The Personal and Situational Factors Influencing Decision-making by Long-haul Travellers' in Relation to Crime-risk: An Empirical Investigation

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Abstract

The world tourism industry has been expanding rapidly over the last few decades and is now one of the world's largest industries. Factors such as increased disposable income, increased leisure time, early retirement, transportation and technology improvements, and changes in consumer spending preferences have contributed to this growth.

One of the growing trends in the world tourism industry has been the recent increase in the popularity of long-haul travel (World Tourism Organisation, 2002). When making decisions about long-haul travel destinations, consumers are influenced by numerous factors such as personal factors (i.e. demographics), situational factors (i.e. previous travel experience), and the attributes of the destination itself (i.e. personal safety and security). Consumers furthermore consult information sources (i.e. travel guidebooks) and a number of travel-safety research sources (i.e. government travel advisories) to reassure them that the destination will be a safe choice. While at the destination, travellers then implement crime-safety precautions (i.e. avoiding going out at night) to reduce the risk of becoming a victim of crime.

The purpose of this study is to examine the influence of personal and situational factors on long-haul travellers' decisions to travel to various destinations in terms of crime-risk. A theoretical model of the long-haul travel decision-making process, including personal and situational factors, was used as a framework for the study. Independent variables were examined, including long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception levels, past holiday-crime encounters, gender, age, social class and education. Dependent variables included several stages of the long-haul decision-making process namely the extent of travel information search (including unstructured and directed), the degree of travel-safety research, and the use of crime-safety precautions (including avoidance and reduction precautions). Several hypotheses were formulated regarding the statistical relationships between the various independent and dependent variables.

During November 2002, mail surveys were sent to a random sample of 5,000 individuals throughout the United Kingdom. The sample was drawn from the database of a London-based tour operator and included individuals who had previously been on holiday to a long-haul destination. Survey questions aimed to determine the extent of previous long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception levels of 20 long-haul destinations, information and travel-safety sources consulted, crime-safety precautions utilised, and demographic information about the respondents. Five hundred and forty-eight usable surveys were returned and were used to collect data for the study. Non-response bias was tested by means of follow-up telephonic interviews.

Respondents were mostly older than 35, well educated, professionals and 97% were citizens of the United Kingdom. All 548 respondents had been on a long-haul holiday between 1990 and 2002. The results indicate that long-haul travellers had low perceptions of safety in Jamaica, Brazil and South Africa. The countries that were perceived to be safe included New Zealand, Canada and Australia. Results of the additional analysis found that there was a relationship between visitation and crime-risk perceptions. Respondents who had previously visited a long-haul destination had higher perceptions of crime-safety than those who had not visited the destination. Individuals made extensive use of travel guidebooks as information and travel-safety research sources during long-haul travel decision-making. When compared to several empirical tourism-crime studies, the study findings were generally consistent.

Overall, findings suggest that personal and situational factors such as previous long-haul travel experience and crime-risk perception levels affect the extent of the long-haul traveller's involvement in the various stages of travel decision-making. The study concluded that research about how crime-risk perceptions affect long-haul travel decision-making is invaluable with regard to increasing knowledge of the relationship between safety and security, and tourist consumer behaviour. Such findings could assist tourism authorities and law enforcement agencies to devise strategies and crime prevention measures that will work towards increasing perceptions of safety for the expanding long-haul international travel market. It is imperative that Destination Marketing Organisations

(DMO's) be aware of perceptions and images held by the travelling public. By and large a greater understanding of tourists' perceptions and attitudes will aid destination marketing strategies.

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List of Abbreviations

AH&MA	American Hotel and Motel Association
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
BCS	British Crime Survey
BNTS	British National Travel Survey
CCTV	closed circuit television
CPTED	crime prevention through environmental design
CTT	Cape Town Tourism
DEA&T	Department of Environment Affairs & Tourism (South Africa)
DEDT	Department of Economic Development and Tourism (Western Cape)
DMOs	Destination Marketing Organisations
DVT	deep vein thrombosis
FIT	Free and Independent Traveller
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
Interpol	International Criminal Police Organisation
JIC-NARS	Joint Industry Committee for National Readership Surveys
NTSSP	National Tourism Safety and Security Plan
SAPS	South African Police Services
SARS	severe acute respiratory syndrome
SAT	South African Tourism
TIC	Tourist Information Centre
TSF	Tourism Safety Forum

UKTS	United Kingdom Travel Survey
VFM	value for money
VFR	Visiting friends and relatives
WCTB	Western Cape Tourism Board
WTO	World Tourism Organisation
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

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1 Introduction

The travel and tourism industry, consisting of activities in the sectors of transport, accommodation, catering and visitor attractions is one of the most significant in terms of employment and visibility. According to some estimates such as those provided by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO), global tourism is projected to be a $7.2 trillion industry, providing about 338 million jobs by 2005.[1] In 2001 international tourist arrivals amounted to 693 million and this figure, does not even include many more domestic visitors who are tourists within their own country. Tourism between countries has grown more than twentyfold since 1950 (WTO, 1997a). The WTO forecasts that there will be one billion international arrivals in the year 2010 and that international arrivals will reach 1.6 billion by 2020. This is nearly three times the number of international trips made in 1996 which amounted to 592 million (WTO, 1998). These statistics are impressive even when taking into account the problems of obtaining accurate statistics comparable across nations.

The WTO defines international tourists as those tourists who remain in a country for at least twenty-four hours (WTO, 1978). The WTO's definition includes people who visit in search of leisure and those engaged in business, since these two categories often coincide. It is intrinsic to the definition that both groups are financed from outside the host country. Workers commuting across local borders from nearby countries and visiting nationals who normally live abroad, are not usually included in these statistics.

Holiday travel has become increasingly popular during the second half of the twentieth century. This is the result of factors such as increased leisure time, disposable income and technology processes, which have freed the movements of money and people. In addition, early retirement, improvements in destination infrastructure and changes in consumer behaviour preferences have contributed to this phenomenon.

[1] www.world-tourism.org/market_research/facts&figures/latest_data.htm

One of the characteristics of this growth in international tourism includes the increased number of people travelling to long-haul destinations. The WTO forecast that one out of every three trips will be a long-haul journey to other regions of the world. This translates into an increase from 24 per cent in 1995 to 35 per cent of all international traffic arrivals by the year 2020 (WTO, 1997b). According to the WTO (1998), the 21st century will see a higher percentage of the total population travelling, especially in developing countries. People will also be going on holidays more often, sometimes two, three or four times a year.

Long-haul travel[2] is not a new phenomenon. However, it is becoming increasingly popular for United Kingdom (UK) citizens and leisure travel outside of Europe is now commonplace (2001a: 1). One notable feature of long-haul travel has been its continued growth (Bowen, 2001; Mintel, 2001a; Muller, 1998; Yale, 1995). According to a Mintel 'Long-haul Holidays' report, an estimated 7.3 million long-haul holidays were sold to British travellers in 2000, representing 18 per cent of the overall holiday market (Mintel, 2001a). The British traveller has a strong desire to travel to long-haul destinations and are twice as likely to visit faraway destinations than Germans, Americans or Japanese (Mintel, 2001a: 9). Because of the distance of destinations, long-haul travel entails different decision-making processes as prospective travellers rely on images, perceptions and travel information sources. Studies show that long distance travellers have different requirements and behavioural characteristics from people holidaying closer to home (Muller, 1998).

