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Demand for mitigating the risk of COVID-19 infection in public transport: the role of social trust and fatalistic beliefs

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13

14 **Abstract**

15 The rapid surge of COVID-19 cases worldwide drew attention to COVID-19 infection as a new source of
16 risk in transport. The virus introduced a need for viral transmission mitigation as a major priority when
17 selecting a mode of travel, and caused a significant drop in public transport use. The recovery of public
18 transport use in the post-COVID period requires that the transport authorities favourably address the
19 people's demand for mitigation of the risk of COVID-19 transmission in public transport. The present
20 study aims to explore the role of risk perception, worry and priority of COVID-19 risk reduction along
21 with fatalistic beliefs and public trust in authorities in explaining public demand for risk mitigation. The
22 present study is among the first to investigate the role of fatalistic beliefs, social trust and risk perception
23 for public transport and public demand for risk mitigation. The link between priority of infection
24 prevention and demand for risk mitigation has also been less explored in public transport research. An
25 online survey was conducted among university students in Iran between 19th April and 16th June 2020,
26 during the first wave of the pandemic, when the country was a major epicentre of the disease. A total of
27 271 out of 370 respondents whose dominant mode on university travels was public transport were
28 included in the analysis. Results of structural equation modelling confirmed the paradox of trust,
29 indicating that social trust is negatively associated with perceived risk of COVID-19 infection, which in
30 turn may lead people to place less importance on COVID-19 prevention as a priority in travel mode
31 choice, and consequently demand less risk mitigation efforts to prevent COVID-19 infection in public
32 transport. Dissimilar to trust, however, the results revealed no relationship between fatalistic beliefs and
33 risk perception, but a significant direct effect of fatalistic beliefs on demand for risk mitigation. To
34 reinforce public demand for mitigating the risk of COVID-19 in public transport, the study calls on
35 policymakers to exploit public trust resources for more effective risk communication, through
36 disseminating the gradually accumulating evidence-based information regarding the infectivity and the
37 virulence of COVID-19 and the scientific risk of infection. The study also underlined the potential
38 importance of considering fatalistic beliefs when developing effective risk communication policies and
39 practices to enhance public support for COVID-19 risk mitigation in public transport.

40

41 **Keywords:** COVID-19; public transport; demand for risk mitigation; fatalism; social trust; risk
42 perception

43 **Introduction**

44 The first confirmed cases of COVID-19 was reported in Wuhan China, 31st of December 2019 (Aknin et
45 al. 2021). The transmission spread of the virus, however, was so fast that by the time of writing (28th of
46 September 2021), COVID-19 had caused around 4.75 million deaths and over 232 million confirmed
47 cases around the world (WHO 2021). Soon after the onset of the pandemic, respiratory droplets and
48 contaminated surfaces were recognized to be the most important routes of transmission of the disease
49 (WHO 2020a). Close contact (within 1 metre) with an infected person was concluded to cause respiratory
50 droplets to reach the people around (WHO 2020b). Evidence at the beginning of the pandemic also
51 confirmed that the respiratory secretions and droplets can remain on surfaces and objects for hours.
52 Hence, the infection was also believed to be transmitted indirectly, when individuals touch virus-
53 contaminated surfaces and then touch their mouths, noses, or eyes (WHO 2020b)¹.

54 In efforts to prevent the spread of COVID-19, urban public transport received immediate attention from
55 the health authorities. The risk of viral transmission is believed to be high on public transport because of
56 increased duration of possible exposure to infected people in enclosed overcrowded spaces of public
57 transport, as well as inadequate ventilation, recirculation of contaminated air, and struggles in maintaining
58 basic hygienic requirements (Zhen et al. 2020). There is strong evidence from many observations around
59 the world that as a direct consequence of the high risk of the virus transmission in public transport, the use
60 of public transport dramatically declined, not only due to a demand reduction but also for the
61 requirements imposed by the health authorities to limit the capacity (Gkiotsalitis and Cats 2020). For
62 instance, public transport in the Netherlands experienced a reduction of over 90% compared to the fall of
63 2019, which was the largest reduction in the number of trips among different modes of transport (de Haas,
64 Faber, and Hamersma 2020). Similar observations from Germany also confirmed that compared to other
65 modes of travel, public transport was hit the hardest by the COVID-19 pandemic (Eisenmann et al. 2021).
66 Studies also reported drops of about 80%–90% in public transport use in major cities in China, Iran and
67 the U.S due to the pandemic (UITP 2020).

68 Despite significant worldwide declines in public transport use and availability, authorities still required
69 public transport agencies to be prepared and to continue services for essential workers and employers
70 during the pandemic (Hendrickson and Rilett 2020). This required public transport agencies to take
71 preventive measures to mitigate the risk of COVID-19 transmission. For instance, the World Health
72 Organization recommended national and local governments, and transport providers to coordinate,
73 facilitate and conduct thorough and frequent cleanings and disinfection of facilities, buses, trams and
74 other public transport vehicles, stations and equipment such as elevators, escalators, handrails, seats,
75 ticketing devices and other surfaces (WHO 2020c).

76 Interestingly it is argued that as a result of people’s fear of infection in public crowded places, it is
77 expected that public transport is unlikely to reach the pre-COVID demand levels for some considerable
78 time (Vickerman 2021). For instance, observations of the mobility trends in Italy, Germany, Canada, and
79 the US, Ciuffini, Tengattini, and Bigazzi (2021) have revealed that compared to private modes of
80 transport, public transport use experienced a lower rate of recovery. It was concluded that despite a total
81 increase in the overall travel demand over the course of the recovery, the percentage of public transport
82 use across all trips has decreased compared to the pre-COVID baseline. The authors explained their
83 observation in relation to people’s perceived risk of getting infected in shared spaces with other
84 passengers. It is reasonable to assume that persistence of the sense of the transmission threat would raise

¹ For this reason, deep cleaning practice was among significant protocols for disinfection in public transport at the time the survey in this study was conducted. However, COVID-19 transmission by fomites (inanimate surfaces or objects) received critiques later, for being based on test results that had little resemblance to real-life scenarios (Goldman 2020). The critics argued that dissimilar to real-life situations, the studies have placed a very large number of infectious virus particles on test surfaces.

85 public demand towards the authorities to mitigate the risk, and if such demand is not addressed, a full
86 recovery of public transport demand is unlikely to occur post-COVID.

87 The previous research on risk mitigation in public transportation has traditionally been concerned with the
88 risk of crashes. For instance, Rundmo and Moen (2006) argued that compared to private modes of
89 transportation, demand for risk mitigation is expected to be greater for public transportation, because
90 public transportation crashes may have more severe consequences compared to crashes in private
91 transportation. In another study, Nordfjærn and Rundmo (2018) found that people's intention to use
92 public transport is more strongly linked to demand for risk mitigation in the public transport sector than
93 the private motorized sector. The daily accumulating evidence of the infectivity, pathogenicity and
94 virulence of COVID-19 and the risk of getting infected by the virus, however, spurred the public's
95 demand for mitigating COVID-19 transmission in public transport as a novel source of risk, which in turn
96 could have strengthened political support for such mitigation in public transport. This is true because
97 public demand for risk mitigation may be a prerequisite for organizational policies related to risk
98 reduction (Rundmo and Moen 2006).

