

Impacts of the terrorist attacks and political incidents in major cities on tourism industry: Evidence from the tourism managers in Turkey

Humeyra Dogru-Dastan^{a,*}, Özkan Tütüncü^b

^a Department of Management and Marketing, Faculty of Business, University of Greenwich, London, United Kingdom

^b Department of Recreation, School of Sport Sciences and Technology, Dokuz Eylül University, Izmir, Turkey

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Tourism crisis
Terrorism
Destination image
Structural problems
Political problems

ABSTRACT

Tourism crises caused by terrorism are characterised by a sharp decline in inbound tourism and a severe deterioration of destination image. Between 2015 and 2017, Turkey suffered terrorist attacks and political incidents in major cities such as Istanbul, Ankara, Gaziantep, and Şanlıurfa. This paper explores crisis-related factors and their influence on destination image and tourism demand with a series of three studies adopting both primary data collected from tourism managers and secondary data analysis of tourism statistics. Study A explored the adapted measurement tool's reliability and validity to define the factors related to crisis impacts. Study B involved CFA to validate the dimensions of measurement tools and regression analyses to examine their influence on destination image and tourism demand. Study C included a comparison of the tourist arrival and expenditure statistics from 2014 to 2019 with a secondary data analysis. Study A showed that the long-term effects of crises caused by terrorism must be evaluated in structural and political dimensions. Study B indicated that both factors affected destination image negatively, while only structural problems influenced international and domestic tourism demand. Study C supported the effect of both factors on tourist arrivals and tourism income, involving the analysis of tourism statistics.

1. Background

The emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic, which brought international tourism back to levels of 30 years ago, illustrates the vulnerability of the tourism industry to crises (UNWTO Travelturkeyexpo.com, 2022). In addition to infectious diseases, tourism activities are susceptible to various emergencies, such as natural disasters (i.e., hurricanes, earthquakes, volcanic eruptions), economic recession, terrorist attacks, political unsteadiness, international conflicts and wars (Ritchie, 2004; Sönmez et al., 1999). These natural and man-made disasters can result in long-lasting changes in travel patterns and tourism demand and create challenges threatening the sustainability of both destinations and tourism businesses (Gurtner, 2016). Further, crises such as wars in one spot in the world can substantially affect other areas (especially developing countries) since the world is becoming more interdependent (Cao et al., 2017; Ritchie, 2004).

In the recent decade, Europe has faced several terrorist attacks on the most visited cities such as Brussels, Paris, London, and Barcelona due to various reasons, including the Syrian civil war, Europe's involvement in combating ISIS (Iraq Sham Islamic State), and immigrant crisis

(Avraham, 2021). The European Union reported 142 failed, foiled, or completed attacks, with 142 victims died and 379 people injured, which caused additional security measures to be taken throughout Europe (Europol, 2017). Previous literature proved the severe economic consequences of terrorist attacks on the tourism industry, including tourism income, thus affecting countries' GDP and economic growth (Kirkulak-Uludag & Kurt, 2023). On the other hand, the tourism crisis caused by terrorist acts has micro influences on travel decisions, personal safety risks, and destination choices at the individual level (Madhavan & Rastogi, 2013; Seabra et al., 2013). It is inevitable to face sharp decreases in tourism demand towards disaster-hit city destinations since prospective tourists' perception of terrorism risk harms both destination image and their behavioural intentions (Avraham, 2021; Carballo et al., 2021).

Due to its geopolitical location being next to conflict zones and used as a transit country for foreign terrorist fighters (FTFs) travelling to or from Syria/Iraq (Europol, 2017), Turkey faced a wave of large-scale terrorist attacks and internal and external political crises in major cities (Table 1). In 2015, Turkey's shooting down of a Russian aircraft on the Syrian border on November 24 was the starting point of a high-

* Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: h.dogrudastan@greenwich.ac.uk (H. Dogru-Dastan), ozkan.tutuncu@deu.edu.tr (Ö. Tütüncü).

Table 1
The series of political crises and terrorist attacks in Turkey (2015–2017).

Date	Event	Killed	Wounded
July 20, 2015	Terrorist attack on Şanlıurfa	33	101
October 10, 2015	Terrorist attack on Ankara Train Station	103	245
November 24, 2015	Turkey's downing of a Russian warplane on the Syrian border	1	0
January 12, 2016	Terrorist attack on Sultanahmet Square in Istanbul	12	13
February 17, 2016	Terrorist attack on a military convoy in Ankara	29	60
March 13, 2016	Terrorist attack on a bus station in Ankara	37	125
March 19, 2016	The terrorist attack on Istiklal Street in Istanbul	4	36
June 7, 2016	Terrorist attack on police bus in Istanbul	12	35
June 28, 2016	Terrorist attack on Istanbul Atatürk Airport	45	235
August 20, 2016	Terrorist attack on a wedding in Gaziantep	57	91
July 15, 2016	Coup attempt	251	2740
January 1, 2017	Terrorist attack on Reina nightclub in Istanbul	39	70

Source: [BBC News, 2017](#); [Ertaş et al., 2021](#).

impact political and economic crisis between Turkey and the Russian Federation. After the crash, the Russian Federation's President Putin signed a decree banning or limiting goods and food imports from Turkey, the business of Turkish enterprises in Russia, and Turkish employees in Russian companies and denied speaking to the Turkish President ([BBC News, 2015](#)). In addition to these embargoes, which have deteriorated the relations in the economic sphere between the two countries seriously ([Özertem, 2017](#)), the Kremlin has imposed many tourism-related sanctions, such as proscribing charter flights to and from Turkey, ordering Russian travel firms not to sell Turkish holidays, adjourning the mutual agreement on visa-free regime with Turkey ([BBC News, 2015](#)). As expected, the Turkish tourism industry (especially the Antalya region) was severely hit by these sanctions since Russia was one of the top tourist-generating countries for Turkey, with more than 4 million arrivals in 2014. Consequently, this political crisis led to a 76% decrease in tourist arrivals from Russia in two years, and only 866,256 Russian visitors arrived in Turkey in 2016 ([MCT, 2022a](#)).

Apart from the political tension between Turkey and Russia, Turkey has been a target for attacks in 2015 and 2016 from several terrorist groups such as ISIS and the PKK military wing of the outlawed Kurdistan Workers Party). In these attacks on Istanbul, Ankara, Gaziantep, and Şanlıurfa, many people died or were injured, including international visitors, since they were also tourist spots in Turkey. For instance, a suicide attack on January 12 2016, in Istanbul's historic Sultanahmet district killed 13 tourists, 12 of them German citizens. On March 13 2016, another suicide attack in Istanbul's most famous shopping street, Istiklal, killed four, including three Israeli citizens ([Europol, 2017](#)). Turkey suffered from at least 14 terrorist operations that killed more than 330 people and wounded 1200 others ([Soliev, 2017](#)).

Further, in July 2016, Turkey was dragged into another political turmoil due to a deadly coup attempt attributed to the Fetullah Terrorist Organisation (FETO) aiming to overthrow the Turkish government underway as announced by the Prime Minister of Turkey ([BBC News, 2016](#)). The events caused the death of 251 people and left over 2740 injured, although the attempt eventually failed. Due to the series of terrorist attacks and political crises in 2015 and 2016, many countries issued travel warnings, which made Turkey an insecure destination to visit in the eyes of their citizens. Despite employment initiatives and direct or indirect subsidies given by the Turkish government to counter the crisis in the sector ([PRT - The Presidency of the Republic of Turkey, 2018](#)), the Turkish tourism industry was confronted with one of the most devastating crises in its history. This crisis led to many layoffs because of business downsizing and closings, which generated adverse outcomes

for tourism and hospitality employees since unemployed and furloughed workers can experience financial and psychological distress due to job losses ([Chen & Chen, 2021](#)).

Past studies on tourism crises have mainly concentrated on the response of governments, business entities, or communities to crises and their crisis management strategies applied to mitigate the adverse effects of crisis (e.g., [Blake & Sinclair, 2003](#); [Faulkner, 2001](#); [Wang & Ritchie, 2010](#)) or consumer behaviour and visitors' risk perceptions in the form of case analyses (e.g., [Fuchs & Reichel, 2006](#); [Isaac & Van den Bedem, 2021](#)). Although a wide range of political tensions impacts tourist flows and tourism demand ([Wang, 2009](#)), tourism literature generally lacks a discussion on the influence of the political crisis on the tourism industry. Further, perceptions and expectations of tourism industry workers related to a political crisis are highly ignored in the literature. Limited research focusing on crisis perceptions of tourism professionals studied attitudes towards the crisis and ways of dealing with them (e.g., [Ertaş et al., 2021](#); [Ghaderi et al., 2012](#)). A few studies investigated the effects of tourism crises on employee predictions regarding short-time shocks ([Xie et al., 2022](#)) and their psychological capital ([Mao et al., 2021](#)). However, only a few studies have scrutinised tourism destination image from the perspective of industry representatives ([Ageeva & Foroudi, 2019](#); [Konecnik & Go, 2008](#)). Therefore, the current study also contributes to this literature by investigating the impacts of crises on destination image from the supply side in contrast to the abundant studies conducted on tourists' perceived tourism destination image.