It is well known that the impacts of the travel and tourism industry are not confined to economics. As a result of the sheer number of tourists travelling, tourism has an effect on natural and built environments as well as local infrastructures. Furthermore, their mere presence has an enormous impact on the sociocultural environment of the destination region as they visit the tourist product or the site of consumption. Tourism is a double-edged sword – it can be a potential blessing or it can be a blight (Young, 1973). As Mathieson & Wall (1982: 3) note, the unprecedented growth of tourism has resulted in an

[2] Long-haul travel for the purpose of this study is defined as travel of six hours flying time or more, or travel to destinations outside of Europe.

increase in economic, environmental and social effects. Along with potential economic benefits of tourism, the industry can also incur negative consequences and costs, for instance, economic impacts such as lost opportunities to other industries; environmental impacts including degradation of natural resources; and sociocultural impacts such as increases in prostitution and crime rates, commercialisation of culture and changing social norms and values.

As tourism is characterised by intangible features, perceptions and attitudes become increasingly important to the destination marketer. It is therefore important to be aware of perceptions and images of destinations held by the travelling public in order to ascertain how tourists position destinations on important attributes and what attributes are most important to them. Only then can the destination marketer look to control, create or change public perception and attitudes held about a destination. It is, therefore, interesting to determine how holidaymakers select their long-haul holiday destination and investigate which factors determine their choice.

The explosion of domestic and international tourism has also heightened concerns regarding safety and security of travellers for many governments and their travel and tourism industries. Countries such as the United States of America (USA) and the UK warn their travellers of safety and security issues in various hotspots around the world through government travel advisories. As Cockerell (1999: 78) points out, safety and security, which includes crime and concerns regarding terrorist attacks, is the number one issue amongst US travellers abroad. Some believe that this issue could even cause a shrinking of outbound travel demand over the next ten years by Americans. Peace, safety and security are therefore primary conditions for tourism development of a destination region. Without them, destinations cannot compete successfully in today's competitive global marketplace.

1. The impact of crime on international tourism

Although crimes against tourists seem to affect the perception of safety of almost everyone who travels, it is not a new phenomenon (Tarlow & Muehsam, 1996) and there has always been a risk associated with travelling. In the past crime was considered to be part and parcel of travel. Travel was difficult and risky, and a robbery, a stagecoach hold-up or even a mugging was more often than not taken as part of the price for adventure (Eco, 1983: 79). However, the threat posed by *tourism-oriented crime*[3] is relatively new and dates back to the 1970s.

Crime and threat to personal safety pose a challenge to the travel and tourism industry at present. If potential travellers perceive a destination to be unsafe and a risk to one's well being, then an alternative destination is likely to be considered. Crime risk has indeed been identified as a major concern for international travellers (Yavas, 1990). The perceived threat of crime is therefore a potential obstacle to international holiday travel. Crime is perhaps more insidious than terrorism as news reports and continuing media coverage of crimes against tourists at tourist destinations can deter individuals from choosing to travel to a particular country, city or destination. Evidence from many parts of the world suggests that safety and security are a necessary condition for a prosperous tourism industry (Pizam, Tarlow & Bloom, 1997, 23). Irrespective of why people travel, safety is a primary requirement (Santana, 1998). Some of the more publicised occurrences of violent acts involving tourists, either as specific targets or incidental victims, include destinations that are plagued by crime and have the reputation of being dangerous to visit such as Rio de Janeiro, Brazil; Manila, Philippines; Miami, Florida; Johannesburg, South Africa and others.

Along with media accounts of crimes against tourists at various tourism destinations, there has been a growing interest in the phenomenon by tourism crime researchers during the last few decades. A number of researchers have been interested in whether crime and

[3] Throughout this study, the term *tourism-oriented crime* is used to denote crime committed by locals against tourists

safety problems at tourist destinations have an impact on tourism demand. Research has also focused more specifically on tourist victimisation at certain destinations. Table 1. illustrates these tourism crime studies conducted at various global destinations.

Table 1. Tourist-oriented crime research at various worldwide destinations (1982–2002).

Location	*Source/study*
Australia	Allen, 1999; Walmsley, Boskovic & Pigram, 1983; Kelly, 1993, Prideaux, 1996; Prideaux & Dunn, 1995
Barbados	de Albuquerque & McElroy, 1999
Florida, USA	McPeters & Stronge, 1974; Milman & Pizam, 1988; Schiebler, Crotts & Hollinger, 1996
Hawaii, USA	Chesney-Lind & Lind, 1986, Fujii & Mak, 1979, 1980
Mexico	Jud, 1975
New Orleans, USA	Harper, 1983; Demos, 1992; Dimanche & Lepetic, 1999
New Zealand	Barker, 2000, Barker, Page & Meyer, 2002, 2003
South Africa	Bloom, 1996; Ferreira, 1999; George, 2003a; Kathrada, Burger & Dohnal, 1999
Thailand	Cohen, 1987, 1996

Although crime is one risk of tourism, the act of travelling entails a multitude of health and safety-related events that impact upon a tourist's wellbeing. Walker & Page (2003) devised a continuum of health and safety incidents (figure 1). At one end of the spectrum there are a range of minor accidents such as falls, slips. These accidents are large in volume, but usually not major in effect as they are not life threatening. At the other end of the spectrum are a very small number of very profound events that may only affect a limited number of tourists, for example, terrorism events and outbreak of fire. These incidents are usually media worthy, creating negative images of destinations and directly affect the tourism industry in terms of visitor numbers. The dotted arrow in figure 1 illustrates the potential increasing negative impact of such events on the tourism industry. The more severe the event, the greater the negative impact on the destination or region's tourism industry. In brief, four categories of tourism safety and security problems can be identified, namely:

(i) accidents ranging from slips and falls to car accidents, which are high in frequency yet low in severity and impact,

(ii) food and health hazards, which are low to moderate in severity and moderate to high in scale,

(iii) crimes, which are moderate to high in severity and moderate to low in scale, and

(iv) natural disasters such as an earthquake, tropical cyclones, and flooding, which are low in frequency yet high in severity and impact.

