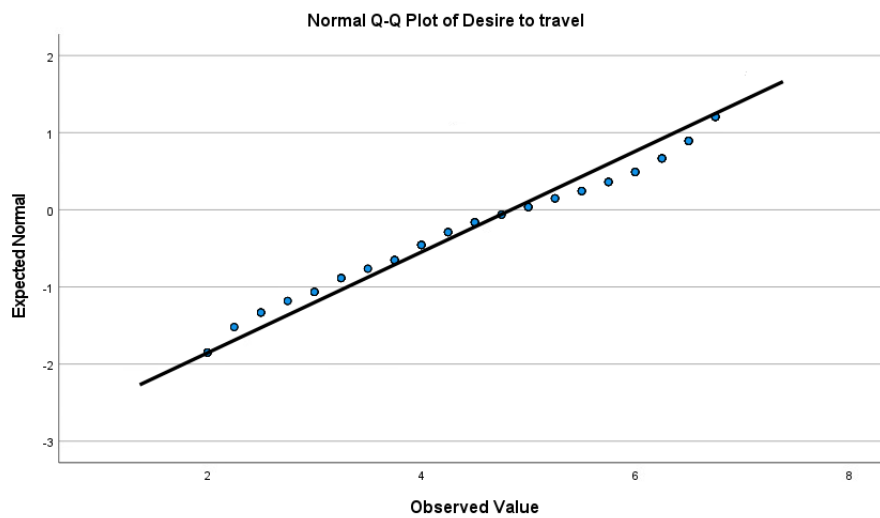








Desire to travel



## Annex 4

### Multiple linear regression analysis of H1, H4, H7 in SPSS

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,355 <sup>a</sup>	,126	,113	1,34915

a. Predictors: (Constant), Perceived service risk, Perceived financial risk, Perceived Covid-19 risk

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	51,799	3	17,266	9,486	<,001 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	358,581	197	1,820		
	Total	410,380	200			

a. Dependent Variable: Perceived behavioural control

b. Predictors: (Constant), Perceived service risk, Perceived financial risk, Perceived Covid-19 risk

**Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	6,326	,301		20,990	<,001		
	Perceived Covid-19 risk	-,039	,085	-,037	-,461	,645	,674	1,484
	Perceived financial risk	-,187	,074	-,197	-2,529	,012	,728	1,374
	Perceived service risk	-,204	,095	-,187	-2,135	,034	,580	1,723

a. Dependent Variable: Perceived behavioural control

### Multiple linear regression analysis of H2, H5, H8, H10, H12, H14, H16, H18 in SPSS

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,796 <sup>a</sup>	,633	,618	,82206

a. Predictors: (Constant), Cultural attractions and heritage sites motive, Perceived service risk, Perceived financial risk, Fulfilling prestige motive, Perceived Covid-19 risk, Novelty and knowledge seeking motive, Natural resources motive, Escapism and relaxation motive

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	223,862	8	27,983	41,408	<,001 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	129,750	192	,676		
	Total	353,612	200			

a. Dependent Variable: Attitudes

b. Predictors: (Constant), Cultural attractions and heritage sites motive, Perceived service risk, Perceived financial risk, Fulfilling prestige motive, Perceived Covid-19 risk, Novelty and knowledge seeking motive, Natural resources motive, Escapism and relaxation motive

### Coefficients<sup>a</sup>

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	,937	,384		2,440	,016		
	Perceived Covid-19 risk	-,066	,054	-,068	-1,221	,224	,621	1,610
	Perceived financial risk	-,093	,047	-,106	-1,970	,050	,665	1,505
	Perceived service risk	-,035	,059	-,034	-,593	,554	,567	1,764
	Escapism and relaxation motive	,318	,101	,258	3,142	,002	,284	3,526
	Novelty and knowledge seeking motive	,133	,093	,118	1,440	,152	,287	3,485
	Fulfilling prestige motive	,280	,067	,262	4,149	<,001	,480	2,085
	Natural resources motive	,127	,079	,126	1,611	,109	,313	3,196
	Cultural attractions and heritage sites motive	,111	,078	,111	1,436	,153	,321	3,116

a. Dependent Variable: Attitudes

Multiple linear regression analysis of H3, H6, H9, H11, H13, H15, H17, H19 in SPSS

### Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,694 <sup>a</sup>	,482	,460	,98470

a. Predictors: (Constant), Cultural attractions and heritage sites motive, Perceived service risk, Perceived financial risk, Fulfilling prestige motive, Perceived Covid-19 risk, Novelty and knowledge seeking motive, Natural resources motive, Escapism and relaxation motive

### ANOVA<sup>a</sup>

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	173,005	8	21,626	22,303	<,001 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	186,171	192	,970		
	Total	359,176	200			

a. Dependent Variable: Subjective norms

b. Predictors: (Constant), Cultural attractions and heritage sites motive, Perceived service risk, Perceived financial risk, Fulfilling prestige motive, Perceived Covid-19 risk, Novelty and knowledge seeking motive, Natural resources motive, Escapism and relaxation motive

**Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	2,340	,460		5,083	<,001		
	Perceived Covid-19 risk	-,227	,064	-,233	-3,529	<,001	,621	1,610
	Perceived financial risk	,109	,057	,123	1,929	,055	,665	1,505
	Perceived service risk	-,199	,070	-,195	-2,824	,005	,567	1,764
	Escapism and relaxation motive	,267	,121	,215	2,208	,028	,284	3,526
	Novelty and knowledge seeking motive	,140	,111	,123	1,265	,207	,287	3,485
	Fulfilling prestige motive	,150	,081	,140	1,862	,064	,480	2,085
	Natural resources motive	,059	,094	,058	,624	,533	,313	3,196
	Cultural attractions and heritage sites motive	,112	,093	,111	1,209	,228	,321	3,116

a. Dependent Variable: Subjective norms

## Multiple linear regression analysis of H20, H21, H22 in SPSS

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,786 <sup>a</sup>	,619	,613	,95241

a. Predictors: (Constant), Perceived behavioural control , Attitudes, Subjective norms

**ANOVA<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	289,800	3	96,600	106,495	<,001 <sup>b</sup>
	Residual	178,695	197	,907		
	Total	468,495	200			

a. Dependent Variable: Desire to travel

b. Predictors: (Constant), Perceived behavioural control , Attitudes, Subjective norms

**Coefficients<sup>a</sup>**

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	,147	,308		,478	,633		
	Attitudes	,507	,075	,440	6,753	<,001	,455	2,196
	Subjective norms	-,170	,076	-,149	-2,228	,027	,435	2,299
	Perceived behavioural control	,596	,061	,558	9,746	<,001	,590	1,694

a. Dependent Variable: Desire to travel