[Roberts \(1994\)](#) listed the stages in the life cycle of crises, namely pre-event, emergency, intermediate, and long-term phases, respectively. When the time course of the tourism crisis is considered in the axis of crisis life-cycle model, the years 2015 and 2016 can be classified as emergency stage since the Turkish government provided insurance subsidies to tourism enterprises and incentives to travel to agencies for each flight to Antalya, Mugla, Izmir, and Kutahya to deal with the initial impacts of the crisis in 2015 and 2016. The years 2017 and 2018 might be regarded as the intermediate stage of the Turkish tourism crisis since businesses continued to benefit from these incentives, which were initiated to increase tourist arrivals and reduce the severity of the crisis for destinations and businesses ([PRT - The Presidency of the Republic of Turkey, 2018](#)). In this study, primary data were collected in both the emergency and intermediate stages of the tourism crisis in Turkey during 2016 and 2017. Then, the tourism statistics obtained from secondary data sources from 2014 to 2019 were analysed in the long-term phase. Considering the increasing impact of geopolitics on the international tourism industry in the wake of the pandemic, the study will bring valuable insights into the effects of the tourism crisis caused by terrorism.

Based on the abovementioned reasons, the present study has four purposes:

- (1) To reveal the dimensions of tourism executives' crisis-related expectations regarding the tourism industry.
- (2) To examine the influence of expected structural and political problems from the terrorism-induced crisis on the expectations about destination image and international and domestic tourism demand.
- (3) To investigate the real-world impact of the 2016 tourism crisis in Turkey with a complementary second-data analysis to help better understand the tourism crisis.
- (4) To compare the results obtained from primary data analysis to the findings revealed with secondary data analysis.

2. Study overview

The tourism industry in Turkey faced a major crisis caused by terror acts and devastating political conflicts in 2015 and 2016. This empirical research specifically draws on three phases of data collection to investigate the influence of the tourism crisis on the managers' predictions

related to tourism demand and destination image and to compare the results of primary data analysis with the findings of secondary data analysis. The research examines the future predictions of tourism and hospitality executives experiencing the crisis's impacts. Therefore, the study presents an adjunct picture of the terrorism-induced crisis with the managers' reflections from a broader perspective.

This research involved a series of three studies (A, B, and C). In study A, the reliability and validity of the measurement scale were tested using exploratory factor analysis. In study B, confirmatory factor analysis was used to determine the two-factor solution's basic psychometric properties and examine the impact of political and structural factors on destination image and tourism demand. We aimed to define the dimensions of tourism managers' predictions related to sector structure during a terrorism-induced crisis. Thus, we employed EFA in the first sample in Study A as a precursor to confirmatory factor analysis in Study B, which was in line with the suggestions of Gerbing and Hamilton (1996). In study C, secondary (panel) data were used to analyse the effect of this crisis on domestic and international tourism statistics.

The overall study design helped us present collaborative evidence and ensure completeness using different methods with complementary strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses. Besides, we could eventually obtain confirmation with a more solid and generalisable data set with primary and secondary data collection methods (Jack & Raturi, 2006). While the first two studies focused on the managers' crisis-related perceptions, the final study examined published statistics to check whether actual demand data is consistent with the manager's predictions. By using a triangulation of data-gathering approaches, it was possible to comprehend not only the dimensions of crisis-related expectations of the sector managers but also the situational environment in which these expectations originated. All analyses were performed using the Jamovi statistical program (The jamovi project, 2022).

2.1. Study A

Researchers have heavily studied crisis management since the 1970s, and the definition of a crisis and the attributions of its causes are highly diversified in the literature. From a systematic perspective, Glaesser (2004) views a crisis as a critical change in important variables that jeopardise or eliminate either some components or the entire system. Faulkner (2001) has attempted to clarify the distinction between a crisis and a disaster depending on whether the situation stems from the organisation or originates from an external factor. According to this distinction, sudden, unpredictable, catastrophic changes over which the organisation has little control are described as disasters. In contrast, a situation where the business cannot implement appropriate strategies to cope with a disaster due to internal factors is defined as a crisis (Faulkner, 2001). While tourism crises are divided into two basic categories: natural and man-made (Li et al., 2010), Hall et al. (2004) used security-related crises as an umbrella term for political and military conflicts and terrorism. When tourism businesses face a crisis, they must make decisions within a short time with urgency, and those directly affected have a perceived inability to cope with challenges (Monterrubio, 2017).

Among other factors that can harm tourism, terrorism is the most damaging due to its unpredictable, intentional, attention-grabbing nature and extended effects (Avraham, 2021). Persevering terrorism in a destination can severely destroy its attractiveness and safe and secure image while also deteriorating tourist perceptions of the destination and their intention to travel due to its high potential to capture the world's attention (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998). Regarding the effects of the US tourism crisis caused by the September 11 attacks, Eugenio-Martin et al. (2006) present an analysis of the impacts of the tourism crisis on tourist arrivals and receipts. Blake and Sinclair (2003) revealed structural effects on the tourism industry, such as changes in tourist spending and employment rates. Based on earlier studies, we assume that this security-related crisis has both political effects (e.g., negative image, political

instability), which prevent organisations from attaining their future objectives, and structural effects (e.g., employee layoffs, a decline in investments), which jeopardise enterprises' operations and system overall.

Prior literature on the tourism crisis mainly explores the impact of different crisis events based on the degree and duration of the impact (e.g., long vs. short-term). Sudden shocks in the acute stages and perpetual impacts in the chronic stages of the crisis are considered short-term impacts. In contrast, long-lived effects that continue even after the crisis has ended are the long-term impacts of the crisis (Xie et al., 2022). Immediate effects of the crisis are listed as a decrease in travel intentions, a fall in hotel reservations, and a loss of visitor confidence in the destinations (Eugenio-Martin et al., 2006; Gurtner, 2016). In the long run, a political crisis in tourism might influence destination image and require destination managers to implement new destination development strategies involving new infrastructure and investments (Ertaş et al., 2021; Zhong et al., 2021). Previously, a few studies developed scales on the employees' perceived personal shocks as short-term effects of the crisis (Xie et al., 2022) and perceived job risks (Xie et al., 2020). However, to the authors' knowledge, there is no study in the pertinent literature on the industry managers' predictions about the long-term effects of terrorism-induced tourism crisis events.

2.1.1. Procedures and participants

We performed a quantitative study using a structured self-administered survey. The survey consisted of sentences related to crisis effects and questions asking the demographic profile of participants. The majority of the items were adapted from Blake and Sinclair (2003), Thapa et al. (2013), and Fuchs et al. (2013). We revised the items used by Blake and Sinclair (2003) investigating the structural effects of the September 11 crisis on the tourism industry, such as job losses and changes in tourist spending. We added the sentences referring to other structural effects, such as decreased tourism investments.

Regarding political effects, we adapted the items related to travel risk perceptions after the Florida wildfires (Thapa et al., 2013). We revised the items related to worries about the visitor's safety arriving in Sinai, a destination repeatedly targeted by terror attacks (Fuchs et al., 2013). The items were adapted to reflect the predictions of the tourism managers for the tourism industry after the terrorist attacks in Turkey, considering the interests of tourism representatives in a case-specific manner. Then, we asked six experts knowledgeable on crisis management in tourism to assess the face validity of the existing items and suggested additional ones. The items utilised a 5-point Likert scale (from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree').

Data was collected from tourism executives attending the 10th Travel Turkey Izmir Fair held between 8 and 11 December 2016. Travel Turkey Izmir is Turkey's most significant tourism event organised every year with the participation of domestic and international exhibitors, including hotels, travel agencies and tour operators, food and beverage businesses, ministries, municipalities, tourism bureaus, and so on (Travelturkeyexpo.com, 2022). In 2016, the fair hosted 1008 exhibitors from 32 countries and 33,688 attendees from 63 countries (Turizmajansi.com, 2016). The participants were executives of various companies offering different tourism services, such as accommodation, transportation, and travel consultation from all regions of Turkey. So, the sample was representative of tourism managers located in different parts of Turkey to a large extent. At the beginning of the questionnaire, participants were informed that the study was carried out to determine the expectations of tourism enterprises affected by the crisis environment and the effects of the crisis. After removing empty and unfinished surveys, the data collection returned 219 usable surveys for study A. According to the sample-to-variable ratio of 20:1 suggested by Hair et al. (2010) for factor analysis, a minimum of 160 participants is sufficient for EFA. The profile of the first study's sample is demonstrated in Appendix A.