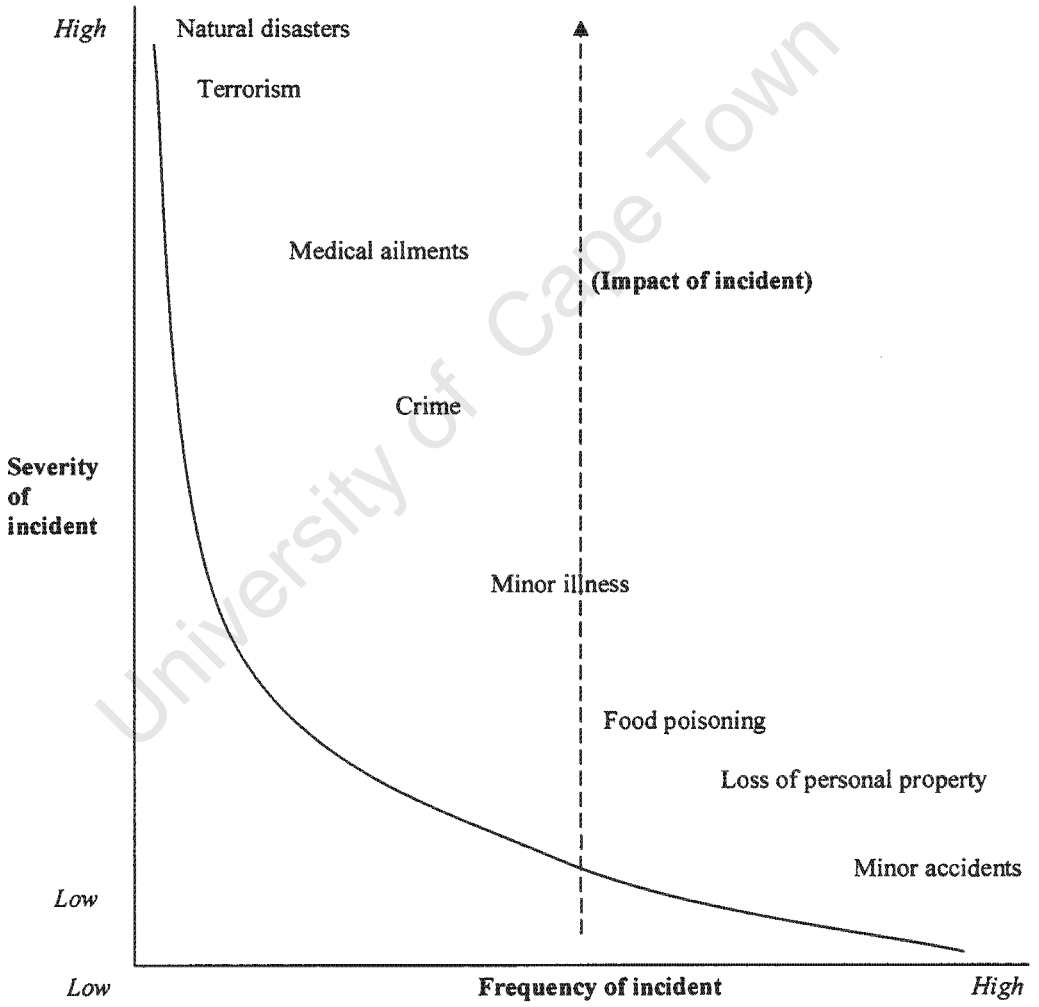

Figure 1. The tourist health and safety continuum: Severity, frequency and impact of incidents. (Based on Walker & Page, 2003: 222).

In a think-tank conference on safety and security issues in the global tourism and hospitality industry, Olsen & Pizam (1999) pointed out that crime is a function of major social problems evident in society and is expected to grow as a threat to the traveller. This is particularly so in those destinations which experience a gap between the economic and information "haves" and "have-nots" in the world (Olsen & Pizam, 1999: 1). In essence, crime will continue to escalate as the gap between those with wealth and those who desire it continues and as international travel increases.

Tourists are, after all, regarded as easy targets and are as such particularly vulnerable to criminal victimisation. Theft, which may be accompanied by murder to deter identification, is a direct attack on the victim in order to obtain his or her possessions. It is also often a crime of opportunity. Tourists carry large sums of money and other forms of portable wealth such as cameras and jewellery (Chesney-Lind & Lind, 1986: 178). In local eyes, the traveller is (comparatively) a rich and easy target because he or she is not familiar with the area, his or her body language, and other behavioural cues (Smith & Brent, 2001). Tourists also engage in activities that may facilitate their victimisation, for instance risk-taking activities such as travelling in remote and unfamiliar areas or frequenting nightclubs and bars at late hours. Uzzell (1984) suggests that risk-taking behaviour is an important element of fantasy and escape, which are central to the holiday experience. Poon (1993) states that one of the characteristics of the New Tourist is the need to take more risk.

The dangers and risk involved in travel are evident. Cases of terrorist threats during 2001-2003, for example, and the consequent withdrawal of international travel following 11 September 2001, clearly demonstrate the importance of safety and security. The latter event had massive economic repercussions on the travel and tourism industry and other sectors of the economy in the United States of America. The terror attacks had a negative impact on the hotel industry, outbound tourism and the US stock market. Increased security measures were taken at most tourism and leisure establishments and government organisations across the country (Goodrich, 2001; Pizam, 2002). Today, there is an increasing tendency for consumers to become risk-takers when choosing where to go on holiday.

There are many factors which influence where tourists choose to go on holiday. One such factor is the safety or the perceived safety of a destination. Tourists do not want to be worried about the possibility of physical or property crime while on holiday. Consequently, tourists are most likely to choose a destination where risks to safety are perceived to be minimal (WTO, 1997b). As Pizam notes, leisure tourism is a discretionary activity, and most tourists will not spend their hard-earned money to go to a destination where their safety and well being will be in jeopardy (1996: 1). This notion can also be extended to other types of tourism such as business, education, sports and events which can be affected by adverse effects associated with the absence of safety and security at a destination. Safety and security are thus prerequisites for prosperous tourism. Crick (1989: 14) claimed that there are six 'S's at the core of a tourist destination's appeal: sun, sand, sea, servility, sights and sex. Richter & Waugh (1986: 234) added a seventh, namely, security, which they view as being even more crucial to attract tourists.

Destinations that have been considered ultra-safe or free from safety and security risks may no longer enjoy that reputation. The ease with which information, correct or incorrect, can now be disseminated around the world exacerbates the situation. As an example, there was a disturbing report in the *New Zealand Herald* that New Zealand now has the second highest violent crime rate after South Africa. This report was available on the Internet for the whole world to see. Despite being untrue, it may cause significant damage to New Zealand's reputation as a peaceful, safe tourism destination (Cockerell, 1999: 78). Crimes against tourists make newsworthy reading and sell newspapers. When tourists become victims of crime, reports in the media result and ultimately people cancel their holiday plans. Destinations that gain notoriety as crime hotspots are likely to experience difficulty in retaining their tourism industry (Prideaux, 1996: 59). Ultimately the image of the destination following criminal incidents can have a detrimental impact on the inbound tourist market. To counter this, an intensive public relations campaign by destination marketers is required.

Concerns for crime and safety, whether real or perceived, can directly influence consumer behaviour, destination choice and satisfaction with the experience (Edgell, 1990; Goodrich,

1991; Richter & Waugh, 1986). When concerns for well-being are perceived to be disproportionate, travellers cancel, postpone or choose alternative travel destinations that involve less risk (Demos, 1992; Goodrich, 1991; Pinhey & Iverson, 1994; Pizam, 1999; Pizam & Mansfeld, 1996; WTO, 1997b; Sonmez & Graefe 1998a). As Sonmez & Graefe note, "the reasons why travellers avoid certain destinations is as relevant to the study of tourist decision-making as are the reasons why they choose to travel to other destinations" (1998a: 171). For those that continue with their travel plans, tourists often modify their behaviour while at the destination in response to risk and to the point where their travel experience is significantly impaired (Edgell, 1993).