99 Previous literature also supports that risk perception (the degree to which an individual feels susceptible
100 to a threat and a judgement of the severity of a threat) (Thompson 2014)) is an explanatory factor for an
101 individual's demand for risk mitigation and policy risk decisions (see Sjöberg 1999; Rundmo 2001). The
102 link between risk perception and demand for risk mitigation is of particular importance in transport,
103 considering that it may affect mode use. For instance, higher perception of a certain risk in public
104 transport (e.g. the risk of virus transmission) combined with higher demand for mitigating that risk may
105 cause people to switch to alternative modes perceived to be safer (e.g. private cars), if their demand for
106 risk mitigation is not met with countermeasures by the public transport authorities (Nordfjærn et al.
107 2021).

108 Based on the expectancy-value approach, risk perception is concerned with cognitive processes
109 underlying the evaluation of the probability of a risk event to occur and the potential severity of its
110 consequences (Sjöberg, Moen, and Rundmo 2004). The risk-as-feelings approach, however, places focus
111 on the role of emotions, such as worry and concern (Kinateder et al. 2015). It is argued that the
112 consequence component of risk perception is the dimension of risk perception in which lay people put a
113 stronger emphasis. A potential explanation is that the perceived consequences of risk is more related to
114 affect, such as worry and concern, and thus previous authors have emphasized that compared to
115 probability assessments of risk, risk consequences and worry are stronger predictors of demand for risk
116 mitigation (see e.g. Sjöberg 1999). For instance, studying risk perception and demand for risk mitigation
117 in transport, Rundmo and Moen (2006) found that while probability assessment was an insignificant
118 predictor of demand for risk mitigation in transport (including public transport), worry was a stronger and
119 more significant predictor compared to consequences. The study also showed that worry mediated the
120 effects of both consequences and probability on demand for risk mitigation in public transport. In contrast
121 to the above findings, recent literature has implicated that dissimilar to worry, risk perception may not be
122 a strong predictor of demand for risk mitigation in transport (Rundmo and Nordfjærn 2017).

123 In addition to cognitive probability and consequence assessments of risk and emotional responses such as
124 worry, it may be argued that demand for risk mitigation in a specific transport sector (e.g. public
125 transport) may also be relevant for individuals' priority of safety when choosing transport modes from
126 that particular sector (Rundmo and Nordfjærn 2013). In a broader sense, transport priorities (such as
127 priority of safety) are transport qualities that people perceive to be of particular significance when
128 choosing a travel mode. For instance, Şimşekoğlu, Nordfjærn, and Rundmo (2015) argued that priority of
129 safety and security were positively associated with people's intention to use public transportation in
130 Norway. Priority of safety may act as a mediator between worry and demand for risk mitigation. For

131 instance, Rundmo and Nordfjærn (2013) showed that the indirect effect of worry on demand for risk
132 mitigation in transport through priority of safety was stronger than the direct effect.

133 Trust in authorities' risk handling influences people's transportation behaviour. For instance, in a large
134 Norwegian population-based sample, Rundmo et al. (2011) found that those who trusted the authorities'
135 risk handling abilities most often used public transport. In explaining this finding, the authors argued that
136 in the case of lower levels of trust people prefer to use transportation modes that are perceived to be under
137 their own control (i.e. private modes).

138 Trust in authorities' risk handling influences risk perception. This assumption has received extensive
139 support from previous studies of different risk domains, from nuclear power energy (Ryu, Kim, and Kim
140 2018) to genetically modified food (Lu, Xie, and Xiong 2015), and natural hazards (Han et al. 2017).
141 Although such a relationship has received less empirical support in the transportation domain, the general
142 finding in most studies in other fields of research is that the higher levels of trust in experts and
143 institutions are associated with lower levels of perceived risk. The relationship between trust and risk
144 perception, however, pertains to the individual's knowledge about the risk source, as well as the type of
145 risk and the way the trust is measured (Siegrist 2021). Since people may not have sufficient knowledge
146 about certain sources of risk, in dealing with hazards they have usually no other way than to rely on trust
147 to reduce the complexities that they are faced with (Siegrist, Gutscher, and Earle 2005). For instance, in
148 the lack of robust and trustworthy information about a certain risk, people may rely on institutions that are
149 assumed to be responsible for regulating and decreasing hazards related to that source of risk. From this
150 perspective, social trust is an important factor when explaining risk perception.

151 In the lack of reliable information required to analyze causal relations under complex situations such as
152 risk occurrence, people may also want to rely on their beliefs, which may not necessarily be scientifically
153 true or justifiable, but may also play a definite role in shaping behaviour. Among such beliefs are
154 fatalistic beliefs, based on which individuals tend to believe that they have no control over health risks
155 and that occurrences are mainly predetermined by fate, luck and chance (Ngueutsa and Kouabenan 2017).
156 Such beliefs are contrary to the control beliefs which are important components in psychological theories
157 such as the theory of planned behaviour, the health belief model, and other social cognition theories.
158 These theories have been extensively used to explain protection intention and behaviour. In these theories
159 control beliefs refer to the degree of control an individual perceive to have over resources and
160 opportunities required to perform a health behaviour (Ajzen and Madden 1986).

161 Fatalistic and control beliefs are analogous to respectively external and internal locus of control, in
162 Rotter's (1966) social learning theory, where perception of control is derived from expectations that are
163 formed internally or externally. According to the theory, while those with a higher internal locus
164 of control tend to believe that the life outcomes are predicted by own efforts, the external locus of control
165 is concerned with the belief that the occurrence of positive or negative events is determined by other
166 people or circumstances.

167 Previous research has investigated the relationship between fatalism and risk-taking behaviour. It is
168 prudent to maintain that higher levels of fatalism are associated with taking less precaution when
169 encountering hazardous situations. For instance, Niederdeppe and Levy (2007) argued that people holding
170 fatalistic beliefs about cancer prevention may be at higher risk of cancer, because of their weaker
171 tendency to engage in various prevention behaviours. The deleterious effects of fatalism on risky
172 behaviours have been supported in the traffic safety research domain. For example, examining a sample
173 of road users in Turkey, Nordfjærn, Şimşekoğlu, and Rundmo (2012) showed that fatalism was the most
174 important predictor of risky driving behaviour. The positive link between fatalism and risky behaviour
175 has also been documented in more general domains such as healthy eating (Welch and Ellis 2018).

176 However, there are other studies that do not support the significant relationship between fatalism and
177 health behaviour (e.g. Romo et al. 2018).

178 In addition to a direct relationship between fatalism and risky behaviour, previous studies have also
179 considered an indirect relationship through risk perception. While the premise that fatalistic beliefs reflect
180 uncertainty and fear may suggest a positive correlation between fatalistic beliefs and risk perception
181 (McQueen et al. 2008), the existing literature does not provide unanimous evidence about the relationship
182 between fatalism and risk perception. It has been shown that fatalistic beliefs can negatively influence risk
183 perception by engendering a feeling of being invulnerable and giving the illusion of protection
184 (Kouabenan 2009). In a dissimilar way, You, Ji, and Han (2013) considering a sample of commercial
185 airline pilots concluded that while pilots with a higher internal locus of control considered themselves
186 more at risk than others, external locus of control was found associated with a lower level of risk
187 perception. To explain, they noted the difference in respondents' vigilance between the internal and
188 external locus of control groups, to attend to pertinent cues and ignore irrelevant signals when processing
189 information (Gregory and Nelson 1978). As another example to show the inconsistency, Ngueutsa and
190 Kouabenan (2017) noted the negative mediating role of traffic risk perception in the relationship between
191 fatalistic beliefs and reported safe behaviours. However, in contrast to the findings by Ngueutsa and
192 Kouabenan (2017), Teye-Kwadjo (2019) found a positive relationship and attributed it to sample
193 characteristics and measurement issues. In another study, Elias and Shiftan (2012) noted that people with
194 more fatalistic beliefs had a higher intention to use public transport. In explaining this observation they
195 pointed to the higher levels of risk in car use compared to public transport.