2.1.2. Data analysis and results

The data were analysed using the statistical software Jamovi 2.3.3 in multiple phases. First, descriptive statistics were analysed to explore the normality of the data. Mardia's (1970) test of normality showed significant statistical levels ($p < .001$) for skewness and kurtosis. Due to non-normality, the Minimum Residuals analysis (MINRES) method was chosen to conduct exploratory factor analysis to determine the underlying dimensions of the expectations related to the tourism crisis and to measure the construct validity of the measurement tool. Because of non-orthogonality, simplimax rotation was chosen to optimise pattern simplicity. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test (0.83) and Bartlett's test ($\chi^2(28) = 681, p < .001$) indicated that the data were sufficient for exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Horn's parallel analysis and Cattel's scree plot test suggested a two-factor structure for analysis. An eight-item, two-factor scale with good fit indices (RMSEA = 0.067; TLI = 0.96; $\chi^2(13) = 25.4, p < .021$) was explained 0.56 of the variance. All the factor loadings were above 0.52, and the inter-factor correlation was 0.53 (Table 2). Additionally, Cronbach's alpha and McDonald's Omega were 0.85 for the entire scale.

2.2. Study B

The aim of study B was two-fold: (1) to examine the initial psychometric properties of the two-dimensional measurement tool and finalise it by assessing the internal, convergent, and discriminant validity of this scale in a new sample; (2) to evaluate the criterion validity examining the relationships between two-dimensions and international, domestic demand, and destination image.

2.2.1. Tourism crisis and destination image

Destination images are mainly formed through organic sources such as television, the internet, and social media, and induced images are captured from promotional messages (Kislali et al., 2016). Accordingly, the coverage of the series of terrorist attacks and political crises mentioned above in the international media and travel warnings issued by the governments of tourist-generating countries for Turkey (e.g., the UK) necessarily influenced the destination image of Turkey. Furthermore, destination image highly depends on the crisis-sourced structural outcomes involving the service quality that is ensured by low turnover, workforce sustainability, return rates, and the number of investments (Knollenberg et al., 2021; Steiner, 2007). Accordingly, Alrawadieh et al.

Table 2
EFA results of crisis-related expectations measurement tool.

	Factors		Uniqueness
	Structural Problems	Political Problems	
V1- The profile of tourists visiting Turkey will change unfavourably.	0.814		0.380
V2- Turkey will be perceived as a cheap destination due to this crisis.	0.780		0.397
V3- Employment rates in the tourism industry will decrease.	0.729		0.422
V4- Investments in the tourism industry will decrease due to this crisis.	0.716		0.518
V5- Qualified employees will quit the tourism industry due to this crisis.	0.648		0.526
V6- Instability in internal politics will negatively affect the tourism industry.		0.993	0.085
V7- Instability in the Middle East will negatively affect the tourism industry after this crisis.		0.681	0.492
V8- The refugee issue will negatively affect the tourism industry after this crisis.		0.520	0.681

(2018) found in their study conducted after the terrorist attacks between 2015 and 2016 that the online destination image of Turkey was influenced negatively by political factors, including political instability, safety issues, and terrorist attacks.

Prospect theory assumes that tourists are logical buyers and typically select the one that would maximise their prospective rewards and minimise their risks when given a choice between two options (Tversky & Kahneman, 1992). When a destination is linked with the risk caused by terror attacks, insecurity, political tensions, and epidemics, its perceived image is seriously damaged, so it may take a long time to repair it to attract tourists (Avraham & Ketter, 2017). Accordingly, when terrorism and political turmoil at one destination receive widespread media coverage, potential visitors' image of that destination inevitably deteriorates (Avraham & Ketter, 2017; Sönmez & Graefe, 1998; Steiner, 2007). Further, the countries can experience a decline in investment returns and changes in tourist profiles towards price-sensitive travellers, threatening further destination development following a tourism crisis (Steiner, 2007). Since tourism workforce sustainability and well-being enhance service quality in a destination and influence destination image indirectly (Knollenberg et al., 2021), the high number of layoffs as an aftereffect of the 2016 crisis in Turkey is expected to affect destination image negatively. Therefore, tourism suppliers' predictions related to structural problems, including low levels of investment, high levels of unemployment, and cheap destination perceptions for Turkey, may be considered influencers of their predictions related to the destination image. Based on this reasoning, the following hypotheses are formed:

H1a: Structural problems positively affect the deterioration of the destination image.

H1b: Political problems positively affect the deterioration of the destination image.

2.2.2. Domestic and international tourism demand predictions during the tourism crisis

As mentioned above, tourism demand is sensitive to diverse factors, including international politics, diplomatic relations, political instability, and social conflicts, since tourism activities can only be realised and developed in peaceful and safe atmospheres. In addition to jeopardising the safety of destinations, terrorism substantially damages the image and value of destinations from the visitor's perspective (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998). Many scholars support that major terrorist attacks decrease demand towards the destination and a shift in consumer preferences to alternative and competing destinations due to increasing risk perceptions of visitors (Adeloye & Brown, 2018; Araña & León, 2008; Pizam & Fleischer, 2002). Tourists' travel fears and risk perceptions shaped by negative information in the media play a significant role in their destination preferences and result in substantial declines in travel demand (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2021). Further, terrorism, accompanied by political instability, has significant damaging effects on tourist arrivals, tourism revenue, the economy of the industry, and tourism development eventually (Cró & Martins, 2017; Saha & Yap, 2014; Schmude et al., 2020).

Recent literature on terrorist incidents in Turkey proved a significant and positive relationship between adverse news on media and tourist arrivals since tourists' reviews about the terrorism-affected area are likely to guide potential tourists while making their travel decisions (Kirkulak-Ulutdag & Kurt, 2023). Based on the generalisation effects phenomenon, terrorist events in some regions exert a negative effect on tourism demand towards other regions (Seabra et al., 2020). So, it is expected that terrorist incidents in some of the cities will likely affect the general demand for tourism in the country. Further, it is well-known that destination competitiveness is influenced by many vital aspects, including a qualified workforce (Andrades & Dimanche, 2019; Özer et al., 2012), the quality of tourism supply, and the number of infrastructure investments (Isik et al., 2018). Therefore, we propose that tourism suppliers' predictions related to domestic and international tourism demand in Turkey are influenced by the political and structural

problems caused by the 2016 tourism crisis in Turkey. Accordingly, the hypotheses below are formulated:

H2a: Structural problems positively affect the loss of international tourism demand.

H2b: Political problems positively affect the loss of international tourism demand.

H3a: Structural problems positively affect the loss of domestic tourism demand.

H3b: Political problems positively affect the loss of domestic tourism demand.

2.2.3. Procedures and participants

The second phase of data collection took place at the 11th Travel Turkey Izmir Tourism Fair in 2017, when one year passed after the last terrorist attack in Turkey occurred in Istanbul. Compared to 2016, the number of exhibitors at the Travel Turkey Izmir Fair increased by 17%, and the number of visitors by 15% in 2017. The fair hosted 1284 exhibitors from 77 countries and 81 cities in Turkey and 38,587 visitors in 2017 (MCT, 2022b). A self-completed survey including the final items of the measurement scale, three statements measuring participants' predictions about destination image, international and domestic tourism demands for Turkey, and questions about respondent profiles were administered to the Fair exhibitors based in Turkey. Out of 171 questionnaires gathered from tourism and hospitality executives, 165 usable survey answers were analysed in Study B. Before the analyses, the sample size estimation test was carried out with the G* Power 3.1 robot. A minimum of 107 participants were required (Test family: F tests, Statistical test: Linear multiple regression: Fixed model, R² increase), with a 95% confidence interval (Faul et al., 2009). Therefore, the sample size of study B also had statistical testing power. The sample profile for study B is displayed in Appendix B.

2.2.4. Data analysis and results

Confirmatory factor analysis was performed on data collected for study B to verify the dimension structure of the measurement scale. Jamovi was used to test the hypothetical model, which consisted of two factors (structural and political) for the CFA. When the normality of the data was checked, Mardia (1970) test of normality revealed significant statistical levels ($p < .001$) for skewness and kurtosis. Due to non-normality, the Unweighted Least Squares (ULS) method was conducted to assess the instrument's validity in CFA. According to the suggestions of Hair et al. (2010), the model provided a good fit ($\chi^2/df = 1.7$,

SRMR = 0.043, RMSEA = 0.065, NFI = 0.987, CFI = 0.994, TLI = 0.992, RFI = 0.980, GFI = 0.999, PNFI = 0.669). Each factor loading had a significant ($p < .001$) loading of at least 0.58, and no cross-loadings were present, suggesting good convergent validity. The path model is displayed in Fig. 1.

The correlation between the two factors is 0.66, indicating good discriminant validity. McDonald's Omega was referenced to assess the internal consistency of the scale and each factor. McDonald's Omega (ω) for the scale was 0.870, while the values for structural and political problems were 0.841 and 0.826, respectively, indicating high internal consistency of the scale and each factor. Table 3 shows means, SDs, and correlations among dependent variables (deterioration of destination image, loss of international demand, and loss of domestic demand) and two constructs (political and structural problems). The correlations were statistically significant, ranging between $r = 0.19$ and $r = 0.67$ at probability levels of 0.001 and 0.05.