2. Theoretical research context: Holiday travel decision-making involving risk

Consumer and tourist decision-making models and theories of risky decision-making form the basis of this study. Several paradigms of decision-making were integrated and then adjusted in order to reflect decisions involving property and physical crime-risk.

Generic models of consumer behaviour (Nicosia, 1966; Howard & Sheth, 1969) have been adapted by tourism researchers who have recognised that models are a useful tool for planning and co-ordinating research studies (Ankomah, Crompton & Baker, 1996; Crompton, 1992; Moutinho, 1987; Pitts & Woodside, 1986; Schmoll, 1977; Um & Crompton, 1992; van Raaij & Francken, 1984; Wahab, Crampon & Rothfield, 1976; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989). In general the basic components of these destination choice models include:

- a tourist's sociodemographic background (age, income, etc.)
- marketing variables (the 4 P's: product, price, promotion and place)
- destination-related attributes (attractions, destination features)
- awareness (availability of travel information)

One of the earliest attempts to devise a model of the purchase decision process in tourism

was the one put forward by Wahab, Crampon & Rothfield (1976). Their model sees the tourism purchase as an activity involving conscious planning and a logical thought process. The researchers suggested that the buying decisions of tourists present several unique aspects, for instance:

(a) there is no tangible return on investment;
(b) expenditure is considerable;
(c) purchases are not usually spontaneous; and
(d) expenditure involves saving and pre-planning.

Tourists, therefore, will expect no tangible or economic return on their purchase of an intangible satisfaction. However, Wahab, Crampon & Rothfield (1976: 76) stress that this makes tourists all the more susceptible to being disappointed. Holiday travel is an experience, characterised by being essentially intangible. It is produced and consumed at the same time, and is heterogeneous by nature. Such characteristics mean that that it is very difficult for consumers to judge the potential quality of the experience they will gain when they purchase the tourism product-offering. Tourist products are furthermore particularly complex because they exist at two different levels, namely:

- The package holiday which is a combination of the products and individual sectors such as accommodation, transport, destinations and attractions
- The products of the aforementioned individual sectors

In this study, the emphasis will be on the former, as it is the product which distinguishes the tourism industry from other industries such as the transport and the hospitality industry. A traveller's holiday destination decision is a complex process involving numerous factors. These factors include an individual's perceptions, previous travel experience, motivation, information search, attitudes and intentions. Travellers are likely to spend considerable time and effort on holiday planning, i.e. deciding where to go, the mode of travel and the cost (Goodhall & Ashworth, 1988; van Raaij & Franchen, 1984).

Schmoll's model (1977) is the second most widely quoted model of the travel decision process. Schmoll's descriptive framework is derived from the Howard & Sheth (1969) and Nicosia (1966) models of consumer behaviour. Schmoll's model is based upon the following premises:

1. The decision process and its eventual outcome are influenced by four sets of variables, namely consumer goals, travel opportunities, communications effort, and intervening or independent variables
2. It is possible to identify these sets of variables and their individual components
3. The eventual decision is, in fact, the result of a distinct process involving several successive stages

The Schmoll model of travel purchase behaviour thus suggests that buying decisions are the result of the interaction of four fields of influence, which are both internal and external to the tourist. The model also stresses the important effect the tourist's own perceptions have on final purchase decision. Schmoll's (1977) model cannot be used for predication, but it can be used as a diagnostic tool. The real value of Schmoll's travel decision process model is that it indicates where marketing action can be used to influence the decision process. Another advantage is that it pays attention to constraints and their impact on the decision-making process (Schmoll, 1977: 60).

Another widely quoted model is the one presented by Mathieson & Wall (1982), who devised a travel buying behaviour model involving five stages. These stages are outlined in figure 2 below.

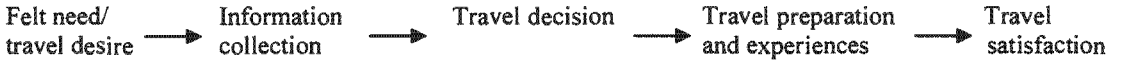

Figure 2. The Mathieson & Wall travel-buying behaviour model (1982)

The framework proposed by Mathieson & Wall (1982) is influenced by four interrelated factors, i.e.:

- tourist profile (age, education, income, attitudes, previous experience and motivations)
- travel awareness (image of a destination's facilities and services, which is based upon the credibility of the source)
- destination resources (attractions and features of a destination)
- trip features (distance, trip duration and perceived risk of the area visited)

Furthermore, Mathieson & Wall (1982) recognise that a holiday is a service product with the characteristics of intangibility, heterogeneity and inseparability, which in one way or another affect the tourist decision-making process. The Mathieson & Wall model, however, does omit important aspects of perception, memory and information-processing, which is the basis of the traditional models. Mathieson & Wall suggest that an understanding of tourist decision-making processes might be a useful planning tool in three ways:

(i) marketing, tourist decisions may be directed in favour of particular destinations;
(ii) identifying factors (positive or negative) affecting travel decisions;
(iii) identifying important consumer research areas.

One of the more recent models of holiday tourist purchase behaviour is the one put forward by Moutinho (1987). The Moutinho model differs from the traditional models in two respects, namely:

1. It is broken down into three distinctly different stages in the decision-making process: (i) pre-decision stage and decision processes; (ii) post-purchase and evaluation; and (iii) future decision-making. The last of these stages would feed back to the first, through a loop in the system.

2. It explicitly notes that purchase decisions are the result of three behavioural concepts, i.e. motivation, cognition and learning.

Although these travel buying behaviour frameworks appear to offer a description of the whole destination choice process, they provide little understanding of how internal processes and external factors interact and contribute to formulating particular choice sets (Lang, O'Leary & Morrison, 1997). In addition, there is a lack of specificity with regard to the operation of the marketing variables or external inputs (Crompton, 1992; Mansfeld, 1992).

Another major criticism of destination-purchase-decision models is that they view tourists as a homogenous group. Clearly, this is not the case. Every tourist is different and the segmentation of tourists needs to be conducted on the basis of a multitude of factors that will influence their own individual process of making a purchase decision. Such factors include *inter alia*:

- whether tourists are travelling alone
- how experienced tourists are and their past encounters as tourists
- travel to long-haul destinations
- the impact of motivators and determinants
- the extent of information search
- the influence of perceived risk

As Moutinho (1987) reiterates, travellers have become more sophisticated in their holidaying behaviour and therefore research must become more sophisticated to explain this behaviour. There are indeed many factors that influence a consumer's holiday travel decisions. How individuals perceive destination areas, travel distances and how they make travel decisions are subject to various factors. Understanding the consumer's need and buying process is the foundation of successful marketing. By understanding how buyers proceed through the decision-making process, the various participants in the buying

procedure and the major influences on buying behaviour, marketers can obtain some ideas about how to meet buyer needs (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1999: 29).

Goodhall & Ashworth (1988) regard holiday travel as a high-risk purchase, because travellers can neither directly observe what is being bought nor try it out inexpensively. The unique nature of the tourism product means that there is a high degree of risk associated with destination choice. The very nature of travel promotes uncertainty as to its outcome. Most of the travel experience relies on services that are intangible, consumed simultaneously with production and that are typically difficult to standardise. Thus travellers' perceived risk is likely to be high (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2000: 34).

