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The Impact of Fear Message on Electronic Word of Mouth and Tourists' Intention to Visit

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Abstract

Purpose: The purpose of this paper is to explore the impact of political instability and fear message on electronic word of mouth (eWOM). In addition, it in turn examines the casual influence of eWOM on travel intention decision making by adopting the fear appeal theory in a tourist destination.

Design/Methodology/Approach: Questionnaires were distributed to international tourists in Sharm El-Sheikh through a random sampling approach. A number of 329 respondents was investigated at various tourist attractions of Sharm El-Sheikh. A quantitative approach is employed with structural equation modeling (SEM) informing the analysis of the impact of political instability on fear message and, in turn, on tourist's eWOM and tourist's travel decision making including the intention to visit.

Findings: The research findings revealed that adopting fear appeal theory provides an applicable model for explaining the negative impact of fear and political instability on tourist's eWOM and intention to visit.

Research limitations & implications: The findings offer important implications for media service provider and are likely to arouse further research in the area of media, eWOM and online travel.

Keywords: fear appeal theory; eWOM; political instability; travel intention; Egypt.

1. Introduction

The eWOM is considered to be one of the most important sources of information for consumers, in a world of information technology (IT) (Lee, Park & Han, 2008). This is specially seen in the field of tourism and hospitality, as the tourism sector is sensitive to various internal and external

factors, whether economic, social, environmental, or even political (Zaei & Zaei, 2013). According to Wong & Yeh (2009), the tourism travel decision making involves risk, due to the intangibility of the tourism product, as it can't be experienced prior to consumption. Therefore, searching information is an important step for reaching the right decision (Schulz-Hardt, Frey, Lüthgens & Moscovici, 2000). For example; social sources on the internet, such as: blogging, twittering, review lists, forums, chat rooms, e-mails, are considered to be more trustful and influential than formal sources, when seeking information (Filieri & McLeay, 2014).

Thus, this paper adopts fear appeal theory to examine the relationships between political instability, eWOM and tourist's travel intention to visit. More specifically, it analyses the applicability of fear appeal theory to study the casual relationship of political instability, and fear message on eWOM and the eWOM effect on travel intention to visit a tourist destination. A quantitative approach is used whereby structural equation modeling is undertaken to analyze the relationship between the research variables. Practically, the research aims to shed light on the eWOM and political factors that have the greatest influence on the tourist's travel intention.

1.1 The Egyptian context

The tourism industry in Egypt can be considered as an essential source of hard currency, and an important generator of directly and indirectly related employment. It is seen as the main engine for the growth of Egypt (Richter &Steiner, 2008). For instance, according to Hilmi, Safa, Reynaud & Allemand (2012) tourism in Egypt is linked with about seventy feeding services and complementary industries, and it represented about 40 per cent of Egypt's service exports in 2007/2008. Overall, as Steiner (2006) stated, Egypt can be seen as an excellent example of the positive economic consequences of tourism industry, which seem to outweigh its negative impacts. Unfortunately, and due to tourism's sensitivity, any unexpected disorders may affect the tourism industry and thus adversely influence the tourism destination.

By considering the consequences of political instability and political violence in general in a dynamic cross-country panel, tourists might be put off, similarly, through the suppression of opposition movements; violation of human rights; and the police presence around tourist institutions (Fielding & Shortland, 2011). A real example, during 2011, Egypt suffered a succession of political events and clashes. These events started on 25th January 2011

when tens of thousands of people gathered in Cairo's Tahrir Square to protest about their repudiation of the Egyptian political system and socio-economic environment (Abdelrahman, 2012). These events ended on 11 February 2011 when Hosni Mubarak, the former president of Egypt, was compelled to step down (Mohammad, Jones, Dawood & Sayed, 2012). Consequently, there was overwhelmingly clear indication of the Egyptian Revolution's negative impact on the tourism sector and on the state's overall economy.

The effects extended significantly beyond the airline and accommodation cancellations that transpired around the period of the initial revolution. As a result and because of fears regarding the political instability, increased crime rates and absence of sufficient police protection, as broadcast by most of the main international media facilities, tourists avoided visits to Egypt (Nassar, 2012). This was followed by the events of June 30, 2013 and ensuing political instability led to the deterioration of tourists' number to Egypt (Housden, 2013). In addition, the media message adopted by the Egyptian television, which was directed to internal and external community (e.g. "Egypt is fighting terrorism") may have positively or negatively affected tourists' travel decisions to visit Egypt.

2. Literature Review
2.1 Tourism, travel decision-making process

The travel industry is considered one of the most important industries all over the world. Its main benefits vary from economic, social, environmental, political (Ardahaey, 2011). The tourism travel decision-making process includes a number of steps, which starts from: feeling the need to travel (intention to travel), searching information, evaluation of choices, and applying the choice (Yasvari, Ghassemi & Rahrovy, 2012). For example, Kotler, Bowen, Makens, Xie & Liang (2006) identify the stages of decision-making process in tourism as the following: (1) need recognition, which indicates the arousing of the intention to travel (2) information search, which is considered a crucial step in the decision making process. It begins with the first step, and carries on till the last step, (3) evaluation of alternatives, after analyzing the information, many alternatives will be reached, that leads to satisfying the aroused need (4), choice of product or service when deciding on one alternative that proves to be the most right and appropriate and (5) post purchase evaluation, the final step in the process of tourism decision making.

From the aforementioned illustration with respect to the previous steps, it can be indicated that gathering information about the product or

service, after identifying the need, is the most important factor in the travel decision-making process (Goossens, 2000).

