The impact of the videos credibility on spectators’ perceptions and their behavioral intention

Destination in crisis? Encourage your tourists to generate your promotional videos!

Khaled JRAD ¹, Jinene Chtioui ², Ayoub NEFZI ³

¹ Institut Supérieur de Gestion de Tunis (ISG), URAM, jrad.khaled@yahoo.fr
² URAM, FSEG de Tunis, University de Tunis El Manar, jinenechtoui@hotmail.fr
³ Maître de conférences à l'ISG de Sousse

Abstract:
The publicized events of the Tunisian revolution associated to the stagnation of the tourism sector have led to a real tourism sector crisis resulting in much lower number of visitors and a negative destination image associated to high perceived risk. The advent of social media allows tourists to become the ambassadors of the destination by generating their own videos and sharing it. The high credibility of such content represents an opportunity for destinations, in time of crisis, to restore a positive image in times of change and to bring back tourists. Therefore, based on the source credibility theory, the purpose of this study is to measure the influence of the credibility of the tourists’ generated videos (TGV) shared in social media, as an information source about the destination, on spectators’ behavioral consequences including the intention to visit the destination and their willingness to share the video. The model includes the perceived risk and the destination image as mediating variables between the TGV credibility and the spectators’ behavior intention.

Key words: tourists’ generated videos, social media, source credibility, destination image, perceived risk.

*Paper presented at the 6th Conference of URAM. Hammamet, Tunisia. 8-9 May, 2015*
Destination in crisis? Encourage your tourists to generate your promotional videos!

The impact of the videos credibility on spectators’ perceptions and their behavioral intention

Introduction

Past decade was marked by a deterioration of the image of Tunisia as a tourism destination mainly due to the lack of distinguishing elements of its tourism offer. The crisis was widely amplified with the big political instability caused by the “Jasmine revolution”. In fact, the Arab Spring was widely covered in the global media. The road to achieve freedom, free elections and independent media was long and complex. Since the event was associated with mass demonstrations, street fighting and military intervention, the number of tourists visiting Tunisia dropped significantly. Actually, such events can damage significantly the destination image which became associated to high perceived risk.

The matter of safety and security represents a primordial concern amongst tourists (Poon and Adams, 2000). In fact, perception of risk is a dominant criterion in tourists’ decision-making process as it can modify a holiday destination choice (Sönmez and Graefe, 1998a). As media plays a key role in forming consumers’ risk perceptions, such perceptions may differ from reality (Roehl and Fesenmaier, 1992). Generally, risky events are publicized through media which expose tourists to a repetitive acquisition of risk-related knowledge.

What motivates customers is the perception of the reality and not the reality itself (Gallarza, Gil and Calderón, 2002) thereby images are more important than tangible resources in tourism research. Furthermore, many scholars argued that travel risks and destination image should be captured in a single study (Sönmez, 1998) since perceived risk can influence destination image. The development of destination image is a multi-stage process. In fact, tourists’ initial image is formed though exposure to a variety of information sources, which can be beyond the control of destination marketers. That’s why the marketing messages try to manipulate and control this initial image in order to increase the destination appeal (Jenkins, 1999; Gallarza, Gil and Calderón, 2002; Hanlan and Kelly, 2005). One of the information sources used by potential tourists is social media. Actually, tourism literature argues that social media is becoming increasingly more important as an information source (Xiang and Gretzel, 2010). Social media can influence the way in which individuals think, behave, and react to information (Paul, 2012). It was shown also that social media have an important role in reputation management (Horster and Gottschalk, 2012) and brand management (Barwise and Meehan, 2010; Hede and Kellett, 2012; Barreda, Nusair, Bilgihan and Okumus, 2013).

Especially in times of crisis, social media can be helpful in obtaining information (Sutton and al., 2008). In fact, the role of social media in crisis communications is emerging. The use of social media is associated with risk perceptions related to crimes, health-related issues, diseases, cultural barriers, weather, physical equipment failures and political crises. Both tourism suppliers and tourists could be affected by social media use in tourism crisis management (Sigala, 2011). In this context, Pennington-Gray, London, Cahyanto, and Klages (2011)
argued that the use of social media to communicate during a tourism crisis could be very effective.

With the advent of social media the traditional one-way communication has been transformed into multi-dimensional communication (Berthon, Pitt and Campbell 2008). Traditionally, companies have been the only creators of marketing messages designed to influence consumer behavior. Now, consumers can easily create and share their own brand-related content through social media, instead of the old fashioned passive consuming consumers (Ertimur and Gilly 2012). Then, customers are becoming ambassadors of specific brands, products, and services (Muñiz and Schau, 2007; Cheong and Morrison, 2008). Consumers can now produce their own content outside commercial strategies and share it online via social media (Haven, Li, and McHarg, 2007). This user generated content (UGC) includes articles, ratings, blogs, reviews, photos or videos. The growth of online social sites such as YouTube and Vimeo has generated new richer media expressions such as user generated videos (UGV) overtaking the old modalities including written texts, ratings and recommendations in blogs or message boards. UGVs combine text, moving images, and sound to create audio–visual content (Ertimur and Gilly 2012). In fact, UGVs give customers the possibility to share and discuss experiences and opinions using audio–visual material (Paek and al., 2011).