During a buying situation, a potential traveller therefore has a certain degree of perceived risk involved in the decision to be made. The destination-choice of tourists, as with many other kinds of choices, involves a degree of uncertainty (Berkeley & Humphreys, 1982: 240; Mansfeld, 1992: 401). Perceived risk is defined as a function of uncertainty and consequences (Cunningham, 1967). It refers to the nature and the amount of risk perceived by a consumer in contemplating a particular purchase decision (Cox & Rich, 1967: 487). A consumer is driven to make a purchase in order to acquire a set of buying goals. In the case of this study, potential travellers assess particular destinations according to perceived benefits and costs. Travellers therefore compare destinations by what promises the most benefits for the least cost (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b: 122). Benefits refer to the value derived from the holiday, whereas costs may be financial, social, time or physiological (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). Those destination alternatives that are perceived as costly or risky will be eliminated from the selection process. It is reasonable to assume that the threat of physical or property crime at a particular long-haul destination will be perceived as a greater cost than a safer destination. In addition, for those visiting a destination for the first time, perceived risk may be greater. When buying a product or brand for the first time, the outcome is more uncertain and a greater risk may be perceived (Brooker, 1983: 439).

Perceptions of risk and safety and travel experience are thus likely to influence travel decisions. In consumer behaviour, consumers perceive seven types of risks when making (product) purchase decisions (Jacoby & Kaplan, 1972; Schiffman & Kanuk, 1972, 2000; Cheron & Ritchie, 1982), including equipment (or functional), social, physical safety, financial, psychological, satisfaction and time risk. The latter four risks were found to be most often associated with tourism (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). Murray & Schlacter suggest that consumers perceive service decisions to be riskier than product decisions, particularly in terms of social risk, physical risk and psychological risk (1990: 58–59). Roselius's (1971) defined types of consumer (tourist) risk as physical, time, ego and financial risk. Roselius's typology is perhaps more relevant to tourism as it includes time risk. The focus of this study is on individuals' attitudes towards property and physical crime-risk[4] as present in long-haul holiday travel.

Consumer perceptions of risk vary depending on the holiday destination, the situation and the culture. The degree of risk perceived also depends on the individual consumer. Some consumers tend to perceive high degrees of risk in various consumption situations; others tend to perceive little risk. In consumer behaviour literature, Schiffman & Kanuk (2000: 184) have classified two types of risk perceivers. These are high-risk perceivers or *narrow categorisers*, who limit their choices to a few safe alternatives, and low-risk perceivers or *broad categorisers* who make their choices from a much wider range of alternatives from which they can choose According to Schiffman & Kanuk, the former would rather exclude some perfectly good (destination) alternatives and the latter would rather risk a poor selection than limit the number of alternatives from which they can choose.

Sources of perceived risk in destination decision-making involving crime include a number of elements such as a lack of destination/travel experience, negative perceptions, and negative word-of-mouth accounts. An assessment of tourist risk variables requires a study of the relationship between the tourist's past travel experience, the tourist's intra-personal

[4] Physical crime risk is synonymous with 'physical risk' in consumer behaviour literature, the possibility that a trip to a destination will result in physical injury.

characteristics, the type of information sources used, the tourist's level of risk awareness and the tourist's evaluation of the destination attributes (Moutinho, 1987: 25).

Perceived risk can be reduced by acquiring more information about alternatives than by relying on past experience and on the experience of others (Cox & Rich, 1967: 491; Dowling & Staelin, 1994: 132). Word-of-mouth accounts were also found to be a very important 'reliever' in many high-risk situations (Arndt, 1967; Roselius, 1971; Sheth & Venkatesan, 1968). Consumers develop their own strategies for reducing perceived risk. Information search behaviour was identified as a common risk reduction strategy in travel and tourism (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Solomon, 1999), as was repeat purchase (Moutinho, 1987). Many researchers agree that personal sources of information, including previous experience and word-of-mouth recommendations from friends and relatives is the most important factor in risk-reduction strategies when trip planning (Fodness & Murray, 1997). For the purpose of this study, it is reasonable to assume that the use of travel-safety research sources such as government travel advisories will also act as crime-risk reducers (or for reassurance – "is it safe?") during decision-making for potential long-haul travellers.

Pearce (1988: 28) suggests that concern with personal security is a major factor in the decision-making process by means of which individuals make their travel choices. Gunn argues that crime can be an irrational concern and that statistically visitors have an equal or greater risk of being involved in a fatal car accident or suffering a household injury at home (1983: 27). The critical issue therefore is fear of the unknown and risk. This is reiterated by Sonmez in her research on terrorism and tourism consumer behaviour: "the introduction of risk into touristic decisions has the potential to disrupt routine decision-making" (1998: 120). Naturally it is logical to assume that prospective tourists will compare destination alternatives according to perceived costs and benefits. These costs may be monetary (for instance, getting to the destination, accommodation, travel insurance), physical distance, time costs, and risk associated with the journey such as accidents, sickness or crime. Travel can involve varying degrees of risk, from simple disappointment to serious injury and even death.

3. Statement of the problem

The purpose of this study is to examine the impact of personal (i.e. respondent's age, crime-risk perception levels) and situational factors (i.e. previous travel experience) on long-haul travel decision-making in relation to crime-risk.

The objectives of this research are to:

- examine the importance of crime, safety and security and their combined effect on travellers' long-haul holiday travel decisions
- analyse the influence of crime-risk perception levels on long-haul holiday travel decisions
- examine the influence of previous long-haul travel experience and its effect on long-haul holiday travel decisions
- examine the influence of past holiday-crime encounters on long-haul holiday travel decisions
- examine the influence of sociodemographic factors on long-haul holiday travel decisions
- identify crime-safety precautions implemented by individuals during their previous long-haul holiday
- examine the extent of sources of travel information used by individuals during their previous long-haul holiday
- examine the extent of travel-safety research sources used by individuals during their previous long-haul holiday
- examine individuals' future long-haul holiday travel intentions
- analyse individuals' attitudes towards crime-safety and long-haul travel in general

4. Study limitations

The nature of the study and the conditions under which it was conducted meant that the research methods utilised were dictated by a number of limitations. Notwithstanding, all reasonable steps were taken to ensure that the effects of these limitations were minimised. The following section outlines the study limitations.

- Findings might be limited by the nature of the sampling frame. Therefore it may not be possible to generalise findings in terms of **the entire UK population** since only individuals who have travelled long-haul during the last five years were surveyed.

- It may not be possible to generalise findings in terms of **the total tourist population** as only one tour operator's client base was used for the study. Notwithstanding other tour operators have different tourist client profiles such as special interest tourists (SIT), sports tourists, elderly tourists, backpackers.

- **External events such** as a sudden surge in crime rates or terrorist attacks occurring at any of the destinations documented in the survey and subsequently reported in the destination-originating country's broadcast media/government travel advisories may affect responses. In the case of this study, external events reported in the UK broadcast and/or media could influence some of the responses.

- **Respondents' personal factors** measured in this study may not be fully representative of all the influences on long-haul travel decisions. For example, basic tourist conditions such as the weather, the real quality of service, the real quality of accommodation and the attitude of the hosts, are sometimes unknown at the time decisions are being made (Mansfeld, 1992: 401).