196 **Research aims and contribution**

197 Using a sample of Iranian university students, the present study aimed to investigate the factors
198 underlying the demand for COVID-19 transmission risk reduction in public transport. According to the
199 theoretical backgrounds outlined above, in the absence of reliable evidence about the disease during
200 the acute COVID-19 outbreak with relatively high rates of morbidity and mortality, fatalistic beliefs and
201 trust in experts both play key roles in shaping the way people perceive the risk of COVID-19 infection
202 when using public transport. Risk perception and consequent affects may associate with people's demand
203 for reduction of the risk of COVID-19 transmission among public transport users. In addition to this
204 indirect relationship, demand for reduction of transmission risk in public transport was hypothesised to be
205 directly linked to fatalism, as well as to trust in experts. Furthermore, we hypothesised that the users'
206 priorities of COVID-19 preventive measures in public transport mediate the relationship between worry
207 of getting infected with COVID-19 and demand for COVID-19 risk reduction. Based on the above
208 explanation, Figure 1 illustrates the theoretical framework underlying the study.

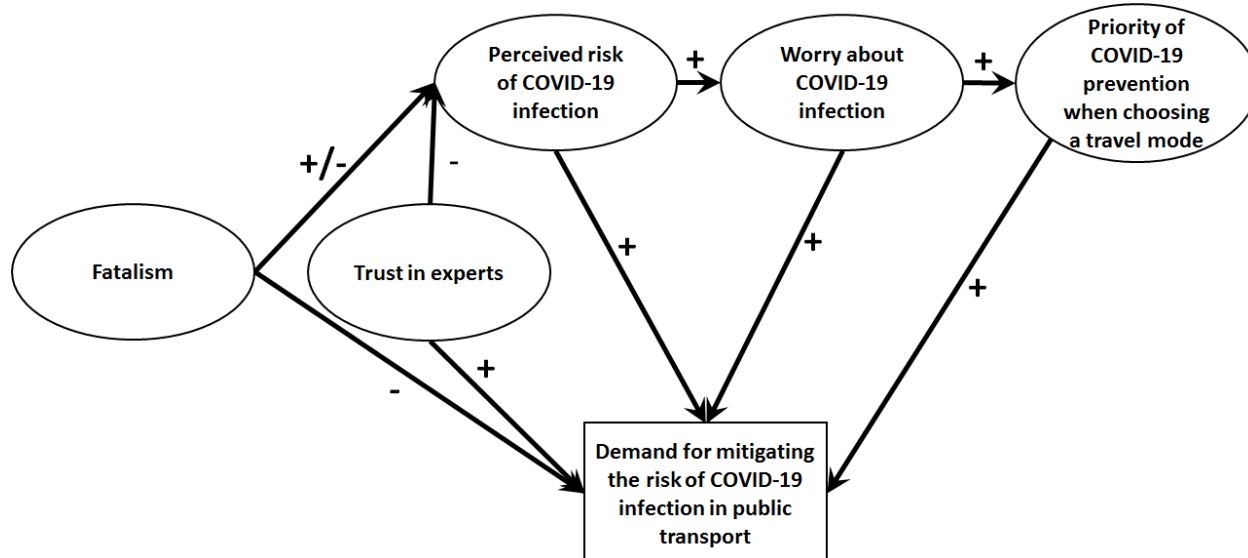


Fig 1. The conceptual model framework of the study (+ : hypothesised positive association, - : hypothesised negative association, +/- : No directional hypothesis postulated)

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 213 Perception of safety and security and demand for risk mitigation in the public transport sector have been
 214 subjects of several previous studies (Rundmo and Moen 2006; Rundmo et al. 2011; Rundmo and
 215 Nordfjærn 2013; Rundmo and Nordfjærn 2017; Rundmo and Nordfjærn 2019). However, to the best of
 216 our knowledge, the literature in transport behaviour research lacks empirical studies to assess the
 217 association between people’s fatalistic beliefs and their trust in authorities’ risk handling and their risk
 218 perception and demand for risk mitigation. In addition, the link between priority of safety and demand for
 219 risk mitigation in the transport sector has been subject of little investigation.

220 The rapid surge of COVID-19 cases worldwide since the time it was first reported, however, drew
 221 attention to the COVID-19 infection as a new source of risk in public transport, which may affect the
 222 public’s demand for mitigating the risk of COVID-19 infection, as well as their transport behaviour. As
 223 explained, in the absence of scientifically accurate information about the ways of COVID-19 infection
 224 transmission and prevention during the first waves of the pandemic, the role of fatalistic beliefs and trust
 225 was critical in formation of passengers’ risk perception and their demand for mitigating the risk of virus
 226 transmission. Therefore the present study is among the first to explore the relationship between fatalistic
 227 beliefs, trust in authorities and priority of safety (COVID-19 prevention) and risk perception and demand
 228 for COVID-19 risk reduction in the public transport sector.

229 The present study could be of particular interest for cultural, organizational and epidemiological reasons.
 230 From a cultural point of view, the cultural theory of risk (Douglas and Wildavsky 1983) considers that the
 231 socially defined cultural biases or worldviews form the sources of differences between individuals’ risk
 232 perception. From this perspective, previous studies have found a link between fatalistic beliefs and
 233 religion (Ruiu 2013). Hence, in religious countries like Iran, fatalism might demonstrate a link with
 234 individuals’ risk perception and their demand for risk mitigation, as well as their risk behaviour. On the
 235 other hand, from an institutional standpoint, recent studies in Iran reported a low level of public trust
 236 regarding healthcare systems in general (Tabrizi et al. 2016) and during the COVID-19 epidemic,
 237 specifically (Vardanjani et al. 2020). From an epidemiological perspective, Iran was among the global
 238 epicentres of the coronavirus in the region and internationally at the time of data collection (Sawaya et al.
 239 2020).

240 **Methods**
 241 **Sampling procedure**

242 With around 15 thousand students in 15 faculties, Kharazmi University is among the largest universities
243 in Iran. Before the COVID-19 pandemic outbreak, public transport (including subway, bus, and shared
244 taxi/vans) was the primary mode of transport for the students to reach the major university campuses in
245 Tehran and Karaj. However, following confirmation of the first infected case of COVID-19 in Iran on
246 the 19th of February, 2020 (Abbasi-Oshaghi, Mirzaei, and Khodadadi 2020), the spread of the disease was
247 so rapid that the officials decided to shut down all the universities and colleges throughout the country
248 right after diagnosis of the disease, to control the infection. At the time of writing, most of the Iranian
249 universities are still locked down, and almost all educational centres are teaching their classes online.

250 We conducted an online survey to collect data from students at Kharazmi University. The logic was that
251 Iran became one of the global epicentres of the coronavirus almost right after the pandemic hit the
252 country (Sawaya et al. 2020). In addition, since major campuses of the university has been well accessible
253 by bus and subway for more than 20 years, public transport has traditionally been a major mode of travel
254 for the students at the University.

255 The university was shut down and we had no access to students' information at the time of data
256 collection. we conducted a convenience sampling through an online survey to collect data. The survey
257 started on 19th April 2020, when a temporary decline was observed in the number of daily deaths from the
258 outbreak and ended on 16th June 2020 when COVID-19 infection deaths was on the rise to the second
259 peak of the outbreak.