Recent studies argued that consumers rate the credibility of brand-related UGC highly than that of commercial sources (Chu and Kamal 2008; Cheung and al. 2009; Ertimur and Gilly 2012). Consumers’ messages communicated through audio and visual combinations are more appealing, memorable and have larger influence on persuasion and consequently on consumers' behavioral intention (Chaiken and Eagly, 1983; Jin, 2009). Therefore, based on the source credibility theory, this study aims to measure the effect of the credibility of the tourists’ generated videos (TGV) shared in social media, as an information source about the destination, on spectators’ behavioral intention and especially on their intention to visit the destination and their willingness to share the video. The model includes also the perceived risk and the destination image as mediating variables between the TGV credibility and the spectators’ behavior intention.

**Conceptual framework**

Generally, customer’s generated content is perceived more credible than firm-generated content in the case of online videos (Hautz and al., 2014). Consumers’ rate of the credibility of any online content created by experienced customers is high than that of commercial sources. Thus, the current study tries to measure the persuasive power of tourists generated videos shared through social media and their effectiveness in the rebranding strategy of tourism destination in crisis.

**1.1. Source credibility**

Marketing communication is defined as all types of communication between a supplier and a customer taking place with the intention of influencing economic transfers (Shimp 2000). Communication takes place between at least two parties and is generally linked to credibility. Hovland (1953) was one of the first researchers who studied source credibility. Credibility refers to a person's perception of the truth of information. It is a multi-dimensional concept that consists on a rating of the source of information by the receiver. It refers to the willingness of the receiver to attribute truth and substance to the information (Hovland et al. 1953).
The concept of source and brand credibility emerged from brand signaling theory (Erdem and Swait, 1998). It refers to the truthfulness of information sources which exerts a persuasive effect on customer opinions (Guido, Pino and Frangipane, 2011). In order to understand more customers’ perceptions of brands, this concept was introduced by many recent researches (Sweeney and Swait, 2008; Guido and al., 2011). However, it was ignored in the tourism management literature.

In the tourism sector, information satisfies tourists’ needs in several ways. In fact, it is meant to lead to easier, faster and more reliable purchase decisions (Sigala, 2009). Generally, users use more than one source of tourism information. There are many highly rated tourism information sources namely personal experience, traditional word-of-mouth, brochures, Television, Internet, etc (Fodness and Murray, 1999; Beerli and Martin, 2004; Pan, MaClaurin and Crotts, 2007; Sparks and Pan, 2009; Castillo-Manzano and Lopez-Valpuesta, 2010; Banyai and Glover, 2012).

Information users are highly concerned with the credibility of tourism information sources. In fact, one of the most important aspects of information quality is credibility (Hilligoss and Rieh, 2008). Information quality and source credibility are essential determinants of information usefulness and consequently to information adoption (Sussman and Siegal, 2003).

Credibility is a receiver-based judgment (Kaye and Johnson, 2011). It refers to the persuasive characteristics of information sources (Metzger and al., 2003) and represents a major contributor to the effectiveness of advertisements (Clow and al., 2006). Credibility reduces uncertainty (Weathers and al. 2007) and it is useful in evaluating experience attributes toward advertising and purchase intention (Mackenzie and Lutz, 1989; Goldeberg and Hartwick, 1990; Haley, 1996; Goldsmith and al., 1999; 2000; Newell and Goldsmith, 2001; Jain and Posavac, 2001). It is also a determinant of strong persuasion and generates attitude change (Park and Lee 2009; Xie and al., 2011). It can be conceptualized as a “weight” that can enhance the value of information. Whether or not a source of information is considered to be credible can determine its long-term success (Kaye and Johnson, 2011).

Credibility is closely associated with the concept of trust (Flanagin and Metzger, 2008) which is considered a complex and multi-faceted concept by researches (Rempel and al. 1985; McKnight and al. 2002 Corritore and al. 2003). There are many definitions of trust (Dondio et al. 2006) and it is generally related to an individual's confidence that something will or will not happen in a predictable or promised way. That's why trust acts as a mediator between information quality and information usage (Kelton and al. 2008). Trust and risk are joined concepts in decision-making (Morrison and Firmstone, 2000) in a way that trust serves to reduce risk (Lewis and Weigert, 1985; Luhmann, 1988; Kelton and al. 2008). Therefore, trust resembles the trustworthiness dimension of credibility (Flanagin and Metzger, 2008).