A series of linear regression analyses with the "enter" method was conducted to identify which crisis impact contributes the most to the expectations regarding destination image, international demand, and domestic demand (Table 4). The independent variables were two summated scores of crisis expectations derived from the confirmatory factor analysis. Tolerance values were greater than 0.10 (Min. 0.671), and the values of Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) were under the cutoff VIF threshold of <5 (Max = 1.49), indicating low degrees of multicollinearity among the variables (Hair et al., 2017).

The first model explained 53% of the variance of the image. The overall model was statistically significant ($p \leq .05$). The Beta coefficients confirm that political problems ($\beta = 0.470, p \leq .001$) contribute to the expectations related to destination image more than structural problems ($\beta = 0.351, p \leq .001$) yet both were statistically significant and positively related. Hence, H1a and H1b are both supported. The second model explains 35% of the variance of international demand, but it was insignificant at the 0.05 significance level ($F = 43.46, p = .142$). However, a one-unit increase in structural problems ($\beta = 0.518, p < .001$) results in a 0.518 unit increase in international demand. Political problems, on the other hand, do not significantly influence the expectations regarding international demand ($\beta = 0.114, p = .142$). Therefore, H2a is supported, whereas H2b is rejected. The third model explains 34% of the variance of domestic demand, and the overall model was statistically significant ($p \leq .01$). The Beta coefficients indicate that structural problems ($\beta = 0.342, p \leq .001$) contribute to the expectations related to domestic demand significantly. However, political problems

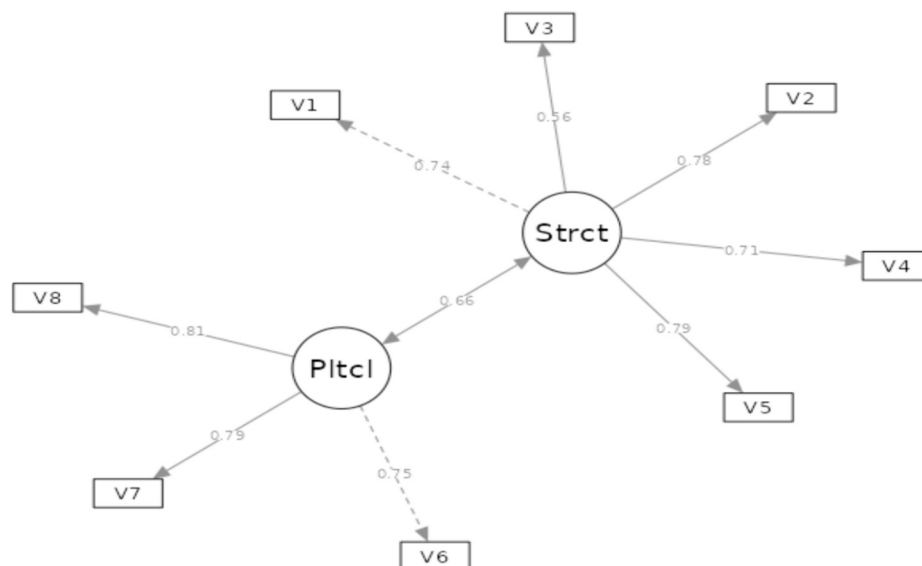


Fig. 1. Path diagram of tourism crisis scale.

Table 3
Means, standard deviations and correlations of variables.

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Deterioration of destination image	4.07	1.143	1				
2. Loss of international demand	3.68	1.334	0.417***	1			
3. Loss of domestic demand	3.00	1.384	0.262***	0.413***	1		
4. Structural problems	3.65	0.989	0.621***	0.582***	0.338***	1	
5. Political problems	3.97	1.036	0.671***	0.411***	0.190*	0.573***	1

* $p < .05$
*** $p < .001$.

Table 4
Linear regression analysis results.

Variable	Deterioration of Destination Image			Loss of International Demand			Loss of Domestic Demand		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Intercept	0.529	0.267		0.544	0.368		1.286	0.446**	
Structural Problems	0.406	0.076***	0.351	0.699	0.104***	0.518	0.478	0.126***	0.341
Political Problems	0.519	0.072***	0.470	0.147	0.099	0.114	-0.008	0.121	-0.006
R	0.730			0.591			0.340		
R ²	0.534			0.349			0.115		
F	92.6			43.5			10.5		

** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

do not have a statistically significant effect ($\beta = -0.006, p = .947$). Hence, H3a is supported, but H3b is rejected accordingly.

2.3. Study C

Even though personal differences in tourists' risk evaluation and their way of dealing with the risk are influential at critical stages of the destination choice process (Karl et al., 2020), terrorist attacks on a specific destination result in a decreasing number of visitors to that destination and loss of tourism revenue for service providers generally (Schmude et al., 2020). Further, time series studies of traveller demand and income following terrorist attacks have previously shown that there are both immediate and long-term repercussions of terrorism (Pizam & Smith, 2000). In line with the prior literature, this study aimed to examine the impact of terrorist attacks on tourist arrivals and tourism income across the years 2014 and 2019, both domestically and internationally, based on secondary data sources. We want to see whether tourism executives' predictions related to tourism demand after terrorist attacks are compatible with the real-world impacts of the crisis by comparing the results of both primary and secondary data approaches. Therefore, time-series analyses were performed on the official tourism statistics of Turkey between 2014 and 2019 based on the four main hypotheses formulated for study C:

H4a: The number of international visitors differs significantly between 2014 and 2019.

H4b: The amounts of international tourism income differ significantly between 2014 and 2019.

H4c: The number of domestic visitors differs significantly between 2014 and 2019.

H4d: The amounts of domestic tourism income differ significantly between 2014 and 2019.

2.3.1. Procedures and sample

Study C used time-series monthly and quarterly data to determine the influence of the tourism crisis on international and domestic tourism. Data for this study was acquired from two secondary sources. First, the annual statistics on the number of trips and individual expenditures of domestic tourists were collected from the tourism statistics portal published by the Turkish Statistical Institute – TUIK. TUIK is the governmental agency responsible for compiling, producing, publishing,

and distributing data and information. It collects data from individuals, households, and companies through surveys, analyses the gathered data, and transforms it into statistical information (TUIK, 2022a). Quarterly statistics related to domestic tourism were subjected to analysis on a yearly basis. Second, the annual statistics related to international tourist arrivals and tourism income were collected from the border statistics webpage of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism – MCT. Monthly statistics from 2014 to 2019 were subjected to the analysis.

2.3.2. Data analysis and results

Fig. 2 depicts international and domestic tourism statistics from 2014 to 2019. According to these results, the number of international visitors fell by 24.6% from 2015 to 2016, while the amount of international tourism income decreased by 29.7% due to terrorism. However, the number of domestic trips fell only 3.9% from 2015 to 2016, even though individual expenditures increased by 3.4% on a yearly basis.

We conducted a series of paired sample *t*-tests to investigate further whether any statistical difference exists in the number of international visitors, international tourism income, domestic tourists, and domestic tourism income from year to year with the influence of terrorist attacks which started in the middle of 2015 and ended at the beginning of 2017. First, we applied the Shapiro-Wilk to test the normality of data, and the preliminary test results showed that the population is normally distributed. Table 5 shows the test results of the paired samples *t*-test for both international and domestic tourism data.

Findings indicated that there are significant differences in the number of international visitors between 2014 before the terrorist attacks ($M = 3,451,255, SD = 1,736,316$) and 2016 in which terrorist attacks intensified ($M = 2,613,777, SD = 1,012,502$), $t(11) = 3.78, p = .003$, Cohen's $d = 1.09$; and 2018 ($M = 3,802,389, SD = 1,775,004$), $t(11) = -4.95, p < .001$, Cohen's $d = -1.43$; and 2019 ($M = 2,876,694, SD = 1,355,140$), $t(11) = -6.77, p < .001$, Cohen's $d = -1.95$. However, there are no significant differences in international visitor numbers between 2014 and 2015 and 2014 and 2017. So, H4a is partially supported.

Regarding international tourism income levels, there is a significant statistical difference between 2014 ($M = 2,980,503, SD = 1,205,617$) and 2016 ($M = 1,842,286, SD = 656,399$). There were also significant differences in international tourism income between 2014 and 2015, 2014 and 2017, and 2014 and 2018, except for 2014 and 2019. Based on

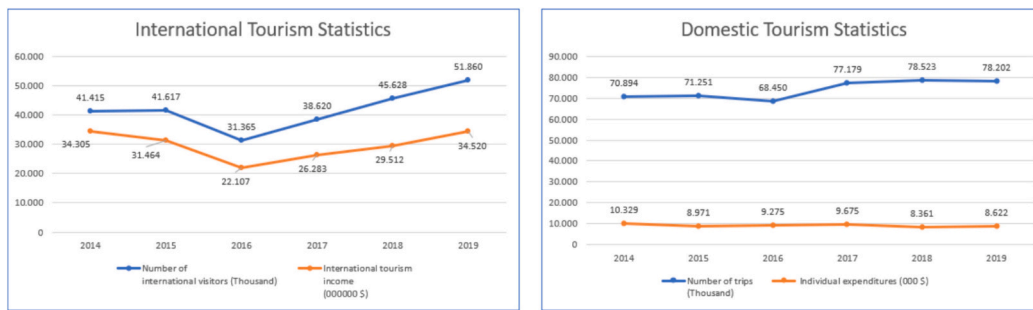


Fig. 2. International and domestic tourism statistics from 2014 to 2019.