260 The survey was anonymous, but to increase the response rate, we explained in the invitation letter that all
261 participants completing the survey would have their names entered into a draw for six gift cards. Entrance
262 into the lottery required the participants to enter their contact details at the start of the survey. This
263 process, however, was completely voluntary. In other words, there was a possibility that the respondents
264 complete the survey without entering their names and contact details into records. The participants were
265 assured that the information obtained would remain private and confidential. They were also reminded
266 that there were no right or wrong answers to the questions and that the data would only be used for
267 research purposes. The web-based system hosting the survey helped the authors to prevent any missing
268 data, by disabling submission of incomplete data. In this way, it was required that the respondents
269 completed all questions before being able to submit their responses.

270 The survey link was posted at major online student forums and social media, where many students were
271 members. We also asked professors and educational staff to share the survey link with students after their
272 online lectures. In addition, we adopted a snowballing approach by asking the respondents to share the
273 questionnaire link with their acquaintances, friends and social network who were also students at
274 Kharazmi University. This method of recruiting data has been used in previous literature (Fallah Zavareh,
275 Mohamadi Hezaveh, and Nordfjærn 2018).

276 **Sample characteristics**

277 We received a total of 370 completely filled forms, out of which for 271 (73.24%) respondents public
278 transport was the dominant mode of travel during the normal days before the university was shut down
279 due to the COVID-19 pandemic. We entered this subsample into the analysis comprising of 108 (39.9%)
280 male and 163 (60.1%) female respondents, for which the primary travel mode was bus for 51 (18.8%),
281 subway for 178 (65.7%), and shared taxi/van for 42 (15.5%) respondents. The mean age of the
282 respondents in the subsample was 21.9 years (Min = 19, Max = 39, SD = 3.07). Almost all cases (90.4%)
283 had to travel to the university for three days a week or more, in an ordinary week before the university
284 shut down.

285 **Questionnaire**

286 The questionnaire used in this study consisted of several instruments designed for a comprehensive study.
287 In this section, we only explain the parts that were relevant to the aims of the present study (see Appendix

288 I for the questionnaire). All the instruments used in this study have been adopted from previous studies. A
289 group of Iranian language experts who were familiar with Iranian culture translated the questionnaire
290 from the original documents into Farsi. To ensure the clarity and language fluency, we, however, pilot
291 tested the instruments and made improvements where required before publishing the questionnaire online.

292 The questionnaire started by asking the respondents' gender and age. We also asked them to specify the
293 number of days a week they travelled to the university according to their class schedule, as well as their
294 most frequent mode of travel before the university shut down.

295 Based on the expectancy-value approach risk perception consists of a two-factor structure covering the
296 probability assessment of the risk occurrence and the potential severity of consequences of the risk.
297 Respondents' perception of risk of getting infected by COVID-19 using public transport was measured
298 considering only the probability dimension. We asked the respondents to evaluate how probable they
299 thought it was that they personally would be infected with Coronavirus when using different modes of
300 public transport (including subway, bus, and shared taxi), regardless of their dominant mode of travel. A
301 five-point Likert scale (from 1: very low probability to 5: very high probability) was used for
302 measurement. We did not include the severity dimension of the risk perception, because the severity of
303 the COVID-19 disease is relevant to virulence and pathogenicity of the virus itself, irrespective of the
304 travel mode the respondents may use.

305 The respondents' worry was also measured on a five-point Likert scale (1: a little worried, to 5: very
306 worried) by asking the respondents how worried they become when thinking about the risk of getting
307 infected by the Coronavirus when they travel to campus by any of the means of public transport
308 (including subway, bus and shared taxi) regardless of their dominant mode of travel. For both risk
309 probability and severity assessment similar instruments have previously been used in other studies in Iran
310 (Fallah Zavareh et al. 2020; Mehdizadeh and Ermagun 2020).

311 Fatalistic beliefs were measured by the instrument validated by McIlroy et al. (2020). The instrument was
312 a short version (including 19 items) of a 30-item questionnaire that was originally adopted by Esparza,
313 Wiebe, and Quiñones (2015). McIlroy et al. (2020) validated the instrument using data from different
314 countries with cultural and geographic variations. The items loaded on a four-factor structure including
315 general fatalism (e.g. if bad things happen, it is because they were meant to happen), internality (e.g. what
316 happens to me in the future mostly depends on me), divine control (e.g. everything that happens to a
317 person was planned by God) and luck (e.g. when good things happen to people, it is because of good
318 luck). The five items related to divine control were removed from the questionnaire in the present study
319 due to the sensitivity of religious issues in Iran. The remaining 14 items were scored using a five-point
320 Likert scale (1: strongly disagree, to 5: strongly agree).

321 Trust was measured by asking the respondents how much confidence they had in the abilities of public
322 transport agencies to take effective preventive measures to reduce the risk of Coronavirus infection. The
323 public transport agencies included the metro operation company, bus operating companies, and taxi
324 operation companies. Trust in these authorities was measured separately, using a five-point Likert scale
325 from 1: not confident at all, to 5: very confident. A similar measure has been used by Rundmo et al.
326 (2011) in the domain of the risk of crashes and public transport.

327 Punctuality, safety and security, travel cost, travel time, comfort, and availability of the travel modes are
328 among the different aspects related to selection of travel mode. The instrument to measure the importance
329 of such transport priorities has been previously used by Rundmo, Sigurdson, and Roche-Cerasi (2011)
330 and Şimşekoğlu, Nordfjærn, and Rundmo (2015). The instrument has also been widely used in Iran (see
331 e.g. Mehdizadeh et al. 2017). After the COVID-19 pandemic crisis, health consideration appears to be a
332 new relevant priority in public transport mode use. To measure the COVID-19 prevention priority in
333 selecting public modes of travel similar to the previous instrument, we added two new aspects of transport

334 into the previous instrument, including the possibility of social distancing and regular disinfection of
335 transport facilities (e.g. seats onboard, waiting points, etc.). We asked the respondents to specify the
336 importance of each aspect when they choose a mode of travel on university trips, supposing that the
337 university reopens next week. The responses were scored on a five-point Likert scale from 1: not
338 important at all to 5: very important.

339 Finally, to measure the respondents' demand for mitigating the risk of COVID-19 infection in public
340 transport, we asked them to evaluate how important they thought it was that the authorities in the
341 transport sector take measures to reduce the risk of Coronavirus infection in public transport. Responses
342 were scored on a five-point Likert scale from 1: not important at all to 5: very important. This instrument
343 was directly adopted from Rundmo and Nordfjærn (2013).

344 **Statistical procedures**

345 We conducted principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation to identify the dimensional
346 structure of the respondents' fatalistic beliefs. We estimated item loadings on the extracted dimensions. A
347 cut-off point of .4 and eigenvalues greater than 1 were used to identify the dimensionality of the data, as
348 suggested by Hair (2010). Item loadings over .3, .4, and .5 have been considered significant, more
349 important, and very significant, respectively (Hair 2010). We also reported the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
350 measure of sampling adequacy to determine the suitability of the data for a PCA analysis.

351 For each component of the fatalistic beliefs, we reported Cronbach's alphas as the coefficient of internal
352 reliability. Average corrected item-total correlations were also calculated. Cronbach's alpha and average
353 corrected item-total correlations were also measured for other latent variables including perceived risk of
354 and worry about COVID-19 infection at public transport, trust in public transport agencies, and priority of
355 COVID-19 prevention when using a travel mode.