Credibility is evaluated in many different ways (Fogg and al., 2001). In this context, Metzger and al. (2003) argued that different dimensions of source credibility were identified depending on the type of source being evaluated and the context of the studies. Hovland (1953) provided a source credibility model including competence (expertness) and trustworthiness dimensions. To measure source credibility, McCroskey (1966) proposed a model containing character, competence, sociability, extroversion and...
composure dimensions. Leathers (1992) used competence, trustworthiness and dynamism. But the main three dimensions of source credibility cited in the literature are expertise, trustworthiness, and attractiveness.

The three components of credibility are applicable only when the source credibility refers to a person (endorser) as the information source (Ohanian, 1990; 1991; Goldsmith and al., 1999; 2000). In fact, celebrity endorsement is usually a cited topic in source credibility studies. An endorser is any individual who enjoys public recognition and who uses this recognition in advertisement (Ohanian, 1991). The celebrities use their public recognition to endorse and transfer their values to products (McCracken, 1989; Byrne and al. 2003). When the source of information is a corporation, only expertise and trustworthiness are suitable characteristics (Goldsmith and al., 2000). Corporate Credibility is defined as the extent to which consumers believe that a firm can design and deliver products and services that can satisfy customer’s needs and wants (Goldsmith and al., 2000).

We refer to Destination source credibility as the believability that the destination management delivers on its promises. It refers to changes in tourists’ beliefs, attitudes, and behavioral intention caused by a specific communication source context (Peter and Olson, 2008). It was defined and examined, in customer behavior literature, regarding brand credibility (Erdem and Swait, 2004; Spry, Pappu, and Cornwell, 2011), brand attachment (Thomson, MacInnis and Park, 2005; Malär, and al., 2011), store or brand image (Martenson, 2007; Bian and Moutinho, 2011; Lee and al., 2011; Wu, 2011) and brand satisfaction (Kocyigit and Ringle, 2011; Ladhari, Souiden and Ladhari, 2011).

Destination source credibility participate in the building of destination image (Erdem and Swait, 2004; Spry and al., 2011). It is created and maintained by destination branding investments over time through marketing communication practices such as destination image advertising (Baek, Kim and Yu, 2010).

Destination source credibility represents a destination’s ability to affect tourists’ perception about the truthfulness and the believability of their assertions (Ohanian, 1990). Source credibility is important for a tourism destination as it determines the extent to which the tourist perceives the destination’s statements valid (Phau and Ong, 2007). In addition, credible sources are associated with lower information-gathering, lower costs and lower perceived risk.

1.2. Social media and User (tourists) Generated Content

Social media can affect the thought, the behavior, and the reaction of individuals to information (Paul, 2012). Social media is becoming very important as an information source (Xiang and Gretzel, 2010). It was shown also that social media have an important role in reputation management (Horster and Gottschalk, 2012) and brand management (Barwise and Meehan, 2010; Hede and Kellett, 2012; Barreda, Nusair, Bilgihan and Okumus, 2013).

Customers are becoming now the ambassadors of specific brands, products, and services (Muñiz and Schau, 2007; Cheong and Morrison, 2008) using social media. Some studies refer to user generated content to describe media content made and shared by users outside commercial strategies (Haven, Li, and McHarg, 2007). In this study, we refer to tourist generated content (TGC) to describe media content made and shared by tourists about a visited destination outside commercial. The brand-related content
shared could be intentionally or subconsciously promoted.

Previously, UGC has been considered similar to eWoM (Muñiz and Schau, 2007; Kozinets and al., 2010). Even if both concepts share some similarities, they also differ considerably from each other and should not be considered the same. UGC and eWoM refer to brand-related communication channels where the sender is independent of firms and have no commercial intentions (Brown, Broderick, and Lee, 2007; Berthon, Pitt, and Campbell, 2008). However, the difference between the two concepts is that UGC requires some form of content to be generated while eWoM just requires content conveyance by users (Cheong and Morrison, 2008; Smith, Fischer, and Yongjian, 2012). A video made by a user is considered UGC while a user who watches and shares a video engages in eWoM which is not considered a UGC (Berthon, Pitt, and Campbell, 2008).

Most researches on UGC considered it as a form of word-of-mouth communication (Muñiz and Schau, 2007; Kozinets et al., 2010) and tried to explore the impact of its non-commercial nature on credibility and consumers’ behaviors (Bickart and Schindler, 2001; Smith, Menon, and Sivakumar, 2005; Gruen, Osmonbekov, and Czaplewski, 2006; Cheong and Morrison, 2008; Chakravarty, Liu, and Mazumdar, 2010).

Traditional UGC includes articles, ratings, blogs, reviews and photos. The growth of online social sites such as YouTube and Vimeo has generated new richer media expressions such as user generated videos (UGV) overtaking the old modalities. UGVs associate text, moving images, and sound to create audio–visual content (Ertimur and Gilly, 2012). In fact, UGVs allow customers to share and discuss experiences and opinions using audio–visual material (Paek and al., 2011). It was proven that messages communicated through audio and visual combinations are more appealing, memorable and have larger influence on persuasion and therefore on consumers’ behavioral intention (Chaiken and Eagly, 1983; Jin, 2009).