2.2 Political instability

Political instability is defined as "a situation in which conditions and mechanism of governance and rule are challenged as to their political legitimacy operating from outside of the normal operations of the political system" (Hall & Page, 2003). Sonmez & Graefe (1998) argued that destinations perceived as safe from terrorism and political problems will be considered seriously, while those perceived as risky will be rejected. For example, potential tourists compare destination alternatives according to perceived benefits and costs. Risk is considered a cost, therefore a safer destination is less costly than a risky one (Enders, Sandler & Parise, 1992).

The destination choice and the intention to travel become risky when the consequences are uncertain or undesirable, therefore information search is considered to be a "risk reduction strategy" (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992). Therefore, personal security is a major concern for tourists, as they travel to enjoy their time, they will seek safe and secure destinations, and avoid those with political instability circumstances (Nyaruwata, S., Mhizha, A., & Mandebvu, G. 2013). Consequently, travelers rank safety and security as key factors when planning a vacation or holiday (Ingram, Tabari & Watthanakhomprathip, 2013). Previous studies stated that in many countries where political instability occurred, tourism has been negatively affected (Cavlek, 2002). Moreover, Saha & Yap (2013) argued that countries that experience high levels of political risk witness significant reductions in their tourism businesses.

2.3 WOM as a promotional tool

The word of mouth has become a very important and influential tool in the marketing sector of goods and services because it is considered an indirect way of promoting goods and services. Consumers long ago tended to use WOM to exchange information and experiences about various buying decisions of products and services (Silverman, 2011). Consumers tend to trust the opinions of their friends, family, and acquaintances. Researchers show that 90% of people trust products and services confirmed by one of their family members, friends, or colleagues, because they are sure that they won't benefit from anything (Alire, 2007). This makes WOM more credible and influential (Gupta &Harris, 2010), on consumers attitudes and behaviors (Chevlier & Miyzlin, 2006), as well as buying decision-making process of

products and services (Steven , 2008). Thus, WOM as an important way of obtaining data and information about products and services, play a crucial role through every step of the buying decision making process, which includes problem recognition (feeling the intention or need to travel), searching for information, evaluating the chosen option (Gursoy & Chen, 2000).

WOM can be defined as a way consumers directly inform other customers about their experiences after using products or service (Heriyati & Siek, 2011). It is also defined as a process for customers to share information, views and opinions about products or services to others (Jalilvand, Esfahani & Samiei, 2011). Hence, WOM can be seen as an oral informal message occurring in person, by telephone, e-mail, mailing list, or any other means of communication, regarding a service or good (Silverman, 1997). Previous researches stated that WOM could be personal or impersonal; it is a non-commercial conversation, as well as being an informal flow of information. For instance, friends, family and acquaintances are personal sources (Brown & Reingen, 1987; Duhan, Johnson, Wilcox & Harrell, 1997), while columns, articles, and commentary by journalists, other consumers, and experts are considered impersonal sources (Senecal, Kalczynski & Nantel, 2005).

Researchers argued that WOM is seven times more effective than newspaper ads, and four times more effective than direct sales, and twice as effective as radio advertising (Goyette, Ricard, Bergeron & Marticotte, 2010), as well WOM is nine times more effective than advertising regarding changing consumers attitudes and behaviours (Day, 1971). In addition, WOM through people's recommendations, were three times more effective in terms of stimulating purchasing of more than 60 different products than was advertising (Goyette et al., 2010). Thus, it can be confirmed that WOM is one of the most effective, impersonal, non-commercial, indirect tool, influencing consumers buying decision-making process, through every step of the process. Therefore, the strength of WOM is greater than that of conventional advertising regarding its ability to create negative or positive attitudes, or behaviours (Albarq, 2014).

2.3.1 eWOM in tourism and hospitality

As noted earlier, and due to the intangibility and sensitivity that characterizes the tourism and hospitality sector, gaining and collecting information is considered a very important risk-reducing tool, when making the travel decision (Jalilvand &Samiei, 2012). Therefore, the rapid development of the internet has enabled consumers to easily share their opinions, perspectives, and experiences of various products or services, with

other people (Lee & Lee, 2009). In addition, the advance of internet technology that participated in turning the traditionally WOM to eWOM, with all the advantages and characteristics of WOM (Lerrthaitrakul & Panjakajornsak, 2014). According to Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, Walsh & Gremler (2004) eWOM is defined as any positive or negative statement made by potential, real, and previous clients about a product or service via the internet.In addition, Setiawan, P. Y., Troena, E. A., & Armanu, N (2014) explained that eWOM refers to any positive or negative statement made by potential, actual, or former consumers about a product or service which is made available to multitude of individuals and institutes via the internet. Furthermore, eWOM can be defined as informal communication that flows through internet media, both between producers, and customers, and among customers themselves" (Chatterjee, 2001). As a result, eWOM is more effective than traditional WOM, due to its greater accessibility, and high reach (Fakharyan, Jalilvand, Elyasi & Mohammadi, 2012). For example, the study results of Fuchs, Uriely & Reichel (2013) found that tourists used several means of rationalization to justify their seemingly irrational behavior, such as blaming the media for overexposure of terror risks.

Albarq (2014) argued that one third of travelers are communicating through eWOM, before making the travel purchase decision, because they believe that online reviews enable them to make the right decision. Furthermore, Gretzel & Yoo (2008) state that over 70% of travelers consider online reviews from other travelers, as major sources of knowledge. Kang & Schuett (2013) state that eWOM is an important tool of travel advice and news, as most of travelers use comments of other customers as reliable information source when planning trips. This is because consumers especially in the tourism and travel sector are often not trusting the producers own advertising, and much more trusting of other consumers (MacKinnon, 2012). Similarly, earlier studies suggest that eWOM has a great influence, regarding experience goods (Klein, 1998). Quality can't be judged before the consumption, due to its intangibility (Nelson, 1970). Moreover, Gursoy & McCleary (2004) stated that many tourists refer to the internet for acquiring the information they need before travelling.