356 For the fatalistic beliefs, we also confirmed the dimensionality of the instrument using confirmatory
357 factor analysis (CFA). The discrepancy between the observed and the predicted covariance matrices was
358 estimated using the Chi-Square statistic. We also reported the degree of freedom (DF), comparative fit
359 index (CFI; a measure of the difference between the hypothesised model and the null model), and the root
360 mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA; representing the degree to which the model fits the
361 population covariance matrix while controlling for the degree of freedom and sample size).

362 We conducted a structural equation model (SEM) to test the hypothesised framework of Figure 1. In this
363 model, the demand for mitigating the risk of COVID-19 infection in public transport was considered as an
364 observed variable, since the instrument consisted of only one item. Other variables were entered as latent
365 variables, where indicators were used for identifying those variables. The model fit was evaluated using
366 various fit indices including Chi-Square, CFI, RMSEA. Standardized regression weights (path
367 coefficients) were estimated for the structural relations. Furthermore, for each exogenous variable, we
368 reported the squared multiple correlation as a measure of explained variance.

369 **Results**

370 **Descriptive statistics**

371 Mean and standard deviation of items of fatalistic beliefs, perceived risk of COVID-19 infection at public
372 transport, worry about COVID-19 infection at public transport, trust in public transport agencies, the
373 priority of Covid-19 prevention when choosing a travel mode, and demand for mitigation of the risk
374 of COVID-19 transmission in public transport are reported in Table 1. As shown, the respondents did not
375 report strong fatalistic tendencies. However, for all modes of public transport, the respondents evaluated
376 the probability of getting infected in COVID-19 to be very high. They also reported that they were highly
377 worried about getting the disease when using different modes of public transport. Compared to shared
378 vans and taxis, the respondents perceived themselves to be at relatively more risk of infection and
379 reported to be more worried when travelling on subway or bus, presumably because there is usually a

380 higher odds of encountering many passengers in subway and bus compared to smaller shared vehicles like
381 shared taxis and vans.

382 Table 1 also shows that the possibility of social distancing and regular disinfection of transport facilities
383 are very important aspects to the respondents when they choose a mode of travel. The respondents also
384 urgently demanded the transport sector officials to mitigate the risk of infection in public transport,
385 although very interestingly they reported relatively lower levels of trust in the authorities' abilities to take
386 effective preventive measures to reduce the risk of infection.

387

388 Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of the items related to the variables used in the model

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
Fatalistic beliefs (To what extent do you agree or disagree with these statements in general? (1: strongly disagree ~ 5: strongly agree))		
1. If bad things happen, it is because they were meant to happen	2.27	1.010
2. Life is very unpredictable, and there is nothing one can do to change the future	2.18	1.035
3. If something bad is going to happen to me, it will happen to me no matter what I do	2.04	.957
4. There is no sense in planning a lot; if something good is going to happen, it will	1.97	1.009
5. People die when it is their time to die and there is not much that can be done about it	2.85	1.266
6. I have learned that what is going to happen will happen	2.55	1.147
7. What happens to me in the future mostly depends on me	4.01	1.056
8. My life is determined by my own actions	3.98	1.083
9. I feel that when good things happen, they happen as a result of my own efforts	3.94	.985
10. When good things happen to people, it is because of good luck	2.61	.960
11. When I get what I want, it's usually because I am lucky	2.53	.954
12. The really good things that happen to me are mostly because of luck	2.25	.929
13. Some people are simply born lucky	2.62	1.082
14. How successful people are in their jobs is related to how lucky they are	2.53	1.081
Perceived risk of COVID-19 infection at public transport (How probable do you think is that you personally would be infected with Coronavirus when using the following modes (1: very low probability ~ 5: very high probability))		
Bus	4.35	.872
Subway	4.56	.795
Shared Taxi/Van	3.97	.964
Worry about COVID-19 infection at public transport (How worried do you become when thinking about the risk of getting infected when using the following modes of travel (1: a little worried, ~ 5: very worried))		
Bus	4.37	.948
Subway	4.46	.926
Shared Taxi/Van	4.08	1.010
Priority of COVID-19 prevention (Suppose that the university reopens next week. How important are the following aspects when you choose a transport mode on university travels (1: not important at all ~ 5: very important))		
Possibility of social distancing	4.09	1.145
Regular disinfection of transport facilities (e.g. seats onboard, waiting point, etc.)	4.11	1.207
Trust in public transport agencies (How much confidence do you have in the following authorities' abilities to take effective preventive measures to reduce the risk of Coronavirus infection (1: not confident at all ~ 5: very confident))		
Bus operation companies	2.44	1.188
Metro operation company	2.56	1.225
Shared Taxi operation companies	2.39	1.162
Demand for mitigating the risk of COVID-19 infection at public transport How important do you think it is that the authorities take measures to reduce the risk of Coronavirus infection when you use the following mode? (1: not important at all ~ 5: very important)		

389

390

391 **Dimensionality of fatalistic beliefs**

392 Results of the PCA analysis of the respondents' fatalistic beliefs are shown in Figure 2. The result of the
 393 KMO indicated that the sample met the requirements for PCA. A cut-off point of .4 was used to retain the
 394 items in the scale. As displayed in Table 2, the remaining loading factors were very significant. As
 395 suggested by the PCA analysis, luck, general fatalism, and Internality, respectively explained 25.7, 25.6,
 396 and 19.0 percent of the total variance in the data examined.

397

398 Table 2. Principal component analysis of fatalistic beliefs (KMO = 0.852)

	Components		
	Luck	General fatalism	Internality
10. When good things happen to people, it is because of good luck	.838		
14. How successful people are in their jobs is related to how lucky they are	.818		
11. When I get what I want, it's usually because I am lucky	.790		
12. The really good things that happen to me are mostly because of luck	.785		
13. Some people are simply born lucky	.771		
6. I have learned that what is going to happen will happen		.822	
3. If something bad is going to happen to me, it will happen to me no matter what I do		.771	
1. If bad things happen, it is because they were meant to happen		.769	
4. There is no sense in planning a lot; if something good is going to happen, it will		.713	
5. People die when it is their time to die and there is not much that can be done about it		.705	
2. Life is very unpredictable, and there is nothing one can do to change the future		.685	
8. My life is determined by my own actions			.933
7. What happens to me in the future mostly depends on me			.933
9. I feel that when good things happen, they happen as a result of my own efforts			.893

399

400 We used CFA analysis including covariances between the three components of luck, general fatalism, and
 401 Internality to confirm the dimensionality underlying the respondents' fatalistic beliefs. For each
 402 component, we included the related indicators resulted from the PCA. To enhance the fit of the model, the
 403 modification indices indicated covariance between the error terms for items five and six, 10 and 12, and
 404 also 13 and 14. Results of a CFA analysis of the respondents' fatalistic beliefs indicated an adequate fit of
 405 data into the three dimensions Chi-Square=148.051, DF=71, Chi-Square/DF=2.085, CFI=0.966,
 406 RMSEA=.063, (CI90%=.049, .078).

407 **Reliability of the latent variables**

408 Internal reliability and average corrected item-total correlations for the scales used in the study are shown
 409 in Table 3. The Cronbach's Alpha values for all the scales used in the analysis were interpreted to have
 410 either good (above .8) or excellent (above .9) reliability as suggested by George and Mallery (2003). The
 411 average corrected item-total correlation values were also greater than .4 which has been considered as a
 412 satisfactory threshold (Gliem and Gliem 2003).