UGVs facilitate consumer engagement more than company videos (Ertimur and Gilly, 2012). In the same context, Hautz and al. (2014) showed that user-generated content is perceived more credible than firm-generated content in the context of online videos.

2. Conceptual model and hypothesis development

2.1. The mediating variables: perceived risk and destination image

The integration of the literature on perceived risk and destination image seems rational since there has been extensive development of the risk literature grown to differ from the image literature (Lepp and Gibson, 2003; Qi and al., 2009). Indeed, definitions of perceived risk appear to reflect a distinction between risk and destination image. The definition of perceived risk is conceptualized as a perception of potential loss resulting from an action that places a person vulnerable to danger (Mansfeld, 2006; Reichel and al., 2007). The perception of travel risks such as physical risk, psychological risk, financial risk, and health risk are generated from perceived potential loss due to natural disaster (Mansfeld, 2006), epidemics (Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty, 2009), terrorism (Sönmez and Graefe, 1998b), and political instability (Carter, 1998). In contrast, destination image is described as mental pictures a person holds about a place from tourism infrastructure to cultural, natural, and social attributes (Beerli and Martin, 2004).

2.2. Source credibility components

Expertise and trustworthiness were shown to be the key components of the source credibility of a messenger (McCracken, 1989; Ohanian, 1991).
**Trustworthiness**

Trustworthiness is the audience's conviction that the communicator is providing information in an honest, fair, and sincere manner (Ohanian, 1991). It is, in fact, “the perceived willingness of the source to make valid assertions” (McCracken, 1989). The perception of the trustworthiness is related to audience’s awareness of sources’ intentions (Eagly, Wood, and Chaiken, 1978). In fact, consumers are aware that companies use advertising messages with the commercial objective to convince consumers about their offers (Bickart and Schindler, 2001). In contrast, customers’ personal experiences described in privately produced messages are not perceived as commercially motivated and consequently are perceived to be more trustworthy (Berthon, Pitt, and Campbell, 2008; Hautz and al., 2014). In this context, many studies proved that personal opinions posted by customers are the most trusted form of advertising (Smith, Menon, and Sivakumar, 2005; The Nielsen Company, 2009).

**Expertise**

Source expertise refers to the extent to which the communicator is qualified to present valid and correct information or argue about a particular subject (Hovland, Irving, and Kelley, 1953). It is defined as “the perceived ability of the source to make valid assertions” (McCracken, 1989). Expertise can be divided into use experience and product-related knowledge (Luthje, 2004). Use experience is knowledge generated by direct acquaintance and through the frequent use of a certain product and refers to learning from experience (Hoch and Deighton, 1989). It is highly scored by users since it accompanied by obtaining credible knowledge about products and services (Luthje, 2004). Product and service related knowledge is related to information about the product architecture, used materials and technologies or service specifications. Most UGVs present personal stories and experiences which lead the audience to recognize their expertise and knowledge (Bickart and Schindler, 2001; Ertimur and Gilly, 2012).

### 2.3. Hypothesis development

**TGV source credibility**

Source credibility has a direct effect on the persuasion process in a consumer recreation behavioral context (Manfredo and Bright, 1991; Pornpitakpan, 2004). It can also influence consumer attitudes toward specific products or services. In the tourism literature, the source credibility of a destination is considered a critical aspect of the tourism destination marketing strategy (Pike, 2005; Bianchi and Pike, 2011). This is due to the central position of source credibility in the decision-making process that affects tourists’ overall attitudes and behavioral intention (Kerstetter and Cho, 2004). Generally, higher credibility increase tourists’ positive perceptions of destination image (Aaker and Keller, 1990; Pitta and Katsanis, 1995; Graeff, 1996; Erdem, Swait and Louviere, 2002; Grace and O’Cass, 2005; Spry et al., 2011). Furthermore, credible information has an important influence on the selection of destinations (Molina and Esteban, 2006). In fact, a tourism destination is more likely to be chosen if its image is attached to the tourist’s self-image (Beerli, Meneses and Gil, 2007; Glover, 2009). According to the theory of self-congruity, the tourist’s self-image toward the destination is bigger when the destination source credibility is higher (Sirgy and Su, 2000; Beerli, Meneses and Gil, 2007). Therefore, destination source credibility plays an important role in building tourists’ feelings and attitudes toward destinations.
(Rajagopal, 2006) and consequently in the destination choice process. As mentioned before, expertise and trustworthiness are the key components of the source credibility of a messenger (McCracken, 1989; Ohanian, 1991). Therefore, the perceived expertise and trustworthiness of the generators of videos are supposed to build the credibility of UGVs. Based on the above review, the following hypotheses are proposed:

\[ H_1: \text{The perceived trustworthiness of TGV negatively influences spectators' perceived risk} \]

\[ H_2: \text{The perceived trustworthiness of TGV positively influences destination image} \]

\[ H_3a: \text{The perceived trustworthiness of TGV positively influences spectators' intention to visit} \]

\[ H_3b: \text{The perceived trustworthiness of TGV positively influences spectators' Willingness to share} \]

\[ H_4: \text{The perceived expertise of TGV negatively influences spectators' perceived risk} \]

\[ H_5: \text{The perceived expertise of TGV positively influences destination image} \]

\[ H_6a: \text{The perceived expertise of TGV positively influences spectators' intention to visit} \]

\[ H_6b: \text{The perceived expertise of TGV positively influences spectators' Willingness to share} \]