In addition, Fakharyan et al. (2012) demonstrate that each year hundreds of millions of potential visitors consult online reviews. Among these potential visitors, 84% are affected by reviews, either positively or negatively. Consequently, the information consumers receive affects their decision making process for buying products or services (Lee et al., 2008). For example, studies show that negative comments are more influential than

positive comments (Park, Lee & Han, 2007; Lee & Koo, 2012). Therefore, eWOM influences consumers decision making process, in all steps, starting from the stage in which they are thinking about buying the product or service (intention), during the stage of gathering information, evaluating alternatives, choosing a certain alternative to apply, and finally the post purchase evaluation, which will lead to either recommending the product or service to others, or warning them about buying it.

2.4 Fear appeal theory

Modern tourists are concerned with their safety, and are very sensitive to their security and wellbeing. Accordingly, they will not spend their hard-earned money to go to a destination, where their safety may be endangered or jeopardized (Chen & Gursoy, 2001). Hem, Iversen & Nysveen (2003) argued that some traveler segments are risk-prospectors and thus respond more positively to risky holiday images, while others are risk-aversing and thereby react more negatively. This is clearly shown through the theory of fear appeal, which indicates that when fear is aroused, the recipient will become motivated to alleviate the negative impact or influence (Hovland, Janis & Kelley, 1953, Brennan & Binney, 2010, Shen & Dillard, 2014, Boss, Galletta, Lowry, Moody & Polak, 2015). Fear motivates actions, aimed at reducing the unpleasant emotions, or undesirable effects. (LaTour & Zahra, 1988; Tanner, Hunt & Eppright, 1991). For example, one of the actions that fear motivates, which participates in minimizing the unwanted or undesired feelings, is knowledge, that is gathering information regarding the phenomenon, or situation, that causes the fear, risk, danger, or unpleasant feeling. Fear appeals are "persuasive messages designed to scare people by describing the terrible things that will happen to them if they do not do what the message recommends" (Witte,1992).

Fear appeals, hence, does not just increase the threat, but it also shows the way in which individuals could address this threat (Milne, Sheeran & Orbell,2000; Witte & Allen, 2000).Therefore fear appeals are constructed of two main elements: (1) the threat component, which refers to the issue, and it's severity, including the unpleasant and negative consequences and risk, and (2) the action component, which indicates the process and steps that a frightened person takes, and the measurements he tends to apply in order to reduce or avoid the threat (Freimuth, Hammond, Edgar & Monahan, 1990). This refers to the reaction that the traveler does to reduce the negative feeling of fear, this is done through collecting data, regarding the issue, then making a decision of whether to travel or not, depending on the information and the analysis of it.

Thus, applying the fear appeal theory helps explain the role played by e-WOM as an informative tool used nowadays by customers, to help them reduce the unpleasant emotion of fear aroused by the political instability circumstances, and the afterwards response on the intention to travel decision making. For example, Hem et al. (2003) in their study, "Effects of ad photos portraying risky vacation situations on intention to visit a tourist destination: Moderating effects of age, gender, and nationality" indicated that overall fear created by risky vacation photos had a negative effect on intention to visit a tourist destination.

3. Questionnaire design and data collection

The questionnaire instrument development is based on four latent variables, two of them, reflective, were used and validated before in previous studies (Electronic word of mouth and Travel Intention constructs). The other two latent variables, formative, were newly developed. This is because the researchers could not identify any previous studies directly addressing the phenomenon (Political instability and Fear constructs) under investigation. Electronic word of mouth (EWOM) (Reflective). EWOM measures a positive or negative statement made by potential, actual, and former tourists about a tourism service, product or a destination using the Internet. EWOM construct consists of 6 items adopted from Fakhryan et al. (2012); Jalilvand & Samiei (2012); Albarq (2014). Travel Intention is the second reflective latent variable which was adopted from Jalilvand & Samiei (2012). Political Instability construct is developed to measure to what extent tourists assess the political stability in Egypt.

Respondents were asked to indicate to what extent they think the political stability encourage/discourage the visit to Egypt for tourism. Finally, Fear message is the fourth latent variable developed to measure to what extent Egypt as a tourist destination is safe. The other two formative latent variables (Political Instability and Fear Constructs) were developed through literature review and guidance of experts (Williams & Baláž, 2015; Saha & Yap, 2013; Fuchs et al., 2013). Table 1 provides more details about the research model's constructs and its scale items.

Table I. Constructs of the study

E-Word of Mouth (eWOM) 6 items
I often read other tourists' online travel reviews to know what destinations make good impressions on others.
To make sure I choose the right destination, I often read other tourists' online travel reviews.
I often consult other tourists' online travel reviews to help choose an attractive destination.
I frequently gather information from tourists' online travel reviews before I travel to a certain destination.
If I don't read tourists' online travel reviews when I travel to a destination, I worry about my decision.
When I travel to a destination, tourists' online travel reviews make me confident in travelling to the destination.
Travel Intention (TravelIN) 3 items
I am willing to travel to Egypt for tourism.
I make a plan to travel to Egypt for tourism.
I make an effort to travel to Egypt for tourism.
Political Instability (PoliS) 2 items
To what extent do you assess the political stability in Egypt?
To what extent do you think the political stability encourage/discourage you to visit Egypt for tourism?
Fear Message (Fear) 2 items
To what extent do you think that the word "Egypt Fights Terrorism" encourage/discourage you to visit Egypt for tourism?
Overall, to what extent do you think that Egypt as a tourist destination is safe place to visit?