Table 5
Results of paired samples t-tests for international and domestic tourism statistics.

	Pair	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Effect size (Cohen's d)
International Visitors	2014-2015	-0.43	11	0.675	-0.12
	2014-2016	3.78	11	0.003**	1.09
	2014-2017	2.18	11	0.052	0.63
	2014-2018	-4.95	11	0.000***	-1.43
	2014-2019	-6.77	11	0.000***	-1.95
International Tourism Income	2014-2015	3.70	11	0.004**	1.07
	2014-2016	5.49	11	0.000***	1.58
	2014-2017	5.57	11	0.000***	1.61
	2014-2018	4.87	11	0.000***	1.41
	2014-2019	-0.20	11	0.846	-0.06
Domestic Trips	2014-2015	-0.05	3	0.963	-0.03
	2014-2016	0.32	3	0.773	0.16
	2014-2017	-1.35	3	0.270	-0.67
	2014-2018	-1.29	3	0.287	-0.65
	2014-2019	-1.58	3	0.213	-0.79
Domestic Tourism Income	2014-2015	4.27	3	0.024*	2.13
	2014-2016	1.39	3	0.259	0.69
	2014-2017	2.56	3	0.083	1.28
	2014-2018	4.72	3	0.018*	2.36
	2014-2019	3.54	3	0.038*	1.77

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

these findings, H4b is also partially supported. The analysis yielded no statistical difference in the number of domestic trips across year-to-year comparisons. Therefore, H4c is rejected.

Test results related to domestic tourism income indicated that there is a significant difference between the amount of domestic tourism income in 2014 ($M = 2,582,286$, $SD = 1,558,640$) and 2018 ($M = 2,090,488$, $SD = 1,541,527$), $t(3) = 4.72$, $p = .018$, Cohen's $d = 2.36$. Similarly, results showed a statistically significant difference in domestic tourism income between 2014 ($M = 2,582,286$, $SD = 1,558,640$) and 2019 ($M = 2,155,650$, $SD = 1,336,993$), $t(3) = 3.54$, $p = .038$, Cohen's $d = 1.77$. Thus, H4c is also partially supported.

Study C aimed to compare the findings from primary data with the findings from secondary data and analyse the real impact of terrorist incidents that occurred in Turkey on the domestic and international tourism industry. The results of this study support the findings of studies A and B, confirming the consistent influence of crisis stemming from terrorist attacks on the deterioration of destination image and international and domestic demand.

3. Discussion, conclusions, and implications

3.1. Discussion

The results suggested that crises' effects on the tourism industry had

two dimensions, namely, structural and political problems, thus providing initial support for separate dimensions as expected based on existing literature. Tourism crises have macro impacts on the economic environment, such as rising unemployment, decreases in investment or financing, and economic slowdowns (Duan et al., 2022). As Ritchie (2004) states, the tourism industry is easily influenced negatively by external political, economic, and social factors that are often beyond the industry's immediate control. Therefore, the study findings regarding structural problems refer to the managers' expectations related to the tourism industry's structure, including employment and turnover rates, tourist profile, and the number of investments, which can be attributed to the highly vulnerable nature of the sector (Anderson, 2006). These results also coincide with the previous research confirming inevitable structural issues faced immediately after a tourism crisis (Steiner, 2007). Although the Turkish tourism industry has developed due to continuous broad-scale investments since the early 1980s (Ertas et al., 2021) and has experienced an increasing international tourism demand since 2000 (MCT, 2022a), the drastic demand drops in 2016 were sufficient to make tourism and hospitality managers pessimistic about the future structure of the industry.

Turkish tourism enterprises had predictions about the political outcomes of the crisis involving political instability in external and internal environments and refugee issues, which might deter future tourism demand and endanger the development of the tourism industry in Turkey. This result is consistent with the previous literature confirming that the tourism industry is influenced by perceived external environmental risks, including political instability (Richter, 1999) and public safety (Gurtner, 2016). The unprecedented political turmoil, including persistent terrorist attacks perpetrated on Turkish territory and the failed coup attempt, is associated with concerns multiplied, calling refugees a security risk and worries about geopolitical risk and political instability in the country in line with the results of previous studies (Haferlach & Kurban, 2017). However, the executives thought that political problems would not affect domestic and international tourist arrivals significantly, in contrast to past research suggesting that tourism demand can only be attracted and realised in peaceful and safe environments free from political unrest and social conflicts (Adeloye & Brown, 2018; Araña & León, 2008; Rasoolimanesh et al., 2021). This finding can be explained by the fact that despite terrorist incidents, tourism can fully recover in six to twelve months because tourists are likely to consider a place secure again when terrorist acts are not repeated at close intervals and if sufficient time passes without further event (Pizam & Fleischer, 2002; Pizam & Smith, 2000). Therefore, tourism and hospitality business managers might have felt hopeful about political problems led by the crisis since the second data set was collected one year after the last terrorist attack on a nightclub in Istanbul. Further, this can also be attributed to the statistics announced in the first six months of 2017, which show that the number of inbound tourists increased by about 10% compared to the same period of the previous year (TURSAB - Association of Turkish Travel Agencies, 2017). Therefore, the perspective of tourism suppliers might have changed

from pessimism to optimism.

The current study also explored the strength and direction of the outcome expectations of tourism businesses in both international and domestic demand. The expectations related to structural problems have a strong and positive influence on both international and domestic demand. This finding is consistent with previous research stating that tourism demand is also influenced by structural assets such as a qualified workforce, the quality of tourism supply, and the number of investments apart from destination attractiveness (Andrades & Dimanche, 2019; Isik et al., 2017; Özer et al., 2012). These results also support the previous findings on the significant influences of managerial risks related to employment policies (layoffs and wage cuts) and investments in the tourism industry (Vo-Thanh et al., 2022; Zhong et al., 2021). Relatively, the results supported that tourism managers were susceptible to international tourism demand due to structural problems despite subsidies such as employment and flight incentives given by the Turkish government to businesses to cope with the crisis (PRT - The Presidency of the Republic of Turkey, 2018). The study identified that tourism executives' predictions about the destination image significantly depended on their expectations related to structural and political problems. Terrorism is inevitably a significant factor expected to devastate Turkey's tourism industry and destination image severely due to some reasons, such as the intensity, frequency, and severity of terrorist attacks, Turkey's geographical location, and the target audience's risk perception (Avraham, 2021). These results align with the previous studies proving that the crisis-sourced structural and political issues strongly threaten the destination image after terrorist incidents (Alrawadie et al., 2018; Knollenberg et al., 2021; Steiner, 2007).

The results demonstrated that this crisis moderately influenced domestic tourism despite the massive impact on international tourism regarding visitor numbers and tourism income. This moderate effect may be explained by enhancing domestic tourists' feelings of safety due to their local knowledge, travel experiences, and familiarity with risk (Adeloye & Brown, 2018; Floyd et al., 2004). This result may be explained by international tourism demand being more sensitive to terrorist incidents (Kirkulak-Uludag & Kurt, 2023). Similarly, past studies confirmed that domestic tourism demand is not affected by terrorist incidents at a destination as much as inbound tourism. For example, Paraskevas and Arendell (2007) affirm that terrorist events in Israel between 1991 and 2000 resulted in a 60% drop in occupancies from foreign tourists while only a 10% drop from domestic ones was noted. Further, Adeloye and Brown (2018) investigated British domestic tourists' risk perception with a qualitative study found that domestic tourists may still want to travel to unsafe destinations, and they see this decision as their way of combating terrorism and terrorists' intention to nourish fears in people's minds. Therefore, terrorist acts in a destination may trigger domestic tourism demand, notwithstanding the adverse effect on international demand. Indeed, the number of occupancies from domestic tourists in the third quarter of the year (between July and September, during which Turkish citizens mostly prefer to travel in the country) was 32.9 million in 2016 and 33 million in 2017, with a 0.1% increase compared to the same period of the previous year (TUIK, 2022b).