413 Table 3. Internal reliability and average corrected item-total correlations for the scales used in the study

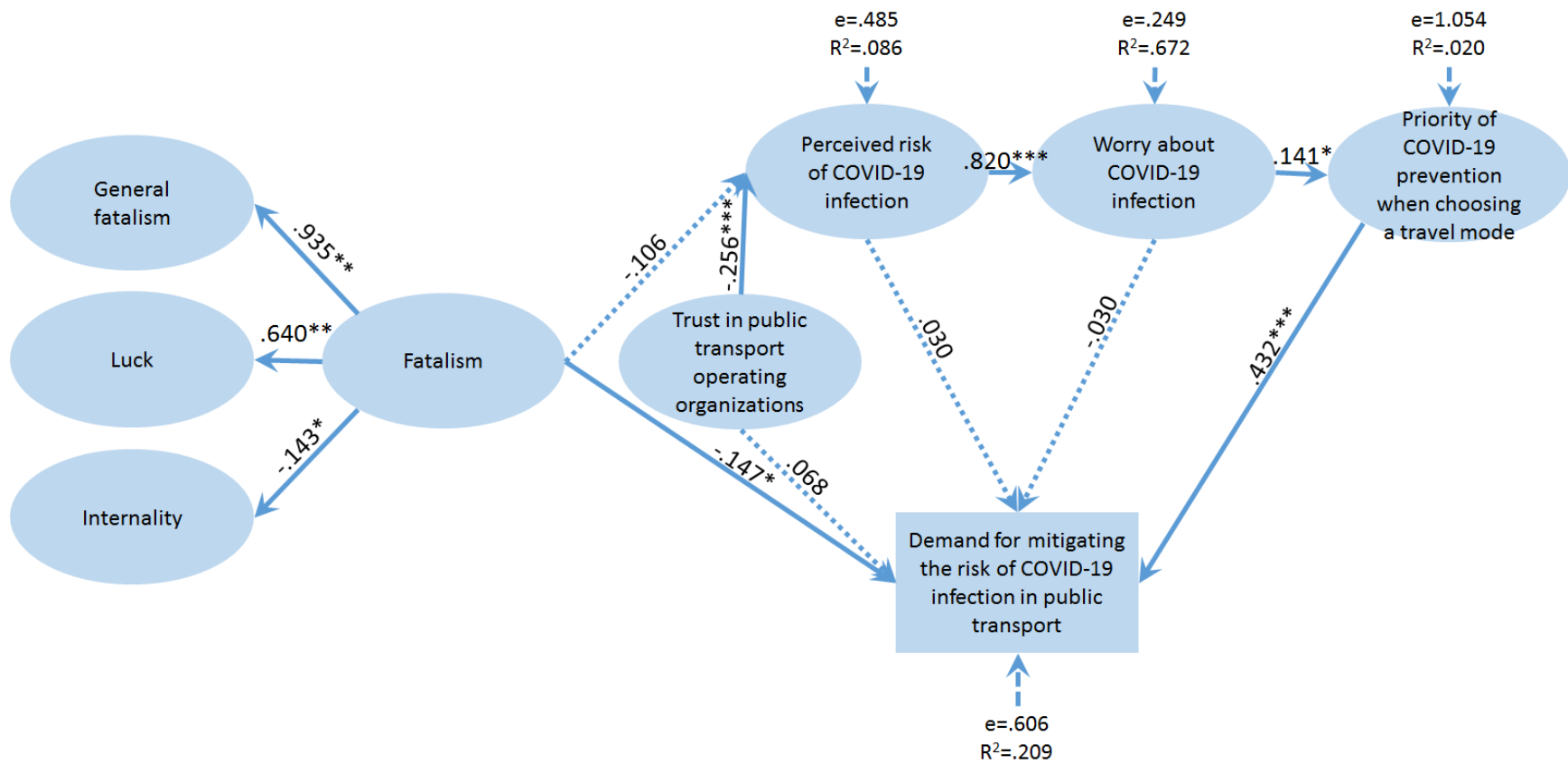
Dimension	Number of factors	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha	Average Corrected Item-Total Correlation
Fatalism	3			
General fatalism		6	.866	.671
Luck		5	.886	.728
Internality		3	.915	.831
Perceived risk of COVID-19 infection	1	3	.837	.704
Worry about COVID-19 infection	1	3	.911	.823
Trust in public transport agencies	1	3	.942	.880
Priorities of COVID-19 prevention when choosing a travel mode	1	2	.943	.893

414

415 **Prediction of demand for mitigating the risk of COVID-19 infection in public transport**

416 Figure 2 shows the results of the SEM model estimation, based on the hypothetical framework specified
 417 in Figure 1. The figure shows the standardized regression weights of the relationship between the
 418 variables. For brevity and a clear presentation of the model, indicators and their error terms are omitted
 419 from the figure. However, the figure depicts e and R^2 for the endogenous variables which represent the
 420 error variance and squared multiple correlation (explained variance), respectively.

421 The data showed a close fit between the data and the model framework Chi-Square=729.636, DF=283,
 422 Chi-Square/DF=2.578, CFI=.911, RMSEA=.076, (CI90%=.070, .083). Results showed that 20.9 percent
 423 of the variability in demand for mitigating the risk of COVID-19 infection at public transport can be
 424 explained through the proposed framework. The analysis confirmed a direct relationship between fatalism
 425 and demand for COVID-19 risk mitigation in public transport. However, trust in public transport agencies
 426 was shown to be indirectly associated with the demand, through mediating factors of perceived risk of
 427 COVID-19 infection, worry and priority of COVID-19 prevention when choosing a travel mode.



*** p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05

428

429

430 Figure 2. Results of structural equation modeling (Chi-Square=729.636, DF=283, Chi-Square/DF=2.578, CFI=.911, RMSEA=.076, (CI90%=.070,

431 .083), *** p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05, Dashed arrows indicate insignificant relationships p>.05)

432 **Discussion**

433 The present study investigated the role of fatalism and trust in experts (as two major information sources
434 in which people tend to rely when dealing with novel risk sources and the complexities underlying risk
435 management) in shaping people's COVID-19 risk perception and their demand for mitigating the risk of
436 disease infection in public transport. Risk perception was also hypothesised to be related to demand for
437 risk mitigation directly, or indirectly, through worry about infection in public transport and the priority of
438 infection prevention when choosing a travel mode. In line with these hypotheses the study found that
439 while fatalistic beliefs were directly related to more demand for mitigation of the disease risk in public
440 transport, trust in public transport authorities was indirectly related to demand of risk mitigation through
441 risk perception which could explain worry of disease transmission and priority of COVID-19 prevention
442 when using a travel mode.

443 Users' preferences and priorities are underlying motives and barriers for using a certain mode of transport
444 (e.g. public transport). To increase public transport use it is essential that both the quality and quantity of
445 the public transport services are tailored to meet the preferences and priorities of current and potential
446 future users (Beirão and Sarsfield Cabral 2007). For instance, Eboli and Mazzulla (2012) argued that
447 service availability, service reliability, comfort, cleanliness, safety and security, information, customer
448 care and environmental impacts are the aspects objectively characterizing bus services. However, travel
449 behaviour is not essentially influenced by only objective service levels, but also psychological factors
450 such as perceptions, attitudes and habits (Beirão and Sarsfield Cabral 2007).

451 At the onset of COVID-19, the disease infection turned to be a substantial and novel source of risk at
452 public transport, with unknown effects on people's responses. The infectivity of the virus was substantial
453 to the extent where pandemic-related risk perception and worries turned out to be a big concern, and
454 consequently a priority of avoiding virus transmission was introduced to the people's dominant
455 preferences when choosing a mode of travel (Abdullah et al. 2020). The present study found that the
456 respondents perceived a relatively high risk of COVID-19 virus infection, reported high levels of worries
457 when using public transport, and put avoidance of virus transmission as a top priority when selecting a
458 mode of travel. They also imposed a high demand on the authorities to mitigate the risk of COVID-19
459 infection in public transport.