4. Material and Methods
4.1 The methodology, research population and sample

This study seeks to explore to what extent travel intention to Egypt has been influenced by eWOM and political instability, as well as investigating the mediating effect of eWOM on the relationship between Political Instability and Fear and Intention to Visit Egypt. Accordingly, investigation of such relationship is required and will be pursued through the application of PLS-SEM. PLS-SEM software is employed as it tolerates building a complex conceptual framework of a multi-block analysis, and ultimately, it facilitates the task of estimating all-formative and reflective latent variables (Hair, Hult, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2016, Kock,2015, Henseler, Ringle & Sinkovics, 2009). The paper hypothesized conceptual framework consists of 4 formative constructs with13 items.

The sampling was done using random sample to verify the sample base. Questionnaires were distributed to international tourists in Sharm El-Sheikh through a random sampling approach. A number of 329 respondents was investigated at various tourist attractions of Sharm El-Sheikh. In addition, this study used Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) in which required specific number of observations to run the research model and to get

valid results. The literature recommends a minimum of 5 observations to each variable to use a data set for statistical analysis (Hair et al., 2016). Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used to analyze the data. The research model consists of 13 items/indicators and thus needed a minimum of 130 observations. In total, 400 questionnaires were distributed to the target population between July and October 2015. Including the 30 already collected from the pilot study, a total of 335 were obtained representing a response rate of 83.75%; only six forms were subsequently excluded from the analysis because of missing data providing a total sample of 329.

The aim of the piloting was to refine the questionnaire so that the target participants will have no difficulties in understanding and answering the questions and there will be no problem in recording the data (Elbaz & Abou-Shouk, 2016). The 30 returned questionnaires were coded and entered into SPSS (version 22) to test the reliability (internal consistency) and validity of the variable scales. Cronbach's alpha (α) and corrected item-total correlation were used to measure the reliability and validity of constructs. Item-total correlation is a method commonly used to examine the homogeneity of a scale made up of several items. Reliability analysis was performed on the five constructs and turned out to be highly reliable. Corrected item-total correlations were appropriate, indicating that no item was redundant, and thus no items were deleted. The overall number of items included in the final questionnaire is 13 items measuring five constructs.

To validate the study theoretical framework (Fig. 1) a positivist research philosophy was adopted with a quantitative approach, in which quantitative data were gathered based on questionnaires to tackle different stages of the study. Figure 1 demonstrates the results of the data collection
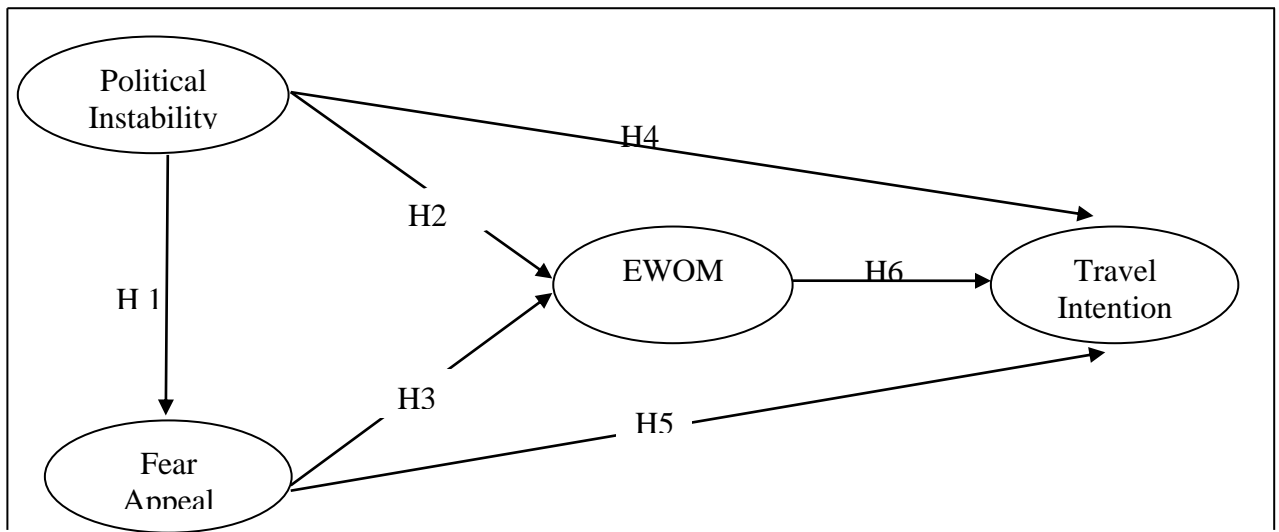
Figure 1. The research conceptual framework

The overall research objectives of this study is therefore:(1) to identify how the political instability related factors raise tourists' fear to visiting Egypt (2) to determine the political instability factors and its impacts on tourists' e-word of mouth. (3) to explore the tourists' fear appeal impacts on the tourists' e-word of mouth. (4) to examine how political instability factors affecting tourists' travel intention to visit Egypt. (5) to determine tourists' fear appeal related factors and their effect on the travel intention to visit Egypt. Finally, (6) to examine the influence of tourists' e-word of mouth on the travel intention to visit Egypt.