The results proved a delayed effect of terrorist attacks and political turmoil on international tourist arrivals as the effect sizes of differences between 2014, 2018, and 2019 were much greater than the ones between 2014, 2016 and 2017. The result is in line with past research that confirmed the effect of terrorism on incoming tourist demand and elucidated the time lag between a terrorist incident and a decrease in travel to the location (Karl et al., 2017). Although there is a significant difference in inbound tourist arrivals between 2014 and 2019, the difference in international tourism income between 2014 and 2019 was insignificant despite the terrorism-induced crisis. This result can be attributed to the 2018 Turkish currency crisis, which caused the Turkish lira to weaken and lose value by up to 35% compared to the US dollar. After this crisis, Turkey reinforced the cheap destination image and

gained the ability to compete with relatively inexpensive destinations in the Mediterranean basin (Trend, 2018). This explanation also strengthens the coherence between the tourism executives' expectations related to structural problems found in Study A and the results of the analysis of cumulative tourism income statistics of Turkey in Study C.

3.2. Theoretical implications

Overall, this study contributes to the literature on tourism and terrorism from several aspects. First, this study adds to the literature by investigating the influence of the terrorism-induced tourism crisis from the industry professionals' perspectives. Although prospective tourists' risk perceptions and behavioural intentions towards terrorism-hit destinations are studied abundantly (Avraham, 2021; Carballo et al., 2021), managers' foresight regarding the long-term effects of terrorism-induced crises should not be neglected. It is essential to understand tourism professionals' expectations since they reflect and impact their confidence in the future tourism industry, which may further influence their investment, employment, and other related decisions.

This is the first study to evaluate structural and political problems originating from consecutive large-scale terrorist incidents and political turmoil and their effects on the destination image and international and domestic tourism demand. A two-dimensional crisis expectations scale could help conceptualise the terrorism-caused tourism crisis. Further, the study provides an adjunct picture through the lenses of sensemaking by examining what aspects of the crisis lead to changes in tourism demand, tourism income, and tourist expenditure in crisis periods. Understanding how the sensemaking process plays out may help destination stakeholders plan their crisis management efforts to guarantee a smooth return to regular operations (Berbekova et al., 2021).

The study's results are supportive of the prospect theory assuming that when people are exposed to the domain of gains, or positive frame, they perceive themselves as having more to lose and become more perceptive of prospective losses relative to potential rewards (Sitkin & Pablo, 1992; Tversky & Kahneman, 1992). Since most managers (70%) have worked in the tourism industry for at least six years and experienced golden times for the Turkish tourism industry, they are more sensitive to income losses, and their expectations are highly inclined to be negative. Further, when the results related to the effect of terrorist incidents in a few cities on the whole country's tourism demand are taken into consideration, this study expands the generalisation effect phenomenon, which supports that travellers frequently extrapolate their impression of a destination to the entire region (Saha & Yap, 2014; Seabra et al., 2020).

The present study also adds to the literature on the tourism crisis by depicting how tourism managers' predictions about tourism demand and destination image change in different phases of a terrorism-induced tourism crisis triggered by a succession of significant incidents in major tourist cities. Understanding how the professionals' reflections on crisis change throughout the crisis stages is essential to sufficiently evaluating the influence of subsidies on the industry and designing effective coping strategies to lessen the severity of the crisis consequences.

3.3. Practical implications

The study results agree with the previous studies proving that the crisis stemming from terror incidents in major cities of Turkey affected inbound tourist arrivals more negatively than domestic tourism, which shows a continuous growth with increased terrorism since inbound tourists mostly rely on news media about the destination instead of first-hand information (Karamelikli et al., 2020). This result also supports the evidence that terrorism substantially affects tourism demand when terrorist incidents and travel advice interact with each other (Krajňák, 2021). Therefore, establishing an effective strategy to handle the crisis requires comprehensive information about the source or the sources of the crisis.

Although the major cities where these terrorist incidents occurred are geographically distant from some of the most visited destinations of Turkey, such as Antalya, Mugla and Izmir (MCT, 2022a), the crisis' influence on the total inbound tourism numbers and tourism income was severe. This result proves the side effects of terrorist attacks and political turmoil in the urban destination context on the whole country destination. Therefore, DMOs in Turkey should reassure travellers about safety by providing correct and consistent information and involve re-imagining and branding activities in the scope of the marketing recovery process. Further, although the crisis communication was previously centralised from the authority to the general public across traditional media channels, and the audience had no opportunity to react, the development and the rise in social media usage have enabled community members to actively generate information for other people and help destinations benefit from big data sources (Park et al., 2019). Further, DMOs and industry representatives should utilise geographically and temporally traceable data from these sources to understand visitors' behaviours and communication schemes during security-related crises. Further, they should launch their target marketing strategies towards travel social media influencers and bloggers to promote destinations and respond to users' comments to prevent spreading false information regarding insecure destination images.

The operationalisation of the anti-terrorism strategies to prevent and mitigate terrorist attacks on tourism destinations as soft targets highly depends on the country's internal context factors and culture (Okumus, 2003). Therefore, all destination stakeholders are likely to struggle to implement the strategy when they are involved in the planning process of anti-terrorism efforts. Local authorities should engage all the stakeholders, such as destination management organisations, regional tourism boards, industry representatives, public and private security agencies, and emergency services, to formulate anti-terrorism strategies and implement and manage them (Paraskevas & Arendell, 2007). Further, the government should allocate substantial resources to ensure security throughout the country and persuade potential tourists that 'everything is under control' to reassure the representatives of the Turkish tourism industry (Avraham, 2021). The tourism crisis in Turkey is a joint result of many events, such as political issues with Russia, terrorist attacks, and internal political instability. Turkish authorities and the private sector must have considered all these events that caused the crisis and determined their effect sizes to plan a proper and effective response. Moreover, the tourism crisis might be seen as an opportunity for setting new strategies and schemes, such as changing tourism product characteristics (e.g. diversity, quality, price), redesigning market structure, segmentation, and marketing strategies and efforts to achieve destination recovery (Jin et al., 2019).

3.4. Limitations and further research

The study is not free from limitations, which shed light on potential areas for future research. Two separate samples were examined in two data collection periods (the emergency and intermediate stages of the crisis). Therefore, we could not compare how the first sample's

Appendix A

Sample profile of study A (N = 219)

Profile		N	%
Gender	Female	111	50.7
	Male	108	49.3
	Total	219	100.0
Age	18–30	101	46.1
	31–40	79	36.1

(continued on next page)

expectations related to crisis outcomes, tourism demand, and destination image changed at the intermediate stage when, presumably, the tourism managers started to forget the effects of the crisis due to the cessation of terrorist acts and the incentives provided by the governments. Even though the demographics and organisational characteristics (such as years of employment in the company and industry) of the two samples were similar, it was impossible to employ the first sample exactly in the intermediate phase because the same managers from the same businesses do not necessarily attend the Travel Turkey Fair every year. Future researchers are suggested to examine the expected outcomes of potential tourism crises by questioning the same managers in distinctive stages of the crisis and adopting longitudinal methods.

Then, the study utilised a short-version questionnaire due to time constraints since the participants had to manage their fair area. Scholars are recommended to gather extensive data to determine the impact of political and structural problems influencing tourism in the future. Afterwards, this study explores the effects of this crisis on destination image and tourism demand only from the managers' perspective. Future research should involve the opinions of tourists, residents, and decision-makers to enable more meaningful comparative results. Moreover, international and domestic tourism statistics in 2020 and 2021 were not subjected to the analysis in Study C since the official tourism statistics for 2020 and 2021 were not published due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Therefore, future research should address the effect of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism statistics in Turkey and examine how the tourism executives' predictions differ from this effect. Finally, the study setting provides an understanding of managers' crisis expectations related to terrorist incidents in developing countries, and future studies can consider recruiting samples from cities in developed countries to increase the generalisability of the results in the urban tourism domain.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Humeyra Dogru-Dastan: Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Conceptualization, Writing – original draft. **Özkan Tütüncü:** Validation, Supervision, Methodology, Formal analysis, Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of competing interest

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s).

Data availability

Data is available on reasonable request from the corresponding authors.

Acknowledgements

Thanks to Sinan Sener for assistance with the data collection and to three anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments.