460 Demand for risk mitigation is important for public transport usage for different reasons. First, in the case
461 the impact of a certain risk is perceived to be high and the public demand for risk mitigation remains
462 unaddressed by the relevant authorities, people may tend to use other alternatives which are perceived to
463 be of less risk (e.g. private car). Second, a higher demand for risk mitigation may be a prerequisite of
464 effective organizational policies related to risk reduction.

465 In much of the previous literature examining the link between risk perception, worry, priority of risk
466 reduction, and demand for risk mitigation in public transport, the major sources of risk addressed include
467 road crashes and security problems (see e.g. Nordfjærn and Rundmo 2018). This study is among the first
468 to shed light on people's perceptions of the infection risk and priorities of prevention, in line with
469 fatalistic beliefs and their trust in public transport agencies when using public transport at the start of the
470 COVID-19 pandemic. The study also contributed to the understanding of how these variables are
471 associated with the public's demand for COVID-19 risk mitigation in public transport. Interestingly, the
472 study has been conducted in Iran, a country where has been a major epicentre of the disease in the region
473 and worldwide at the time of data collection.

474 Results showed that people's higher confidence in the abilities of the public transport agencies to take
475 effective preventive measures to reduce the risk of COVID-19 infection was negatively associated with

476 the perceived probability of getting infected with Coronavirus when using public transport. In other
477 words, people may underestimate the risk of COVID-19 infection in public transport, when they trust the
478 public authorities to fulfil their duties of care to public transport users. The study found no indication that
479 risk perception is a significant predictor of people's willingness to act on COVID-19 relief in public
480 transport. However, the study found that a weak perception of COVID-19 infection risk was strongly
481 related to less worry about COVID-19 infection in public transport, which in turn (and in line with
482 previous literature such as Nordfjærn et al. (2021)) may lead people to place less importance on COVID-
483 19 infection as a priority when choosing public transport and consequently demand less risk mitigation
484 efforts to prevent COVID-19 infection in public transport. Interestingly, this finding could be conflicting
485 with the fact that public trust in government is key to policy acceptance and support, particularly during
486 pandemic times. A similar paradox of trust has also been observed by Wong and Jensen (2020) where
487 they observed that in spite of a high level of public trust in the government low levels of the perceived
488 risk of COVID-19 resulted in low general compliance with the government's risk management measures.
489 This may be still a valid observation for other risk sources such as natural hazards. For instance,
490 Wachinger et al. (2013) argued that trust in management performance may lessen the perception of flood
491 likelihood and magnitude which in turn reduces people's willingness and preparedness actions.

492 The study has been conducted in Iran which is a religious country. Nonetheless, and in contrast to the
493 studies that have found a link between religion and fatalistic beliefs (e.g. Ruiu (2013)), fatalism was not
494 found to be a dominant mindset in the sample. This finding could be attributed to the fact that the sample
495 was established among university students. High education and knowledge may be correlated and hence,
496 the respondents may express lower levels of fatalistic beliefs (Elias and Shiftan 2012). Analysis of the
497 fatalistic beliefs, however, confirmed the dimensionality of the scale validated by McIlroy et al. (2020).

498 Dissimilar to trust in public transportation agencies that appeared to be directly associated with perception
499 of the risk of COVID-19 infection in public transport, the study showed that fatalistic beliefs are not
500 linked to risk perception. An insignificant relationship between fatalistic beliefs and risk perception has
501 been supported by previous studies (see e.g. Turner (2021)). However, dissimilar to trust in public
502 transport agencies, the current study found that higher fatalistic beliefs were directly associated with less
503 demand for risk mitigation. This finding must be interpreted in the context that the sample was obtained
504 among university students where they scored relatively high on internality and lower in luck and general
505 fatalism. Nonetheless, the lower levels of general fatalism and luck and higher levels of internality were
506 shown to still be associated with lower levels of demand for risk mitigation in public transport.
507 Interestingly, the findings are in line with a recent study suggesting that internality and luck are
508 respectively positively and negatively associated with people's adherence to COVID-19 sanitary
509 protocols (Nordfjaern, Mehdizadeh, and Fallah Zavareh 2021).

510 **Limitations of the study**

511 The present study was conducted among a sample of university students, testing the hypothetical
512 framework of the study. Nevertheless, the results should be cautiously interpreted because of the likely
513 differences between the sample and the general population in attributes such as age, education, marital
514 status, employment status, level of income, etc. Such differences may account for further differences in
515 fatalism, risk perception and trust between the sample and the general population.

516 Since the time when the COVID-19 outbreak was officially declared in Iran, almost all the universities
517 shut down and online classes replaced conventional teaching. For this reason, an online survey was
518 decided to be used in the current study. Sampling bias and external validity of data are potential concerns
519 associated with online web-based surveys (Braithwaite et al. 2003). In the present study it was not

520 possible to calculate a response rate and the representativeness of the sample is unknown. Despite these
521 limitations online sampling is still a widely used method in transportation research.

522 Data were collected during the first wave of the pandemic in Iran. Future studies are needed to monitor
523 gradual changes in the importance of COVID-19 concerns in public transport, priorities for taking
524 preventive measures, and people's demand for infection risk reduction in public transport, during the next
525 waves or in the aftermath. For instance, the strengths of different associations between the variables in
526 this study may alter during the course of COVID-19 normalisation process and in the aftermath,
527 particularly due to COVID-19 measures such as mass vaccination. That is also true as a result of likely
528 lowered levels of risk perception due to people's gradual learning of how to avoid the disease by adhering
529 to personal preventive measures.

530 The underlying assumption in this study was that the sample size was adequate for the statistical
531 procedures undertaken. In generalisation of the findings, it is, however, noted that different user segments
532 within the sample (according to socio-economic variables, cultural factors and transport use) may
533 manifest different perceptions, beliefs and priorities. Particularly, the sample included relatively more
534 female respondents than male respondents. This may be an issue when generalising the findings, since
535 females tend to judge involuntary risks as being more likely and having a greater impact than males
536 (Brown, Largey, and McMullan 2021). Compared to males, females also tend to express less optimism
537 (Fallah Zavareh, Mohamadi Hezaveh, and Nordfjærn 2018) as well as different levels of fatalism.
538 Examining the robustness of the results in different user segments is out of the scope of the present study
539 and could be subject of further research.

540 Finally, it is noted that generalisation of the findings to other socio-cultural contexts should be undertaken
541 cautiously, as the results may be influenced by the specific contextual situations and cultural
542 environments in which the data were obtained. While the present study showed a relatively low level of
543 trust in public transport agencies, respondents from other countries may demonstrate lower or higher
544 levels of trust in public transport. The citizens' level of trust in the public sector is deeply rooted in a
545 broader system of trust culture which is composed of social rules, norms and values (Sobiech 2016).
546 Similarly, communities' cultural differences in fatalistic beliefs might result in different levels of risk
547 perception (Şimşekoğlu et al. 2013; Nordfjærn et al. 2014).

548 **Conclusions**

549 The recovery of the decline in public transportation use due to COVID-19 requires the authorities to
550 address people's demand for mitigation of the risk of disease transmission in public transport. The present
551 study underlined the role of trust in authorities' risk handling and fatalistic beliefs on people's demand for
552 risk reduction.