Based on the previous arguments and the research conceptual framework, six hypotheses were developed as follows:

Hypothesis 1. Political instability factors raise tourists' fear of visiting Egypt.

Hypothesis 2. Political instability has a negative impact on tourists' e-word of mouth.

Hypothesis 3. The tourists' fear appeal has a negative impact on their e-word of mouth.

Hypothesis 4. Political instability negatively affects tourists' travel intention to visiting Egypt.

Hypothesis 5. The tourists' fear appeal negatively influences their travel intention to visiting Egypt.

Hypothesis 6. The tourists' e-word of mouth negatively influences their travel intention to visiting Egypt.

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4.2 Using PLS-SEM: Reflective versus Formative indicators

On the one hand, traditional measurement practice in business and business marketing is established on reflective indicators, whereby observed measures (i.e., indicators) are supposed to reflect variation in latent constructs. Consequently, the path of causality is assumed to run from the latent variable to the observed indicators and, hence, changes in the latent variable are expected to be manifested in changes in all observed indicators comprising a multi-item scale (Diamantopoulos, Riefler & Roth, 2008). On the other hand, formative indicators models assume the opposite causality (the indicators cause the latent variable), such that the content of the indicators defines the meaning of the latent variable. An implication of this observation is that classical test theory's reflective indicators must be internally consistent, whereas no such requirement exists for formative indicators (Cadogan, Souchon & Procter, 2008). Many studies have by default or erroneously identified their indicators as reflective when they should have used a formative measurement model operationalization (Cadogan et al., 2008). Consequently, misspecification commonly concerns the adoption of reflective indicators where formative indicators would be appropriate or vice versa (Diamantopoulos et al., 2008).

Moreover, Diamantopoulos et al. (2008) confirmed that the issue of misspecification (i.e. measurement problems) could affect the conclusion about the theoretical relationships among the latent variables drawn from the study (see Jarvis, C. B., Mackenzie, S. B. & Posdsakoff, P. M. 2003, Mackenzie, S. B., Posdsakoff, P. M. & Jarvis, C. B. 2005). There are two statistical methodologies for estimating SEM with latent variables incorporating formative measurement models: the covariance-based CB-SEM and the partial least square path modelling (PLS-PM) or variance-based SEM (Elbaz & Abou-Shouk, 2016). This study has applied PLS-PM. From what have previously been outlined, researchers have the choice of applying CB-SEM and PLS-PM when investigating formative SEMs (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). As a result, WarpPLS 5.0 software was adopted to be used at the current study.

5. Analysis and Findings

WarpPLS 5.0 was used in the current study (Kock, 2015). Algorithm used in the analysis is: Warp3 PLS regression, re-sampling method used in the analysis: Jackknifing, number of data re-samples used: 100, number of cases (rows) in model data: 329, number of latent variables in model: 4, number of indicators used in model: 13 (2 items deleted through the stage of

measurement model) and only ranked data used in analysis to handle outliers problem.

5.1. Descriptive Statistics

This section discusses the descriptive statistics for the demographic information which include: the respondent's gender, age, income, marital status, education, income, and occupation (see Table 2).

Table 2. The Sampling Profile

Variable	Category	n	%
Gender	Male	154	46.2
	Female	175	53.2
Age	Less than 16 years	2	6
	16 – 25 years	50	15.2
	26 – 35 years	74	22.5
	36 – 45 years	101	30.7
	46 – 55 years	60	18.2
	More than 55 years	42	12.8
Marital Status	Single	84	25.5
	Married	86	26.1
	Widow	3	.9
	Divorced	39	11.9
Education	Junior High School or Lower	17	5.2
	Senior High School	86	26.1
	College or Equivalent	67	20.4
	Bachelor	67	20.4
	Master-PhD degree	92	28.0
Income	Nil	13	4.0
	Less than $1000	51	15.5
	$1001 - $3000	221	67.2
	$3001 - $5000	23	7.0
	$5001 - $8000	6	1.8
	More than $6000	7	2.1
	Refused to Answer	8	2.4
Occupation	Student	37	11.2
	Unemployed	9	2.7
	Employed	236	71.7
	Retired	27	7.9
	Others (housewife/husband)	21	6.4

The table shows that there were 154 male tourists (46.2%) and the rest of respondent were 175 female tourists (53.2%). In terms of age, Table 2 demonstrates that (101 – 30.7%) were from 36-45 years old. Moreover, about (84 – 25.5%) of tourists were single, as well as about (86 - 26.1%) of tourists were married. About one third of the respondents have Master-Ph.D. degree (92– 28.0% of tourists). In terms of tourists' income, about more than half of

the respondents (221– 67.2% of tourists) earned $1001 to $3000. The table also shows that about 71.7% were employees. The following section illustrates construct descriptive statistics for each construct (Table3)

5.2 Descriptive statistics for each construct

Table 3 provides the descriptive statistics for each latent variable. These statistics consisted of: latent variable's type, name and its abbreviation, number of items, latent variable's mean and standard deviation.

5.3 Measurement model

5.3.1 Discriminant and convergent validity

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for each latent variable

Construct	Types of construct	Number of items	Mean
(1) Electronic word of mouth (eWOM)	Reflective	4	3.37
(2) Travel Intention (TravelIN)	Reflective	3	3.33
(3) Political Instability (PoliS)	Formative	2	2.93
(5) Fear Appeal (Fear)	Reflective	2	3.27

For the assessment of validity, two validity subtypes are regularly examined: the convergent validity and the discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2009). Discriminant validity is assumed when the extracted variance is greater than the squared correlation (Kock & Verville, 2012), and it is recommended

that the measurement indicators on their assigned constructs be in order of magnitude larger than their loading on other constructs (Henseler, Hubona & Ray, 2016). To test the discriminant validity for each latent variable, the squared roots of the average variance extracted AVEs should be larger than any of the correlations involving that latent construct (table 4) (Kock, 2015; Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M. & Sarstedt, M. 2011).