(continued)

Profile		N	%
Education	41 and above	39	17.8
	Total	219	100.0
	High school and below	21	9.6
	University	179	81.7
Company Sub-Sector	Postgraduate	19	8.7
	Total	219	100.0
	Lodging	132	60.3
	Travel Agency	72	32.9
	Airlines	5	2.3
Years of Employment in the Company	Other	10	4.6
	Total	219	100.0
	0-2	93	42.5
	3-5	56	25.6
	6 or above	70	32.0
Years of Employment in Tourism Industry	Total	219	100.0
	0-2	28	12.8
	3-5	36	16.4
	6 or above	155	70.8
Operating Year of the Company	Total	219	100.0
	0-2	35	16
	3-5	27	12.3
	6 or above	157	71.7
	Total	219	100.0

Appendix B

Sample profile of study B (N = 165)

Profile		n	%
Gender	Female	70	42.4
	Male	95	57.6
	Total	165	100.0
Age	18-30	67	40.6
	31-40	61	37
	41 and above	37	22.4
	Total	165	100.0
	High school and below	21	12.7
Education	University	124	75.2
	Postgraduate	20	12.1
	Total	165	100.0
	Lodging	104	63.4
Company Sub-Sector	Travel Agency	48	29.3
	Airlines	1	0.6
	Other	11	6.7
	Total	165	100.0
	0-2	60	36.4
Years of Employment in the Company	3-5	42	25.5
	6 or above	63	38.2
	Total	165	100.0
	0-2	15	9.1
Years of Employment in Tourism Industry	3-5	33	20
	6 or above	117	70.9
	Total	165	100.0
	0-2	18	10.9
Operating Year of the Company	3-5	32	19.4
	6 or above	115	69.7
	Total	165	100.0

References

- Adeloye, D., & Brown, L. (2018). Terrorism and domestic tourist risk perceptions. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, 16(3), 217-233. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14766825.2017.1304399>
- Ageeva, E., & Foroudi, P. (2019). Tourists' destination image through regional tourism: From supply and demand sides perspectives. *Journal of Business Research*, 101, 334-348.
- Alrawadieh, Z., Dincer, M. Z., Dincer, F. I., & Mammadova, P. (2018). Understanding destination image from the perspective of Western travel bloggers: The case of Istanbul. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 12(2), 198-212. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCTHR-12-2017-0124>
- Anderson, B. A. (2006). Crisis management in the Australian tourism industry: Preparedness, personnel and postscript. *Tourism Management*, 27(6), 1290-1297. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2005.06.007>
- Andrades, L., & Dimanche, F. (2019). Destination competitiveness in Russia: Tourism professionals' skills and competences. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 31(2), 910-930. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-11-2017-0769>
- Araña, J. E., & León, C. J. (2008). The impact of terrorism on tourism demand. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(2), 299-315. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2007.08.003>

- Avraham, E. (2021). Combating tourism crisis following terror attacks: Image repair strategies for European destinations since 2014. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 24(8), 1079–1092. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2020.1764510>
- Avraham, E., & Ketter, E. (2017). Destination image repair while combatting crises: Tourism marketing in Africa. *Tourism Geographies*, 19(5), 780–800. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2017.1357140>
- BBC News. (2015). Turkey's downing of Russian warplane - what we know. Retrieved March 17, 2022, from <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-middle-east-34912581>
- BBC News. (2016). Turkey's coup attempt: What you need to know. Retrieved March 19, 2022, from <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-europe-36816045>
- BBC News. (2017). Istanbul new year Reina nightclub attack 'leaves 39 dead. Retrieved March 28, 2022, from <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-europe-38481521>
- Berbekova, A., Uysal, M., & Assaf, A. G. (2021). A thematic analysis of crisis management in tourism: A theoretical perspective. *Tourism Management*, 86, Article 104342. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2021.104342>
- Blake, A., & Sinclair, M. T. (2003). Tourism crisis management: US response to September 11. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(4), 813–832. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(03\)00056-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(03)00056-2)
- Cao, Z., Li, G., & Song, H. (2017). Modelling the interdependence of tourism demand: The global vector autoregressive approach. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 67, 1–13.
- Carballo, R. R., Leon, C. J., & Carballo, M. M. (2021). The impact of terrorist attacks in cities on the relationship between tourists' risk perception, destination image and behavioural intentions. *Cities*, 119, Article 103382. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cities.2021.103382>
- Chen, C. C., & Chen, M. H. (2021). Well-being and career change intention: COVID-19's impact on unemployed and furloughed hospitality workers. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 33(8), 2500–2520. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-07-2020-0759>
- Cró, S., & Martins, A. M. (2017). Structural breaks in international tourism demand: Are they caused by crises or disasters? *Tourism Management*, 63, 3–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.05.009>
- Duan, J., Xie, C., & Morrison, A. M. (2022). Tourism crises and impacts on destinations: A systematic review of the tourism and hospitality literature. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 46(4), 667–695. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1096348021994194>
- Ertas, M., Sel, Z. G., Kirlar-Can, B., & Tütüncü, Ö. (2021). Effects of crisis on crisis management practices: A case from Turkish tourism enterprises. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 29(9), 1490–1507. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2021.1879818>
- Eugenio-Martin, J. L., Sinclair, M. T., & Yeoman, I. (2006). Quantifying the effects of tourism crises: An application to Scotland. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 19(2–3), 21–34. https://doi.org/10.1300/J073v19n02_03
- Europol. (2017). TESAT European Union Terrorism Situation and Trend Report. Retrieved March 17, 2022, from <https://www.europol.europa.eu/publications-events/main-reports/tesat-report>
- Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A. G. (2009). Statistical power analyses using G* power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. *Behavior Research Methods*, 41(4), 1149–1160.
- Faulkner, B. (2001). Towards a framework for tourism disaster management. *Tourism Management*, 22(2), 135–147. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177\(00\)00048-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-5177(00)00048-0)
- Floyd, M. F., Gibson, H., Pennington-Gray, L., & Thapa, B. (2004). The effect of risk perceptions on intentions to travel in the aftermath of September 11, 2001. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 15(2–3), 19–38. https://doi.org/10.1300/J073v15n02_02
- Gerbing, D. W., & Hamilton, J. G. (1996). Viability of exploratory factor analysis as a precursor to confirmatory factor analysis. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 3(1), 62–72. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10705519609540030>
- Ghaderi, Z., Som, A. P. M., & Henderson, J. C. (2012). Tourism crises and island destinations: Experiences in Penang, Malaysia. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 2, 79–84. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2012.03.006>
- Fuchs, G., & Reichel, A. (2006). Tourist destination risk perception: The case of Israel. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 14(2), 83–108. https://doi.org/10.1300/J150v14n02_06
- Fuchs, G., Uriely, N., Reichel, A., & Maoz, D. (2013). Vacationing in a terror-stricken destination: Tourists' risk perceptions and rationalizations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(2), 182–191. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287512458833>
- Glaesser, D. (2004). *Crisis management in the tourism industry*. Routledge.
- Gurtner, Y. (2016). Returning to paradise: Investigating issues of tourism crisis and disaster recovery on the island of Bali. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 28, 11–19. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2016.04.007>
- Haferlach, L., & Kurban, D. (2017). Lessons learnt from the EU-Turkey refugee agreement in guiding EU migration partnerships with origin and transit countries. *Global Policy*, 8, 85–93. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1758-5899.12432>
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis*. Prentice Hall.
- Hair, J. F., Jr., Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. M., & Gudergan, S. P. (2018). Advanced issues in partial least squares structural equation modeling. SAGE (Publications).
- Hall, C. M., Timothy, D., & Duval, D. (2004). Security and tourism: Towards a new understanding? *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 15(2), 1–18.
- Isaac, R. K., & Van den Bedem, A. (2021). The impacts of terrorism on risk perception and travel behaviour of the Dutch market: Sri Lanka as a case study. *International Journal of Tourism Cities*, 7(1), 63–91. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJTC-06-2020-0118>
- Isik, C., Dogru, T., & Turk, E. S. (2018). A nexus of linear and non-linear relationships between tourism demand, renewable energy consumption, and economic growth: Theory and evidence. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 20(1), 38–49. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.2151>
- Jack, E. P., & Raturi, A. S. (2006). Lessons learned from methodological triangulation in management research. *Management Research News*, 29(6), 345–357. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01409170610683833>
- Jin, X. C., Qu, M., & Bao, J. (2019). Impact of crisis events on Chinese outbound tourist flow: A framework for post-events growth. *Tourism Management*, 74, 334–344. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2019.04.011>
- Karamelikli, H., Khan, A. A., & Karimi, M. S. (2020). Is terrorism a real threat to tourism development? Analysis of inbound and domestic tourist arrivals in Turkey. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 23(17), 2165–2181. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2019.1681945>
- Karl, M., Muskat, B., & Ritchie, B. W. (2020). Which travel risks are more salient for destination choice? An examination of the tourist's decision-making process. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 18, Article 100487. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2020.100487>
- Karl, M., Winder, G., & Bauer, A. (2017). Terrorism and tourism in Israel: Analysis of the temporal scale. *Tourism Economics*, 23(6), 1343–1352. <https://doi.org/10.1177/13548166166686417>
- Kirkulak-Uludag, B., & Kurt, S. U. (2023). Why would anyone visit a terror-affected place? A case of Turkey. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 13567667231203866. <https://doi.org/10.1177/13567667231203866>
- Kislali, H., Kavartzis, M., & Saren, M. (2016). Rethinking destination image formation. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 10(1), 70–80. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCTHR-05-2015-0050>
- Knollenberg, W., Brune, S., Harrison, J., & Savage, A. E. (2021). Identifying a community capital investment portfolio to sustain a tourism workforce. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2021.1890094>
- Konecnik, M., & Go, F. (2008). Tourism destination brand identity: The case of Slovenia. *Journal of Brand Management*, 15, 177–189.
- Krajčák, T. (2021). The effects of terrorism on tourism demand: A systematic review. *Tourism Economics*, 27(8), 1736–1758. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1354816620938900>
- Li, S., Blake, A., & Cooper, C. (2010). China's tourism in a global financial crisis: A computable general equilibrium approach. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 13(5), 435–453.
- Madhavan, H., & Rastogi, R. (2013). Social and psychological factors influencing destination preferences of domestic tourists in India. *Leisure Studies*, 32(2), 207–217. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02614367.2011.632781>
- Mao, Y., He, J., Morrison, A. M., & Andres Coca-Stefaniak, J. (2021). Effects of tourism CSR on employee psychological capital in the COVID-19 crisis: From the perspective of conservation of resources theory. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 24(19), 2716–2734. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2020.1770706>
- Mardia, K. V. (1970). Measures of multivariate skewness and kurtosis with applications. *Biometrika*, 57(3), 519–530. <https://doi.org/10.1093/biomet/57.3.519>
- MCT - Ministry of Culture and Tourism. (2022a). Annual Newsletters. Retrieved March 19, 2022, from <https://yigm.ktb.gov.tr/TR-249709/yillik-bultenler.html>
- MCT - Ministry of Culture and Tourism. (2022b). Travel Türkiye İzmir Turizm Fuar ve Kongresi. Retrieved August 5, 2022, from <https://izmir.ktb.gov.tr/TR-196200/travel-turkiye-izmir-turizm-fuar-ve-kongresi-7-10-ar.html>
- Monterrubio, C. (2017). Protests and tourism crises: A social movement approach to causality. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 22, 82–89.
- Okumus, F. (2003). A framework to implement strategies in organisations. *Management Decision*, 41(9), 871–882. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00251740310499555>
- Özer, K. O., Latif, H., Saruşik, M., & Ergün, Ö. (2012). International competitive advantage of Turkish tourism industry: A comparative analyse of Turkey and Spain by using the diamond model of M. Porter. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 58, 1064–1076. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.09.1087>
- Özertem, H. S. (2017). Turkey and Russia: A fragile friendship. *Turkish Policy Quarterly*, 15(4), 121–134.
- Paraskevas, A., & Arendell, B. (2007). A strategic framework for terrorism prevention and mitigation in tourism destinations. *Tourism Management*, 28(6), 1560–1573. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2007.02.012>
- Park, D., Kim, W. G., & Choi, S. (2019). Application of social media analytics in tourism crisis communication. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 22(15), 1810–1824.
- Pizam, A., & Fleischer, A. (2002). Severity versus frequency of acts of terrorism: Which has a larger impact on tourism demand? *Journal of Travel Research*, 40, 337–339. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287502040003011>
- Pizam, A., & Smith, G. (2000). Tourism and terrorism: A quantitative analysis of major terrorist acts and their impact on tourism destinations. *Tourism Economics*, 6(2), 123–138. <https://doi.org/10.5367/00000000101297523>
- PRT - The Presidency of the Republic of Turkey. (2018). Eleventh Development Plan (2019–2023). Retrieved March 28, 2022, from <https://www.sbb.gov.tr/kalkinma-planlari/>
- Rasoolimanesh, S. M., Seyfi, S., Rastegar, R., & Hall, C. M. (2021). Destination image during the COVID-19 pandemic and future travel behavior: The moderating role of past experience. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 21, Article 100620. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2021.100620>
- Richter, L. K. (1999). After political turmoil: The lessons of rebuilding tourism in three Asian countries. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38(1), 41–45. <https://doi.org/10.1177/004728759903800109>
- Ritchie, B. W. (2004). Chaos, crises, and disasters: A strategic approach to crisis management in the tourism industry. *Tourism Management*, 25(6), 669–683. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2003.09.004>
- Roberts, A. (1994). The crisis in UN peacekeeping. *Survival*, 36(3), 93–120. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00396339408442752>
- Saha, S., & Yap, G. (2014). The moderation effects of political instability and terrorism on tourism development: A cross-country panel analysis. *Journal of Travel Research*, 53(4), 509–521. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287513496472>