- **Terrorism and political instability** are likely to influence UK travellers' decision-making behaviour. However, only the effects of personal and property crime on international holiday travel are examined in this study.

- Cross-cultural studies have shown that perceptions of and reactions to risk differ according to **individuals' culture** (Goszczynska, Tyszka & Slovic, 1991; Hofstede, 1980). This study will be limited to the examination of travellers originating from the UK and their perceptions of risk posed by crime at various long-haul holiday destinations.
- Personal factors measured in the study might **not fully represent all of the influences** on long-haul holiday travel decisions and their outcomes. For example, a price reduction offered by a tour operator could overcome subject's perceived crime-risk levels of a particular destination.

5. Definitions

The following terms used throughout the study are defined as follows:

- **Tourism** is "...the sum of the relations and phenomena which result from travelling and visiting an area by non-residents, in so far as they do not lead to permanent residence and are not connected with any earning activity" (Burkart & Medlik, 1981: 2).

- According to the WTO (World Tourism Organisation, 1978) **tourism** is any travel, which involves an overnight stay away from home. More specifically the WTO proposed the following definition: A **visitor** is any person visiting a country other than that in which he or she has his usual place of residence, for any other reason than following an occupation from within the country visited (WTO, 1978).

- A **holiday** is a subjectively defined form of tourism, and can be distinguished from other leisure travel such as visits to friends and relatives (VFR) or shopping trips.

- A **long holiday** is a holiday of four nights or more away from home; a **short break** is a holiday, which involves 1-3 nights away from home.

- **Long-haul**, refers to holidays of over six hours flying time or outside Europe. All cruises are excluded, whatever their starting point (i.e. fly-cruise).

- **Short-haul** refers to air holidays within Europe, dominated by flights to Mediterranean resorts.

- An **inclusive tour or package holiday** is defined as the simultaneous sale of at least two elements of a holiday to the traveller: fares on public transport (e.g. flights) and commercial accommodation (e.g. hotel or self-catering apartment). Other elements, such as meals or excursions, are not essential to the definition of an inclusive tour. The term **all-inclusive** is used to describe a special type of resort holiday in which food, drink, excursions and other services are provided as part of the holiday cost.

- An **independent holiday** is one in which the traveller organises and books transport and accommodation from separate sources (e.g. transatlantic flight and accommodation in the USA). **Seat-** or **flight-only** is a type of independent holiday, and the terms are used to denote holidays in which travellers only purchase a return fare and thereafter book their accommodation, car hire etc.

- **Perceived risk** is defined as the uncertainty that consumers face when they cannot foresee the consequences of their purchase decisions.

- **Crime** is not a self-evident and unitary concept; it depends upon the theoretical position taken by those define crime. The key elements in determining crime are: *harm* (nature, severity and extent of harm or injury caused); *social agreement or consensus* (extent of social agreement about whether victims have been harmed); *official societal response* (the existence of criminal laws specifying under what conditions that an act resulting in harm can be called crime.

- **Personal crime-risk** refers to the individuals' probability of personal crime, robbery, assault or threat while on holiday.

- **Property crime-risk** refers to the individual's probability of burglary, attempted burglary, theft from inside or outside their accommodation dwelling, or criminal damage while on holiday.

Independent variables in this study, consisting of **personal factors** (crime-risk perception levels) and **situational factors** (long-haul travel experience, past holiday-crime encounters) are defined as: **Crime-risk perception levels** of the traveller refers to the degree of crime-risk the respondent associates with long-haul travel. The literature suggests that perceived risk influences the evaluation of destination alternatives and information search (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b; Weber & Bottom, 1989). Crime-risk perception is measured by using three sub-scales (physical crime-risk, property crime-risk and views about long-haul travel with regard to general crime-risk).

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categorised into sub-groups: 'high risk perceivers', 'moderate risk perceivers', and low risk perceivers'. An overall crime-risk index was developed (see Chapter 4).

- **Long-haul holiday experience** refers to the extent of travel outside of Europe. In this study, long-haul holiday experience was measured by the number of long-haul holiday trips undertaken in the last five years. Results were computed and entered into three sub-scales: 'inexperienced', 'moderately experienced', and 'experienced'.

- **Past holiday-crime encounters** refers to whether the individual's experience of physical or property crime with respect to holiday travel. Respondents are categorised as either 'crime experiencers' of 'non-crime experiencers'

Dependent variables in this study, include three stages of the long-haul holiday decision-making process:

- **Information search** refers to the extent of formal search (i.e. Internet) for long-haul travel information. In this study, the extent of information is measured using a Likert-type scale, regarding the use of information sources, ranging from none to extensive, and is used as an interval variable. An index was developed based on a summative score of respondent's extent of using various sources of information during decision-making (see Chapter 4).

- **Travel-safety research** refers to the individual's extent and use of travel-safety research (i.e. government advisory). A Likert-type scale is used to measure the travel-safety results, ranging from none to extensive, and is used an interval level variable. An index was created based on respondent's degree of travel-safety research.

- **Crime-risk precautions** refer to those safety precautions that subjects utilised during their last long-haul holiday to reduce the probability of being a crime victim. A five-point Likert-type scale regarding respondents' use of crime-risk precautions

ranging from none to extensive and is used as an interval variable. An index was created based on a summative score of respondent's use of crime-risk precautions (see Chapter 4).

6. Research justification

WTO data documents the value of tourism to a region's economy and the phenomenal growth of international tourism. Coupled with this increase has been a growing concern for the economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts of the tourism industry on destination areas and communities. The socio-cultural impacts such as crime, however, are often overlooked, as research has tended to focus on the economic impacts namely visitor numbers, employment and increasing revenue.

This exploratory study explores how long-haul holiday decisions are made within the context of crime-risk. Research into traveller's decisions involving risk in general or crime-risk in particular, involve a complicated process that has received scarce attention. In addition, little research attention has been paid to long-haul travel decision-making. As Hudson (1999, 18) points out, the need to study the destination-choice process has become more important in recent years as a result of the rapid growth of long-haul travel.

This study will contribute to the field of tourist consumer behaviour and safety and security. This will be achieved by modifying existing travel decision-making processes to include new features namely crime-risk perception levels and long-haul travel. Research will also investigate respondent's use of travel information search and crime-safety research sources. As Uysal & Fesenmaier (1993) note, understanding consumers' information search behaviour is crucial to strategic decision-making. In addition, research will examine tourist's use of crime-safety precautions. This type of information may also

assist destination managers to adopt strategies to encourage tourists to participate in leisure activities at a destination.

7. Summary

This chapter highlighted a significant increase in the movement of international travellers during the last few decades. The various impacts of tourism were also recognised, including economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts. As a result of tourism development various impacts are positive such as job creation and some are negative such as damage to the physical environment. One of the more alarming negative social impacts stemming from the interaction between hosts and guests and the development of tourism in specific regions has been the issue of tourism-oriented crime, which has the potential effect to alter tourists' travel plans. Local criminals regard tourists as vulnerable targets. Certain holiday destinations around the world, with the aid of international media exposure, have gained a reputation for being dangerous. Indeed the issue of tourist safety and security has been one of the factors that have interrupted the sustained growth pattern of international travel in recent years. If travellers perceive a destination to be unsafe they are likely not to consider the destination or to cancel, delay or postpone their holiday during decision-making.