Table 4: Correlations among latent variable and P values for correlations

Construct	EWOM	TravelIN	PoliS	Fear
EWOM	**(0.881)**	***0.325	***-0.290	***-0.206
TravelIN	***0.325	**(0.822)**	***-0.366	***-0.333
PoliS	*-0.290	***-0.366	**(0.913)**	*0.495
Fear	***-0.206	***-0.333	***0.495	**(0.854)**

Note: (1) *** P values < 0.001, (2) * P value <0.05, and (3) Squared roots of average variance extracted (AVEs) shown in diagonal.

Table 4 demonstrates that the squared roots of the AVE of each latent variable is higher than the construct's highest squared correlation with any other latent variable. Thus, it can be established that both reflective and formative latent variables have appropriate discriminant validity. Moreover, full collinearity variance inflation factors (VIFs) are provided for all latent variables which are employed in the measurement of discriminant validity and overall collinearity, respectively (see table 5) (Kock, 2015). It is conservatively recommended that VIFs be lower than 5; a more relaxed criterion is that they be lower than 10(Hair et al., 2016). Table 4 demonstrates that the full collinearity for all latent variables is lowers than 5. This means that adequate VIFs for all latent variables are met and illustrate sufficient discriminant validity. To test formative indicators validity, Henseler et al. (2016) claimed that it is recommended to examine the indicators weight and assess their significance (i.e. P Values should be lower than 0.05). It is also required to test each indicator's variance inflation factors (VIF) value. Table 4 shows that all formative indicators' P values for weights associated with latent variables are significant (P Values of all indicators are lower than 0.05). This indicates that formative latent variable measurement indicators were properly constructed. Table 4shows that variance inflation factors (VIFs) for all indicators are lower than 10.Thus, all formative indicators have sufficient discriminant and convergent validity.

Regarding convergent validity, Hair et al. (2016) recommend using the average variance extracted (AVE) as a criterion of convergent validity of reflective indicators. Looking at the loadings between constructs, it can be noticed that none of these loadings are high, implying that this study has appropriate discriminant validity. Furthermore, An AVE value should be higher than 0.5 signifies sufficient convergent validity (this applicable for reflective constructs), meaning that a latent

construct is able to explain more than half of the variance of its indicators on average (table 5).

Table 5: Diagnostics Statistics of the Measurement Model

Constructs	Indicators Name	Indicators Loading	Indicators Weight	P Values	Indicators VIFs	AVE	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Constructs Full VIFs
E-Word of	EWOM1	(0.908)	(0.292)	<0.001	3.732				
Mouth	EWOM2	(0.927)	(0.298)	<0.001	4.297	**0.78**	**0.90**	**0.93**	**1.16**
(Reflective)	EWOM3	(0.888)	(0.286)	<0.001	2.761				
	EWOM4	(0.797)	(0.256)	<0.001	1.810				
Travel	TravelIN1	(0.862)	(0.425)	<0.001	1.871				
Intention	TravelIN2	(0.871)	(0.429)	<0.001	1.911	**0.68**	**0.76**	**0.86**	**1.27**
(Reflective)	TravelIN3	(0.727)	(0.358)	<0.001	1.289				
Political	NER3	(0.913)	(0.547)	<0.001	1.810				
(Formative)	NER4	(0.913)	(0.547)	<0.001	1.810	**0.83**	**0.80**	**0.91**	**1.45**
Fear	NER5	(0.854)	(0.585)	<0.001	1.268				
(Formative)	NER6	(0.854)	(0.585)	<0.001	1.268	**0.73**	**0.63**	**0.84**	**1.37**

Table 5 shows that reflective constructs are above the 0.5 threshold for each one of the latent variables, meaning that the measurement constructs signifies adequate convergent validity. The researcher followed (Kock, 2015) who stated that two criteria are recommended as the base for concluding that a measurement model has acceptable convergent validity: that the P values associated with the loadings be lower than 0.05; and that the loadings be equal to or larger than 0.5.

Thus, it can be concluded that each reflective item loaded higher on the latent variable it intended to measure than on other constructs. Moreover, each block of reflective indicators loaded larger on its respective latent variable than did the indicators of all other latent variables. As well, P values for all reflective indicators are significant (P<0.05).

In this study, two measures are used to test internal consistency (construct reliability): Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability that should be greater than 0.7 for reliability to be considered acceptable, 0.80 to be adequate and 0.90 is excellent (Kock & Verville, 2012). Table 5 shows that the composite reliability coefficients for both reflective and formative latent variables are high (ranged from 0.84 to 0.93) and above the 0.7 advocated

threshold for each one of the latent variables. For Cronbach's alpha all constructs are acceptable (ranged from 0.63 to 0.90). Thus, it can be concluded that the measurement instruments employed in this study actually have adequate reliability.

5.3.2 Model Fit Indices

The WarpPLS software 5.0 employed in this study provides ten model fit and quality indices (see Table 6). Consequently, it can be concluded that the ten criteria for the model fit and quality indices are established in this study.