**Perceived risk**

Considering the importance of the perceived risk concept, risk literature advanced the understanding of the effects of perceived risks on tourists’ future travel behavior. In fact, it was proven that risk perceptions exert a significant effect on travel intentions especially after the occurrence of incidents perceived as dangerous (Sönmez, 1998; Sönmez and Graefe, 1998a, Floyd et al., 2003; McKercher and Chon, 2004; Rittichainuwat, 2006; Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty, 2009). In this context, Rittichainuwat (2006) found that areas affected by the tsunami suffered from perceived post-disaster risks. Tourists preferred to travel to other areas at least till the end of the tsunami alert system. In an author study, perceived risk of deterioration was found to be the major worry of travelers in Thailand during the SARS wave (Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty, 2009). Therefore, safety risks generally discourage repeat tourists from traveling back to a region that is considered risky (Sönmez and Graefe, 1998a). Also, Chen et al.’s (2012) proved empirically that security and safety issues are significantly related to destination image. Moreover, It was identified that perceived travel risk to had a significant impact on the image of a tourist destination (Lehto et al., 2008; Lepp et al. 2011). Based on this rationale, the following hypotheses are predicted:

\[ H_7: \text{perceived risk negatively influences the destination image} \]

\[ H_8a: \text{perceived risk negatively influences the spectators’ intention to visit} \]

\[ H_8b: \text{perceived risk negatively influences the spectators’ Willingness to share} \]

**Destination image**

Researchers and destination managers are in consensus about the importance of image for the success of a tourist destination (Tasci and Gartner, 2007). In fact, it has been approved widely that destination image affects tourists’ subjective perception, consequent behavior, and destination choice (Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Chon, 1990, 1992; Echtner and Ritchie, 1991; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999a; Castro, Armario, and Ruiz, 2007). In other words, tourists’ behavior is expected to be partly conditioned by the image that they have of destinations. Image will influence tourists in the process of choosing a destination, the subsequent evaluation of the trip, and in their future intentions (Bigne, Sanchez,
and Sanchez, 2001; Chen and Tsai, 2007; Chi and Qu, 2008; Faullant et al., 2008; Prayag and Ryan, 2012). Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

\[ H_9 \text{ a: Destination image positively influences spectators' intention to visit} \]
\[ H_9 \text{ b: Destination image positively influences spectators' Willingness to share} \]

![Proposed conceptual model](image)

**Figure 1: Proposed conceptual model**

3. Methodology

3.1. Sample and data collection

This study aims to measure the impact of the tourists generated videos credibility on viewers’ perceptions and behavioral intention. Data were collected from international visitors who travel for tourism or other purposes and who didn’t visit Tunisia previously. A sample of 500 foreigners was randomly selected from Facebook. A questionnaire was created and administered online using Google Drive and a link to this questionnaire was sent to the sample of the study on Facebook. 300 usable responses were obtained after excluding incomplete questionnaires or those which were not correctly filled in, indicating 60% response rate.

The sample is composed of (51%) male and (49%) female. The majority of respondents aged between 25 and 44 years (56%) and less than 25 years (30%). In regards of occupations, most respondents were employees (37%) and students (33%). Geographical locations indicated that 61% of respondents were from Europe (e.g., England, Italy, Belgium, and France), 21% from America (e.g., USA and Canada), 5% from Asia (e.g., China, Iran and Lebanon), and 13% from Africa (e.g., Morocco and Egypt). The sample profile is shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Effective</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 25 years</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-44 years</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 44 years</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Occupation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager/official/</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>proprietor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The questionnaire was designed in French and English to cater persons from different nationalities. It was developed based on prior studies that employed well-established scales (Roobina Ohanian, 1990; Gallarza et Saura, 2006; Jalilvand et al., 2012 and Hautz et al, 2014).

The study instrument comprised of scales measuring the independent variables like Trustworthiness and Expertise, the mediating variables such as Perceived risk and Destination image and the dependent variables like Intention to visit and Willingness to share which compose our research model. The questionnaire contains three sections. At first, a screening question was used to identify the target population; respondents were asked whether they had visited Tunisia. Then the respondents were asked to watch a video through a link added in the questionnaire before answering the questions. This video was created by a couple of enthusiastic and motivated tourists during their trip in Tunisia and shared via YouTube. The second section consisted of items measuring the key constructs of interest within the model. Trustworthiness and Expertise are measured through two 5-point semantic scales using five indicators each as indicated in the literature. Ohanian (1990) showed that Expertise and trustworthiness are the key components of the source credibility of a messenger. Later Hautz et al. (2014) demonstrated that the source credibility of user-generated videos integrates two dimensions namely trustworthiness and expertise. These authors suggested the use of bipolar items to assess these two dimensions (Table 2).