Tourism researchers interested in consumer behaviour draw on the early consumer behaviour models, which focus mainly on manufacturing industries. These models have been adapted and transformed to accommodate the tourism process. As a result of the nature of tourism, the characteristics of tourism consumer purchase decision-making processes are complex. The holiday buying process models, however, fail to mention constraints, namely time, money and risks such as crime. Safety and security issues as well as consumer behaviour represents an important gap in tourism research.

There is a need to understand consumer behaviour in particular, international tourists' perceptions and attitudes, in order to tailor promotional messages so as to address travel

concerns. It is crucial to gain an understanding of a traveller's decision-making process in order to develop more effective strategies and development plans. Furthermore, research on directly linking knowledge about travellers and destinations is critical.

The objective of this study is to examine how personal and situational factors affect long-haul travel decision-making. In the next chapter, the relevant literature pertaining to the study will be reviewed.

2 Review of Literature

Introduction

This chapter reviews relevant literature, which serves as a framework for the study. The appropriate literature is presented in broad topics of tourism impacts, crime, fear of crime, the relationship between crime and tourism, the effects of crime on tourism, and consumer behaviour. Because tourism involves a discussion of the actions of people, it will first be necessary to place in perspective the interaction between tourists and industry with regard to economic, social, cultural, and environmental factors.

1. The various impacts of tourism

Tourism has experienced fast expansion in the post-war era, particularly in the developing countries of the world. This rapid growth has given rise to increasingly pronounced economic, environmental, and social effects (Mathieson & Wall, 1982: 3). The rapid growth in tourism since the 1960s has been coupled by an increasing concern about the impacts of tourism on host destinations, and there exists a great deal of literature concerned with an analysis of the social, cultural, economic, and physical impacts of tourism development and with the potential solutions to the problems (Cooper *et al*, 1998; de Kadt, 1979; Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; Hunter & Green, 1995; Krippendorf, 1987; Likorish & Jenkins, 1997; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Middleton, 1998; Murphy, 1985; Sharpley, 1994; Young, 1973).

The literature suggests that tourism has many dimensions and impinges on society in numerous ways. The most convincing arguments in favour of the development of the tourist industry in a country or region relate to its positive impact on the economy. However, if viewed from an environmental or sociocultural stance, the negative impacts of the tourism industry come to the fore. As a way of understanding some of the costs and benefits of tourism, it is necessary to examine the impacts associated with tourists'

activities and tourism development. Impacts are a major aspect of tourism and their scope, effect and duration on the host society are complex and vary in terms of intensity and effect according to the specific location and nature of the impacts. There are three major impacts associated with tourism activity and development: economic, environmental, and sociocultural.

1.1 Economic impacts

There is no doubt that tourism has major effects on the economies of destination areas. Economic impacts encompass the monetary costs and benefits from the development and use of tourist facilities and services (Mathieson & Wall, 1982: 24). As a result, a great deal of research in tourism has focused on the economic aspects of the industry (Bull, 1995; Cooper, *et al*, 1998; Likorish & Jenkins, 1997; Mathieson & Wall, 1982). In addition, it is often the economic reasons that support the rationale for tourism development at destinations, especially in developing countries. Due to several factors the emphasis of tourism impact studies has been on economic aspects (Mathieson & Wall, 1982: 36). Firstly, when compared to sociocultural and environmental impacts, economic impacts are relatively easy to measure as a result of their quantitative and tangible nature; environmental and sociocultural effects are far more difficult to quantify. Secondly, economic data such as expenditures, employment and tax revenues is more readily available from a country's government. Thirdly, tourism is often viewed as an economic saviour to a country or region's economic woes. Economic impact studies have focused primarily on international tourist expenditure rather than domestic tourism because of associated difficulties in quantifying tourism expenditure of the movements of tourists within a country where no custom immigration procedures and currency exchange take place. When examining statistics provided by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO), it becomes apparent that much of tourist spending takes place between developed countries rather than between developed and developing countries. Through the latter half of the 1980s, the developed countries were responsible for 70 per cent of all world exports and received 72 per cent of all tourism receipts on average. This contrasts with the developing

countries which were responsible for 20 per cent of all world receipts and received only 25 per cent of all tourism receipts (Cooper *et al.*, 1998: 126).

The main economic impacts of tourism at a national level relate to foreign exchange earnings, contributions to government revenue, and generation of employment (Harrison 1992: 113). Much of the data has been collected at national level and a large proportion of the literature concerns individual countries. As tourism has emerged as a powerful economic force nearly every country has engaged in its promotion. As Lickorish & Jenkins point out, most governments in developing countries encourage international tourism because such tourists usually travel from hard currency countries (1997: 66). On a local and regional scale the economic contribution of tourism is equally important. Tourists' expenditure at a destination creates new incomes and outputs in the region which, in turn, produce further expenditures and incomes. This is referred to as the income multiplier effect. Archer (1976: 115) noted, the concept of the income multiplier includes three types of tourist spending:

(i) *Direct* (where the initial expenditure creates revenue for hoteliers and other frontline tourism establishments);
(ii) *Indirect* (the payment of salaries and wages to local employees, and tourist establishments replenishing their stocks, are indirect effects of the initial, direct tourist expenditure); and
(iii) *Induced* (as wages and salaries within an economy rise, consumption also increases and this provides an additional impetus for economic activity).

The economic impact of tourism on a host community is generally positive although there are several economic costs of tourism such as displacement effects, where capital resources are spent on tourism-related establishments, substituting expenditure on other activities. The size of the economic impact, be it positive or negative, is determined by a number of factors. The most important include the level of economic development of the host community, the volume and nature of tourism, and the extent to which the economy is dependent upon imports of goods, services, and capital.

1.2 Environmental impacts

The physical environment is a crucial component of the tourism product since it is a powerful attraction to tourists. In view of the inseparable nature of tourism - where tourists have to visit the place of production in order to consume the output - it is inevitable that tourist activity will be associated with environmental impacts. The growth of mass tourism in the 1960s, along with increasing awareness of the human impact on the environment, led to growing concern that nature is an inexhaustible resource. This point was emphasised in the seminal research carried out by Young (1973). Young's (1973) study was a prominent turning point in the analysis of tourism's impact on the natural and built environment, questioning the validity of uncontrollable tourism development. More recent studies include Krippendorf (1987) and Wood & House (1991). These studies, *inter alia*, were conducted in less developed countries and new, exotic and extreme locations. The main environmental benefit of tourism is that it may act as a stimulus to conserve natural areas, wildlife and preserve historical and archaeological sites and monuments. The costs of tourism in this context include damage to wildlife and vegetation, pollution of lakes, rivers and coastlines, air pollution, as well as the destruction of natural and built features. Environmental damage as a result of tourism is difficult to gauge for a number of reasons, as outlined by Mathieson & Wall (1982: 94). The main problem being that it is difficult to establish whether or not physical impacts are the result of tourism. Furthermore, the problem is further compounded because tourism is of a complex and fragmented nature. Nevertheless, Cooper (1998: 151) points out, that while it is not possible to develop tourism without incurring environmental impacts, these negative impacts can be minimised while encouraging the positive ones with correct planning and management.