Table 6: Model Fit and Quality Indices

Criterion	Assessment	Supported/ Rejected
(1)Average Path Coefficient (APC)	0.270	Supported
(2)Average R-squared (ARS)	0.218	Supported
(3)Average adjusted R-squared (AARS)	0.206	Supported
(4) Average block VIF (AVIF)	1.251	Supported
(5) Average full collinearity VIF (AFVIF	1.313	Supported
(6) Tenenhaus GoF (GoF)	0.406	Supported
(7) Sympson's paradox ratio (SPR)	1.000	Supported
(8) R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR)	1.000	Supported
(9) Statistical suppression ratio (SSR)	1.000	Supported
(10) Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR)	1.000	Supported

Note: Average path coefficient (APC)=0.270, P<0.001, Average R-squared; (ARS)=0.218, P=0.002, Average adjusted R-squared (AARS)=0.206, P=0.003, Average block VIF (AVIF)=1.251, acceptable if <= 5, ideally <= 3.3, Average full; collinearity VIF (AFVIF)=1.313, acceptable if <= 5, ideally <= 3.3, Tenenhaus GoF (GoF)=0.406, small >= 0.1, medium >= 0.25, large >= 0.36, Sympson's paradox ratio (SPR)=1.000, acceptable if >= 0.7, ideally = 1, R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR)=1.000, acceptable if >= 0.9, ideally = 1, Statistical suppression ratio (SSR)=1.000, acceptable if >= 0.7, Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR)=1.000, acceptable if >= 0.7.
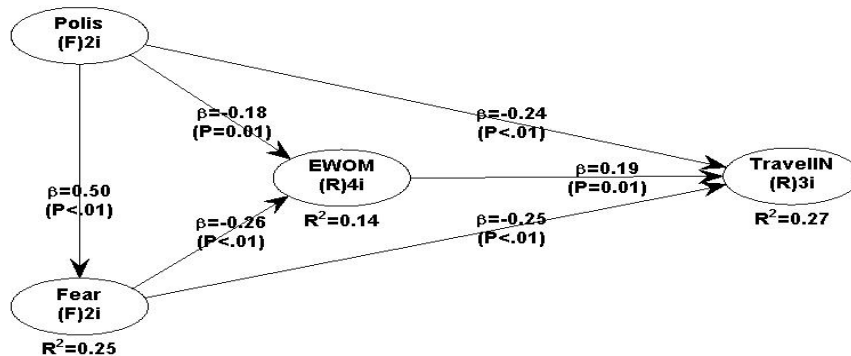
5.2 Structural Relationship

Figure 2 demonstrates results of path analysis. It shows the hypothesized effects of the structural model. The model illustrates the latent constructs relationships of this current study.

Figure 2. The Results of Path Model

5.4.1 Explanation power, effect size and predictive relevance

According to Hair et al. (2011) the most important assessment criteria for the structural model are the R² value and the level and significance of the path coefficients. Additionally, it is recommended to evaluate the estimation for path coefficients in terms of importance and significance/P values (Kock, 2015). Explanation power involves evaluating the R-Squares (R²) and exploring the effect size (f²) of the model latent variables. Effect size f² = (R²included - R² excluded)/(1- R²included) (Henseler et al., 2009); measures .02, 0.15, and 0.35 can be viewed as a gauge for whether an independent latent variable has a low, moderate, or large effect at the structural level (Roldan & Sanchez-Franco, 2012).

Along with the previous criteria, it is essential to measure the relative impact of the predictive relevance of the independent constructs (Stone-Geisser's Q² test) (Kock, 2015; Roldan &Sanchez-Franco, 2012). It is claimed that Q² greater than 0 means that the model has predictive relevance, whereas a Q² lower than 0 implies that the model is deficient in predictive

relevance (Hiar et al., 2016). Thus, the following discussion will address the previous criteria. The results are summarized in table 7.

5.4.2 Structural Relationship Results and Discussion

The path coefficient from political instability to the fear appeal was found to be positive and significant (standardized estimate =0.50, P<0.01). The effect size from political instability to fear appeal is moderate (f^2=0.25). This means that the fear appeal can be predicted by the political instability. The study also revealed that political instability weakly explains the travelers' fear appeal with R^2=0.25. This supports hypothesis H1. These results are consistent with those of Ingram et al. (2013); Nyaruwata et al. (2013); Roehl & Fesenmaier (1992), who stated that destination choice and the intention to travel, becomes risky when the consequences are uncertain or undesirable, therefore information search is considered to be a risk reduction strategy. Therefore, personal security is a major concern for tourists, as they travel to enjoy their time, they will seek safe and secure destinations, and avoid those with political instability circumstances. Consequently, travelers rank safety and security as key factors when planning a vacation or holiday. These results also agree with Cavlek (2002), who confirmed that in many countries where political instability occurred, tourism has been negatively affected.

Table 7: Results of the different direct tests

Independent Variables	B	P Values	f²	Effect Size Assessment	Hs	Hypotheses supported/ Not supported
Political Instability → Fear Appeal	0.50	=0.01	0.25	Moderate	H1	Supported
Political Instability → E-word of Mouth	-0.18	<0.01	0.05	Weak	H2	Supported
Fear Appeal → E-word of Mouth	-0.26	<0.01	0.09	Weak	H4	supported
Political Instability → Travel Intention	-0.24	<0.01	0.10	Weak	H3	Supported
Fear Appeal → Travel Intention	-0.25	<0.01	0.11	Weak	H5	Supported
E-word of Mouth → Travel Intention	0.19	=0.01	0.06	Weak	H6	Supported

Mediation Test
Political Instability → E-word of mouth → Travel Intention
Indirect Effect = -0.16, P=0.03
Effect Size= 0.065
Fear Appeal → E-word of mouth → Travel Intention
Indirect Effect = -0.05, P=0.20
Effect Size= 0.02