To measure the destination image, we used the scale developed by Jalilvand et al. (2012) which aims to study the interrelationships among electronic word of mouth (eWOM), destination image, tourist attitude, and travel intention in the tourism industry. Perceived risk was measured by Gallarza and Saura (2006) scale. Then, eight items were included. To measure Intention to visit, we adapted and used the scale of Lee and Lockshin (2011) used later by Jalilvand et al. (2012) in their research and which includes three items. The respondents were asked to specify for each suggestion there level of agreement using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Finally, Willingness to share was measured by the scale of Hautz and al. (2014). The last section aims to collect Socio-demographic information of research participants by items including gender, age, level of education, occupation and nationality. Table 2 summarizes the different scales and items used in this research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Auteur(s)</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table 1: the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Retired</th>
<th>Unemployed</th>
<th>Europe</th>
<th>America</th>
<th>Asia</th>
<th>Africa</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2. Questionnaire Design and measures

The questionnaire was designed in French and English to cater persons from different nationalities. It was developed based on prior studies that employed well-established scales (Roobina Ohanian, 1990; Gallarza et Saura, 2006; Jalilvand et al., 2012 and Hautz et al, 2014).

The study instrument comprised of scales measuring the independent variables like Trustworthiness and Expertise, the mediating variables such as Perceived risk and Destination image and the dependent variables like Intention to visit and Willingness to share which compose our research model. The questionnaire contains three sections. At first, a screening question was used to identify the target population; respondents were asked whether they had visited Tunisia. Then the respondents were asked to watch a video through a link added in the questionnaire before answering the questions. This video was created by a couple of enthusiastic and motivated tourists during their trip in Tunisia and shared via YouTube. The second section consisted of items measuring the key constructs of interest within the model. Trustworthiness and Expertise are measured through two 5-point semantic scales using five indicators each as indicated in the literature. Ohanian (1990) showed that Expertise and trustworthiness are the key components of the source credibility of a messenger. Later Hautz et al. (2014) demonstrated that the source credibility of user-generated videos integrates two dimensions namely trustworthiness and expertise. These authors suggested the use of bipolar items to assess these two dimensions (Table 2).

To measure the destination image, we used the scale developed by Jalilvand et al. (2012) which aims to study the interrelationships among electronic word of mouth (eWOM), destination image, tourist attitude, and travel intention in the tourism industry. Perceived risk was measured by Gallarza and Saura (2006) scale. Then, eight items were included. To measure Intention to visit, we adapted and used the scale of Lee and Lockshin (2011) used later by Jalilvand et al. (2012) in their research and which includes three items. The respondents were asked to specify for each suggestion there level of agreement using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Finally, Willingness to share was measured by the scale of Hautz and al. (2014). The last section aims to collect Socio-demographic information of research participants by items including gender, age, level of education, occupation and nationality. Table 2 summarizes the different scales and items used in this research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Auteur(s)</th>
<th>Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Table 2: Concepts scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived risk</th>
<th>Five point Likert-type scale:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gallarza and Saura (2006)</td>
<td>-Fear of a terrorist attack during the trip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Risk of suffering any delinquency act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Fear of suffering any disease or infection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Fear of suffering a natural disaster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Fear of any kind of accident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Fear of any political or social problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Risk of being tricked as a tourist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Risk of an inconvenient treatment from residents</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Destination image</th>
<th>Five point Likert-type scale:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jalilvand and al. (2012)</td>
<td>-Tunisia is safe and secure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Tunisia offers exciting and interesting places to visit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Tunisia has beautiful scenery and natural attractions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Tunisia has a pleasant climate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-As a tourism destination, Tunisia offers good value for money</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intention to visit</th>
<th>Five point Likert-type scale:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jalilvand and al. (2012)</td>
<td>-I predict I will visit Tunisia in the future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-I would visit Tunisia rather than any other tourism destination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-If everything goes as I think, I will plan to visit Tunisia in the future.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Willingness to share</th>
<th>Hautz and al. (2014)</th>
<th>-Would you forward this video to others (friends, family, acquaintances)?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Would you share such a video via social networking sites (e.g., Facebook) with your friends?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-How often would you share the video on your personal blog/homepage/Twitter account?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-How often would you share the video on your social networking sites (Facebook, MySpace)?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3. Data analysis
At first, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted using SPSS 18. Structural equation model (SEM) test with maximum likelihood estimation was then used to analyze the proposed model using AMOS 18. Before assessing the hypothesized relationships in the structural model, a confirmatory factor analysis using maximum likelihood estimation was applied to determine the Composite reliability, the convergent validity and discriminant validity of the latent constructs in the model. Several goodness of fit indices were evaluated including normed chisquare (Chi2/df), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and Root Mean Residual (RMR). Normed chisquare (Chi2/df) is less than 3 (Hu and Bentler, 1999). The minimum threshold of acceptability for the GFI (Kline, 1998), the CFI, and the TLI is 0.90 (Byrne, 1998). The RMSEA value below 0.10 indicates an excellent fit (Stinger, 1990) and values under 0.05 indicate an excellent fit (Browne and Cudeck, 1992; MacCallum and al., 1996). An RMR value of 0.05 or less indicates a good fit between the
hypothesized model and the observed data. To assess scale reliability and validity, internal consistency measures and convergent validity with average variance extracted (AVE) and discriminant validity with interfactor correlations (Fornell and Larcker, 1981) were tested.