- Schmude, J., Karl, M., & Weber, F. (2020). Tourism and terrorism: Economic impact of terrorist attacks on the tourism industry. The example of the destination of Paris. *Zeitschrift für Wirtschaftsgeographie*, 64(2), 88–102. <https://doi.org/10.1515/zfw-2019-0015>
- Seabra, C., Dolnicar, S., Abrantes, J. L., & Kastenholz, E. (2013). Heterogeneity in risk and safety perceptions of international tourists. *Tourism Management*, 36, 502–510. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.09.008>
- Seabra, C., Reis, P., & Abrantes, J. L. (2020). The influence of terrorism in tourism arrivals: A longitudinal approach in a Mediterranean country. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 80, Article 102811. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2019.102811>
- Sitkin, S. B., & Pablo, A. L. (1992). Reconceptualizing the determinants of risk behavior. *Academy of Management Review*, 17(1), 9–38. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.1992.4279564>
- Soliev, N. (2017). The terrorist threat in Turkey: A dangerous new phase. *Counter Terrorist Trends and Analyses*, 9(4), 24–29.
- Sönmez, S. F., Apostolopoulos, Y., & Tarlow, P. (1999). Tourism in crisis: Managing the effects of terrorism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38, 13–18.
- Sönmez, S. F., & Graefe, A. R. (1998). Influence of terrorism risk on foreign tourism decisions. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(1), 112–144. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383\(97\)00072-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0160-7383(97)00072-8)
- Steiner, C. (2007). Political instability, transnational tourist companies and destination recovery in the Middle East after 9/11. *Tourism and Hospitality Planning & Development*, 4(3), 169–190. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790530701733421>
- Thapa, B., Cahyanto, I., Holland, S. M., & Absher, J. D. (2013). Wildfires and tourist behaviors in Florida. *Tourism Management*, 36, 284–292. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2012.10.011>
- The jamovi project. (2022). jamovi. (Version 2.3) [Computer Software]. Retrieved July 25, 2022, from <https://www.jamovi.org>.
- Travelturkeyexpo.com. (2022). Fair Info. Retrieved August 3, 2022, from <https://www.travelturkeyexpo.com/fair-info>.
- Trend, N. (2018). Just how cheap are holidays to Turkey right now – and should I take lira?. Retrieved March 27, 2024, from <https://www.telegraph.co.uk/travel/advice/turkey-lira-crisis-cheap-holidays-what-currency/>.
- TUIK. (2022a). Duties and Authorities. Retrieved August 22, 2022, from https://www.tuik.gov.tr/Kurumsal/Gorev_Yetkileri.
- TUIK. (2022b). Data Portal for Statistics: Education, Culture, Sport and Tourism. Retrieved June 4, 2022, from <https://data.tuik.gov.tr/Kategori/GetKategori?p=egitim-kultur-spor-ve-turizm-105&dil=1>.
- Turizmajansi.com. (2016). Fuarın ardından Travel Turkey 2016 Değerlendirmesi. Retrieved August 3, 2022, from <https://www.turizmajansi.com/haber/fuarin-ardindan-travel-turkey-2016-degerlendirmesi-h11716>.
- TURSAB - Association of Turkish Travel Agencies. (2017). Tourism Industry Report: 2017 January–June Period. Retrieved April 1, 2022 from https://www.tursab.org.tr/haberler/tursab-tuader-turizm-sektor-raporu-yayinlandi_16736.
- Tversky, A., & Kahneman, D. (1992). Advances in prospect theory: Cumulative representation of uncertainty. *Journal of Risk and Uncertainty*, 5, 297–323. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00122574>
- Vo-Thanh, T., Vu, T. V., Nguyen, N. P., Nguyen, D. V., Zaman, M., & Chi, H. (2022). COVID-19, frontline hotel employees' perceived job insecurity and emotional exhaustion: Does trade union support matter? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 30(6), 1159–1176. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2021.1910829>
- Wang, J., & Ritchie, B. W. (2010). A theoretical model for strategic crisis planning: Factors influencing crisis planning in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Tourism Policy*, 3(4), 297–317. <https://doi.org/10.1504/IJTP.2010.04039>
- Wang, Y. S. (2009). The impact of crisis events and macroeconomic activity on Taiwan's international inbound tourism demand. *Tourism Management*, 30, 75–82. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2008.04.010>
- Xie, C., Zhang, J., Chen, Y., & Morrison, A. M. (2022). Hotel employee perceived crisis shocks: Conceptual and scale development. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 51, 361–374. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2022.04.005>
- Xie, C., Zhang, J., Chen, Y., Morrison, A. M., & Lin, Z. (2020). Measuring hotel employee perceived job risk: Dimensions and scale development. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 32(2), 730–748. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-01-2019-0022>
- Zhong, L., Sun, S., Law, R., & Li, X. (2021). Tourism crisis management: Evidence from COVID-19. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 24(19), 2671–2682. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2021.1901866>