553 Trust in authorities (particularly during crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic) is a prerequisite to build
554 social integration and to ensure that preventive and health advices from the authorities will be considered
555 by the people. Nevertheless, trust may also have a deteriorating effect on the way people perceive the risk.
556 Such undermining effects stem from the fact that due to the unknown nature and complexities of COVID-
557 19 as a novel source of risk, along with the absence of reliable information especially at the onset of the
558 pandemic, people's reliance on experts and institutions may cause them to underestimate the risk of
559 infection at public transport, which in turn may result in a lowered priority of COVID-19 prevention in
560 public transport when selecting a mode of transport, and consequently lead to less demand for risk
561 mitigation.

562 The current study demonstrated that people's confidence that the authorities are able to take
563 effective preventive measures to reduce the risk of Coronavirus in public transport was relatively
564 weak. The study also found that higher trust in public transport authorities was associated with
565 lower risk perception. This finding, however, does not prescribe a lowered trust in authorities
566 with the aim to increase risk perception for increased demand for risk mitigation in public
567 transport. Rather, both risk perception and trust in authorities are key elements (and should be
568 elevated) to increase people's compliance with health policies and protective protocols, and
569 hence could be considered in effective risk communication strategies. Promotion of risk
570 reduction behaviours through risk communication programmes, targeted to change people's
571 perceptions of risk, requires that people trust the authorities' competencies in the first place.

572 In more pragmatic terms, it is necessary that the authorities design and implement effective risk
573 communication programmes related to their efforts in implementing protective measures in
574 public transport (such as social distancing). . Cultivating trust in the authorities is a necessity in
575 every effective risk communication program. At the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, a lack of
576 evidence-based, objective information about the disease infection and how to prevent it in public
577 transport was a barrier to trust building. This barrier could be overcome by other trust building
578 substituents including enhancing transparency of the authorities during decision making and
579 practice, and formation of the belief that the authorities have good intentions and aim to elevate
580 public health. However, more recent risk communication programmes can benefit from the
581 progressive accumulation of scientific evidence regarding the pathogenicity and virulence of the
582 disease to make a scientific estimation of the risk of infection in public transport as a trust
583 building endeavour. Such evidence-based information prevents other sources such as rumours,
584 speculation, or misinformation to shape the considerations of the public. However, caution is
585 required that the trust-building initiatives do not give the audiences the false impression that the
586 infectivity and virulence of COVID-19 have been reduced as a result of conducting preventive
587 measures in public transport by the authorities, but it is also the individuals' social responsibility
588 to adhere to various health protocols and requirements when using public transport. Particularly,
589 the authorities may exploit public trust resources for more effective risk communication, as
590 people with higher levels of social trust may rely more on the information they are provided by
591 the responsible organizations and this may elicit more fear of COVID-19 infection in public
592 transport.

593 While strong beliefs in luck and general fatalism showed to undermine or decline the public demand for
594 COVID-19 risk mitigation (as a driver of effective organizational performance in risk management
595 policies and procedures in public transport), internality beliefs were shown to reinforce people's demand
596 for mitigating the risk of COVID-19 in public transport. This is also a concern in developing effective risk
597 communication programmes, because in the lack of reliable information communicated and with a weak
598 trust in the authorities people may tend to rely on other sources of information such as fatalistic beliefs.
599 Therefore, from a practical standpoint, fatalistic beliefs are crucial in effective risk communication
600 practices designed to enhance public support for COVID-19 risk mitigation in public transport. In these
601 efforts people could be sensitised to understand that it is not about fate, chance or luck that could enable
602 the practitioners to systematically control the spread of COVID-19 in public transport, but rather about
603 implementation of policies and programmes with proven effectiveness, and that public support of risk
604 mitigation policies reinforces the implementation of such effective risk reduction measures.

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828 **APPENDIX I (Questionnaire)**

829 1- General Information

830 1-1- Gender (Male , Female)

831 1-2- Year of birth:

832 1-3- Education level ((Bachelor student , Master student , Doctorate student , Other)

833 1-4- How many days a week do you travel to university in an ordinary week, according to your
834 class schedule? (None , One , Two , Three , four , five , six)

835

836 2- The way I usually travel

837 2-1- Which one was the most frequent mode of travel the last time you ordinarily commuted to the
838 campus, before the Coronavirus outbreak? (In the case you used multiple modes, select the one
839 you spent more time in).

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| Bus <input type="checkbox"/> | Subway <input type="checkbox"/> | Taxi/Van <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Your own/your family Private Car <input type="checkbox"/> | Your own/ your family Motorcycle <input type="checkbox"/> | Bicycle <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Walking <input type="checkbox"/> | Carpooling with friends <input type="checkbox"/> | Carpooling with family <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Others <input type="checkbox"/> | | |

840

841 3- My risk assessment

842 3-1- How probable do you think is that you personally would be infected with Coronavirus when
843 using the following means of transport?

Travel mode	Probability Level				
	very low probability	low probability	neither/nor	High probability	very high probability
Walking	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bicycle	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Private Car	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Motorcycle	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bus	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Subway	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Shared Van/Taxi	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

844

845 3-2- How worried do you become when thinking about the risk of getting infected by the
846 Coronavirus when you travel to campus by any of the following modes of transport? (Please
847 provide an answer for all modes)

848

Travel mode	Worry Level				
	1 (A little worried)	2	3 (neither/nor)	4	5 (Very worried)
Walking	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bicycle	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Private Car	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Motorcycle	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bus	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Subway	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Van/Taxi	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

849

850 4- What is important when using transport?
 851 4-1- Suppose that the university reopens next week. How important are the following aspects when
 852 you choose a transport mode on university travels? (In the case you use multiple modes,
 853 consider the mode on which you spend more time).

Aspects	Not important at all	Little important	neither/nor	Important	Very important
1. Little delay	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Travel costs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Travel comfort	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Good availability to the transportation mode (short distance)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Fast transport	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Safety towards accidents	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Security against thefts	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Environmentally friendly transport	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Available seats	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Physical activity/exercise	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Possibility of social distancing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Regular disinfection of transport facilities (e.g. seats onboard, waiting point etc.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

854
 855 5- About authorities
 856 5-1- How important do you think it is that the authorities take measures to reduce the risk of
 857 Coronavirus infection when you use:

Travel mode	Importance Level				
	1 (Not important all)	2	3 (Neither/Nor)	4	5 (Very important)
Public transport (Bus, Subway, Van, Taxi)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Private means of transport (Private car, Motorcycle, Moped)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

858
 859 5-2- How much confidence do you have in the following authorities' abilities to take effective
 860 preventive measures to reduce the risk of Coronavirus infection?

Travel mode	Confidence Level				
	1 (Not confident at all)	2	3 (Neither/Nor)	4	5 (Very confident)
Bus operation companies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Metro operation company	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Taxi operation companies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Road authorities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Politicians/policymakers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

861 6- Fatalistic beliefs

862 6-1- To what extent do you agree or disagree with these statements in general?

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither/Nor	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. If bad things happen, it is because they were meant to happen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Life is very unpredictable, and there is nothing one can do to change the future	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. If something bad is going to happen to me, it will happen to me no matter what I do	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. There is no sense in planning a lot; if something good is going to happen, it will	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. People die when it is their time to die and there is not much that can be done about it	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. I have learned that what is going to happen will happen	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. What happens to me in the future mostly depends on me	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. My life is determined by my own actions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. I feel that when good things happen, they happen as a result of my own efforts	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. When good things happen to people, it is because of good luck	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. When I get what I want, it's usually because I am lucky	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. The really good things that happen to me are mostly because of luck	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Some people are simply born lucky	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. How successful people are in their jobs is related to how lucky they are	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

863