4. Results:
4.1. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted on all attributes of the proposed model. Firstly, alpha reliability coefficients (Cronbach, 1951) were calculated for each concept. Values of Cronbach’s alpha higher than 0.7 are acceptable and found to be adequate (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). The results showed that the Cronbach’s alpha values of Trustworthiness, Expertise, Perceived risk, Destination image, and intention to visit could be improved after removing some items as Trust1, Exp2 and Exp3, Ris1 and Ris6, DI1, DI4 and DI5 and ITV2. Secondly, the results showed that the scales of concepts are unidimensional with sufficient KMO values ranging between 0.5 and 0.841.

4.2. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

On AMOS 18, the goodness-of-fit indices of the measurement model were not good: Chi2/df (11.251), GFI (0.731), CFI (0.742), TLI (0.689), RMSEA (0.185) and RMR (0.068). To improve these values, we referred to the modification indices that revealed highly correlated measurement errors between some items like between e20 and e21 (327,444), e12 et e10 (64,550)…Since the introduction of correlated measurement errors could not be theoretically defended in the previous studies, Diamantopoulos et Siguaw (2006) suggested “to eliminate some of the items concerned (starting with the highest modification index and eliminating the item with the lower squared multiple correlation)”. Consequently, six items were removed from the model such as: Trust4, Ris4, Ris5, Ris7, Ris8 and WTS3, leading to good fit indices which are presented in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chi2/df</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>RMR</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.913</td>
<td>0.956</td>
<td>0.938</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.083</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: fit indices of measurement model

To measure the reliability and validity of the scales, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted. The AVE values of constructs were all above 0.5, ranging from 0.685 (Perceived Risk) to 0.828 (Destination Image), which suggests strong reliability and good convergent validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). As shown in Table 4, the AVE value for each factor is higher than the squared correlations between one construct and any others, representing good discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>VME</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Trustworthiness</td>
<td>0.802</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Expertise</td>
<td>0.746</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Perceived risk</td>
<td>0.685</td>
<td>0.346</td>
<td>0.087</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Destination image</td>
<td>0.828</td>
<td>0.201</td>
<td>0.207</td>
<td>0.308</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Intention to visit</td>
<td>0.685</td>
<td>0.199</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>0.362</td>
<td>0.139</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Willingness to share</td>
<td>0.804</td>
<td>0.475</td>
<td>0.113</td>
<td>0.343</td>
<td>0.286</td>
<td>0.403</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: convergent and discriminant validity test

4.3. Hypothesis test

The key fit indices including normed chisquare (3.07), GFI (0.913), CFI (0.956) and TLI (0.938) which are greater than 0.9, and RMR (0.044) and RMSEA (0.083) are good, thus, the model is acceptable.

The results showed that Trustworthiness had a significant negative impact on spectators’ perceived risk ($\beta = -0.552$, ***), and a significant positive effect on destination image ($\beta = 0.182$, $p = 0.012$). Therefore, $H1$ and $H2$ were supported. The direct effect of Trustworthiness on intention to visit is not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.136$, $p = 0.081$), but we found a significant positive effect of Trustworthiness on Willingness to share ($\beta = 0.465$, ***). Hence, $H3a$ was rejected but $H3b$ was supported. Concerning perceived expertise, the results revealed insignificant main effects of expertise on Perceived risk ($\beta = -0.103$, $p = 0.095$), on Destination image ($\beta = 0.013$, $p = 0.827$), on Intention to visit ($\beta = -0.007$, $p = 0.911$) and on Willingness to share ($\beta = 0.081$, $p = 0.082$), and as a result, $H4$, $H5$, $H6a$ and $H6b$ are not supported. Further, Perceived risk was significantly and negatively associated with Destination image ($\beta = -0.444$, ***), Intention to visit ($\beta = -0.505$, ***), and Willingness to share ($\beta = -0.168$, $p = 0.013$). Consequently, hypotheses $H7$, $H8a$ and $H8b$ were supported. No significant effect of Destination image on Intention to visit ($\beta = 0.034$, $p = 0.648$). Thus, $H9a$ was rejected. However, Destination image was found to have a significant positive direct effect on Willingness to share ($\beta = 0.217$, ***), and therefore $H9b$ is supported.