R² Coefficient for Dependent Variables and Q² Coefficient (predictive relevant)

Dependent Latent Variables	R² Coefficient	Assessment	Q² Coefficient	Assessment
E-word of Mouth	**R²= 0.14**	Very weak Effect	**Q²= 0.14**	Very Weak Effect
Fear Appeal	**R²= 0.25**	Weak Effect	**Q²= 0.25**	Weak Effect
Travel Intention	**R²= 0.27**	Weak Effect	**Q²= 0.27**	Weak Effect

The analysis of the data collected shows that political instability has a negative and significant impact on electronic word of mouth (standardized estimate =-0.18, P= 0.01). The effect size from political instability to the electronic word of mouth is weak (f²=0.05). This means that the electronic word of mouth can be predicted by the political instability. This supports hypothesis H2. These results are in line with Park et al. (2007); Lee and Koo (2012), who found that negative comments are more influential than positive comments on tourists' travel intention. Furthermore the path coefficient from fear appeal to the electronic word of mouth was found to be negative and significant (standardized estimate =-0.26, P<0.001). The effect size from fear appeal to the electronic word of mouth is weak (f²=0.07). This means that the electronic word of mouth can be predicted by the fear appeal. Accordingly, political instability and travelers' fear weakly explains the electronic word of

mouth with R^2=0.14.This supports hypothesis H3. These results agree with LaTour & Zahra (1989); Tanner et al. (1991), who concluded that, fear motivates actions, aimed at reducing the unpleasant emotions, or undesirable effects. They provide an example; one of the actions that fear motivates, which participates in minimizing the unwanted or undesired feelings, is knowledge, that is gathering information regarding the phenomenon, or situation, that causes the fear, risk, danger, or unpleasant feeling.

Regarding the path coefficient from political instability to the travel intention, it was found to be negative and significant (standardized estimate =-0.24, P<0.01). The effect size from political instability to fear appeal is weak (f^2=0.10). This means that the tourists' travel intention can be predicted by the political instability. This supports hypothesis H4. These results are consistent with those of Chen and Gursoy (2001), who stressed that tourists will not spend their hard earned money to go to a destination, where their safety may be endangered or jeopardized. This also consistent with Boss et al. (2015) who stated that fear can be seen as a relational construct, stimulated in response to a condition that is judged as risky and toward which protective action should be taken. Furthermore, the path coefficient from electronic word of mouth to the tourists' travel intention was found to be negative and significant (standardized estimate =-0.25, P=0.01). The effect size from fear appeal to the electronic word of mouth is weak (f^2=0.11). This means that the tourists' travel intention can be predicted by the fear appeal. This supports hypothesis H5. These results are consistent with those of Park et al. (2007); Lee & Koo (2012), who found that eWOM influences consumers' decision making process, in all steps, starting from the stage in which they are thinking about buying the product or service (intention), during the stage of gathering information, evaluating alternatives, choosing a certain alternative to apply, and finally the post purchase evaluation, which will lead to either recommend the product or service to others, or warning them about buying it.

The path coefficient from fear appeal to the tourists' travel intention was found to be positive and significant (standardized estimate =0.19, P<0.001). The effect size from fear appeal to the electronic word of mouth is weak (f^2=0.6). This means that the tourists' travel intention can be predicted by the electronic word of mouth. This supports hypothesis H6. Thus, political instability, travelers' fear appeal and electronic word of mouth feebly explain the tourists' travel intention with R^2=0.27. These results are agreed with Hovland et al. (1953) who indicated that when fear is aroused, the recipient will become motivated to alleviate the negative impact or influence.

6. Study Implication and Conclusion

Overall, this research's findings highlight a number of theoretical implications with practical value. Theoretically, it illustrates the application of fear appeal theory to the study of political instability, fear message and their impacts on tourists' eWOM and travel intention decision making. This study aimed to examine the impact of political instability and fear message on eWOM related factors and tourist's travel intention decision-making processes in a turbulent destination like Egypt. The study conceptual framework developed in this paper can be consequently employed to develop and explain model of the negative impact of fear message and political instability on tourist's eWOM and intention to visit. The findings of empirical testing in this research were able to demonstrate the existence of a significant influence of eWOM on tourists' travel intention to visit Egypt. It certainly could enhance knowledge mainly with regard to the role of eWOM through employing a fear appeal theory, which needs more examination. In addition, the study provides two constructs that were newly developed with four items. It is important to note that the researcher established and validated these two constructs and their related indicators (e.g. discriminant and convergent validity, and composite and Cronbach's alpha were met).

Accordingly, these constructs constituted valid and reliable quantitative measurements which could be employed as a tool to measure the fear and political instability. Some managerial implications were provided in this research so that the media in Egypt can use them as a guide when developing message of media and eWOM to increase the number of tourists, whose information relating to travel decision making is based on eWOM before making their travel decisions. The study results also help government, media and the tourism industry to select the right and appropriate message, which attracts tourists; not frightens them. Furthermore, future research on the impact of political and fear message factors on eWOM and travel intention decision making would present researchers and experts alike with an innovative understanding of those unique individual and societal factors that predict intention to travel. Despite this research's contribution to theory and practice, it has some limitations which require further discussion. For example, the study only focuses on political circumstances and its impact on tourist's travel intention, thus studying a credibility of social media, which influence tourist's eWOM and travel decision-making is required. The study sample dedicated to international tourism, multi group analysis (a comparative study between domestic and international tourists) may help

explore the different views of the different travellers regarding their travel decision making and perception.

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