5. Conclusions

Our study made an important contribution to knowledge. First, based on source credibility literature, we focused on the credibility of the generators of videos instead of the characteristics of the messenger featured in videos. Second, our study contributes to the literature by analyzing the role of perceived risk and destination image between source credibility of tourist generated video and behavior intention. Adding perceived risk and destination image as a consideration to study the relationship between TGV and behavior intention integrates the research of consumer behavior.

The literature on eWOM reveals that non-commercial sources such as peer users are much more trusted information sources. In accordance with those insights, our research shows that tourist-generated videos (TGVs), a developed form of eWOM, generally reveal a high degree of source credibility and then a strong influence on future behavior with respect to video viewing. These findings confirm previous results about the effects of non-
commercial message sources and extend them to the context of the richer modality of online videos generated by tourists. The results provide support for the basic advantages of peer recommendations due to the high credibility (Cheong and Morrison, 2008; Cox and al., 2009; Dhar and Chang, 2009). This finding may be due to the fact that TGVs tell personal stories and experiences of tourists. This non-commercial personal content allows the audience to associate the necessary knowledge and trust to the generating tourists.

Our results also draw a more nuanced image compared to the existing literature. In fact, the results of structural equation analyses suggest that messages originating from experienced tourists are not sensitive to expertise and then to quality issues. In fact, only the Trustworthiness component of the source credibility was significant and has an effect on perceived risk and on destination image. Our findings thereby challenge the perceived superiority of trustworthiness of the tourist generators over expertise. The credibility of information source negatively influences consumers’ perceived risk, so that the higher the trustworthiness of the video, the lower degree of perceived risk consumers have and thereby a much more positive image they build about the destination. In addition, perceived risk is negatively related with destination image and purchase intention. As the visualization of the video reduce consumers’ uncertainty about the destination, their willingness to forward this video to others and to share it via social networking sites increases. The lower degree of perceived risk the consumer has, the higher purchase intention is.

6. Managerial Implications

Tunisia experienced a big political instability. The publicized events of the tunisian revolution associated to the stagnation of the tourism sector have led to a real tourism sector crisis since the destination became associated to a high risk and a negative image. Generally marketing strategies in tourism sector have limited effects in case of risk associated destination due to war, terror, instability or violence. In a similar case, the Tunisian destination perception is dominated by a negative elements leading to failure attracting strategies.

In this context, our research advance social media as an effective marketing tool. Tunisia could overcome the crisis then by creating a formal, but flexible, strategy including the encouragement of any tourist to produce his own video and then to share it online.

Social media is increasingly relevant for the sharing of tourism experiences and so it is particularly relevant since tourism is an ‘information-intensive industry. In this context, our research leads to important implications for managers’ decisions about their social media marketing, communication, and advertising strategies especially in time of crises. Social media offers platforms that allow users to collaborate, communicate and publish personal content such as blogs, videos, wikis, reviews, or photos which facilitate in general consumer-generated content (CGC), and are widely used by online travelers.

Our results show that TGVs may offer tourist destinations an interesting alternative to professional videos produced by advertising agencies as long as they are positive about the destination offer. Thus, destination marketer should include TGVs in their online marketing activities, either by including those videos themselves or the corresponding links in their digital promotion activities such as blogs and web sites. In this case, the experienced tourist is still the producer and then the source of the video. Destinations that choose to integrate videos produced by creative and motivated tourists into their promotion activities do not need to worry about the technical
quality of the videos and the expertise of its producers. In fact, consumers are totally able to distinguish between professionals and amateurs and accept the non expertise of the videos’ generators.

Finally, our study argues that the TGV are able to reduce the uncertainty and the destination related risk and to restore a positive image of the destination but this strategy do not increase the purchase intention significantly. Therefore, managers should associate the TGV with alternative marketing strategies to reach a considerable impact on the decision-making behavior of consumers.

REFERENCES

- Chakravarty, Anindita, Yong Liu, and Tridib Mazumdar (2010). The Differential Effects of Online Word-of-Mouth and Critics' Reviews on Pre-


- Clow, K.E., James, K.E., Kranenburg, K.E. & Berry, C.T. (2006), The relationship of the visual element of an advertisement to service quality expectations and source credibility, *Journal of Services Marketing*, 20(6), 404-411


Hautz, Füller, Hutter and Thürridl (2014), Let Users Generate Your Video Ads? The Impact of Video Source and


- Leathers, D.G. (1992), *Successful nonverbal communication: principles
and applications. New York, NY: Macmillan


- Ohanian, Roobina (1990), Construction and Validation of a Scale to Measure Celebrity’s Endorsers’ Perceived