All tourist-related activity causes a certain amount of stress to the environment. The issue is not whether stress can be avoided altogether, but whether the incurred levels are acceptable to the destination community or can be reduced to an acceptable level through pro-active management strategies. Stress is inevitably linked to carrying capacity, which varies from destination to destination. The carrying capacity of a resort, site or region refers to its ability to absorb tourism use without causing damage. Carrying capacity is the

maximum number of people who can use a site without an unacceptable alteration in the physical environment and an unacceptable decline in the quality of experience gained by visitors (Mathieson & Wall, 1982: 21). The concept is important for determining and understanding the impacts of tourism. According to Mathieson & Wall (1982: 23), host resentment is likely to be at its most in destinations with a highly developed industry but with only limited local involvement. It is perhaps at this level where incidents of crime against tourist may occur.

1.3 Sociocultural impacts

Apart from obvious manifestations of physical damage to the environment, tourism can contribute to social conditions that may lead to serious problems in the host society, including changes in value systems, individual behaviour, family relationships, collective lifestyles, traditional ceremonies, or community organisation (Milman & Pizam 1988: 191). The sociocultural effects of tourism were given prominence in the pioneering work of Young (1973), Turner & Ash (1975), and de Kadt (1979). Each of these studies confirmed what Murphy argued i.e. that tourism is a sociocultural event for the traveller and the host (1985: 117). Social and cultural impacts have been examined as a combined effect due to the difficulty in attempting to distinguish between the two. Indeed, sociological and cultural characteristics of society are interrelated to a large extent; changes in one lead to changes in the other. For the purpose of this study, the social impacts may be described as having a more immediate effect on both tourists and host communities and their quality of life whereas cultural impacts lead to a longer-term, gradual change in a society's values, beliefs and cultural practices (Murphy, 1985: 117). Sociocultural impacts of tourism have also traditionally been viewed solely in terms of the encounter between tourists and local people. This is a rather myopic approach as the extent of the social and cultural impacts of tourism is far reaching and encompasses direct and indirect effects similar to those of the economic impacts. As Mathieson & Wall (1982: 132) stated, 'sociocultural impacts are about the effects on the people of host communities, of their direct and indirect associations with tourists'.

As with the aforementioned economic and environmental impacts, some of these effects may be positive, while others may be viewed as negative. Inskeep noted that the degree to which these impacts influence or are experienced by host communities and tourists depends on the extent of the difference between sociocultural characteristics between hosts and guests (1991: 367). These differences may be in the form of basic values, religious beliefs, language, dress codes, and so on. Generally the greater the difference, the greater the impact. Thus, for example, the sociocultural effect of UK holidaymakers to the USA is less than in developing countries such as South Africa, Brazil or India. However, as indicated by Inskeep (1991: 367), even within particular countries and societies, there are often considerable differences among regions and especially urban/rural areas, with urban dwellers having adopted more modern values and life-styles, while village and rural people may still be very traditional. Hence, the sociocultural impact of UK holidaymakers visiting a cosmopolitan city such as Cape Town may be less than a rural area of South Africa. In addition, the types and volume of tourists as well as the speed of tourism development will also influence the magnitude of the sociocultural impacts of tourism. The traditional view is that high volumes of mass tourists who demand familiar amenities and facilities as in their home environment are likely to have more of an impact on host societies than independent travellers. However, the degree of contact and integration that tourists have with local residents appears to be an important factor in determining the impact. Therefore, it could be argued that mass tourists staying in self-contained holiday resorts may have less impact than independent travellers visiting isolated communities 'off the beaten track'. The categorisation of tourists into typologies has been widely used by researchers in the study of sociocultural impacts of tourism. For instance, Smith (1989) classified tourists according to volume and adaptation levels to the local environment (see table 2).

Table 2. A typology of tourists: Frequency of types of tourist and their adaptations to local norms

Types of tourist	*Number of tourists*	*Locals' perceptions of tourists*
Explorer	very limited	+
Elite	rarely seen	
Off-beat	uncommon but seen	
Unusual	occasional	decreasing
Incipient	steady flow	
Mass	continuous flow	
Charter	massive arrivals	–

Source: Barker, 2000; Smith (1989)

It is generally assumed that the sociocultural impacts are likely to be greater on destinations that experience rapid and relatively uncontrolled tourism development, than destinations with slow and controlled tourism development (Sharpley, 1994: 195). Furthermore, the larger the gap between the wealth of tourists and their hosts, the more significant the sociocultural impacts. Nevertheless, this difference may be exasperated given that tourists exhibit spending patterns and behaviour is very different from their norm, simply because they are on holiday (Cooper, 1998: 176). However, such displays of wealth along with other factors inherent in tourist behaviour such as dress code and language may result in conflict between visitors and locals. These conflicts may ignite tension between the tourists and residents and resentment by local residents of the intrusive effects of mass tourism (Pearce, 1982: 89). Ultimately, crimes against tourists may also result from such conflict between tourists and local residents.

The sociocultural impacts of tourism are the result of tourist-host interaction and the development of tourism. An example of the socicultural impact of the encounter between tourists and hosts is the possible creation of opportunities for greater peace and understanding by means of an exchange of cultures. de Kadt pointed out that the exchange of cultural information, ideas and beliefs is one of the more positive impacts (1979: 69). Conversely, the encounter between tourist and locals could dilute or destroy traditional cultures. Thus, tourism is considered by some researchers, a threat to culture and peoples (Page *et al.*, 2001: 277). Several studies (Milman, Reichel & Pizam, 1990; Pizam, Milman

& Jafari, 1991; Ross, 1992) show that there is little empirical evidence supporting the claim that tourism can lead to a greater harmony. They found that, in certain circumstances, host communities have negative perceptions of tourism development. For instance, residents surveyed in Cairns, Australia cited positive and negative impacts of tourism development (Ross, 1992). Ross found that the positive impacts are mainly economic while escalating crime levels and personal safety were seen as a negative social impact and a major concern to the community at large (1992: 16).

de Kadt (1979: 50) noted that tourist-host encounters occur in three main contexts: where the tourist is purchasing some good or service from the host, where the tourist and host find themselves side-by-side (for example, on a beach or at a nightclub), and where the two parties come face to face with the object of exchanging information or ideas. Although the first two are more common, especially with regard to mass tourism, the third type is where cross-cultural understanding is increased. Nevertheless, sociocultural impacts can be a result of all three encounters between tourists and hosts. As Mathieson & Wall (1982: 135) point out:

> "tourists and residents interact within a network of goals and expectations, with the tourists being mobile, relaxed, free-spending, and enjoying their leisure, while the residents are relatively stationary and, if employed in tourism, spend a large part of their time catering to tourists".

It has also been suggested that tourism development relates to the tourist-host encounter. In essence, as tourism develops at a destination, it is likely that the attitudes of local people of tourism and tourists also do. In his study, Doxey (1976) proposed a four-stage process whereby the attitudes and perceptions of local people change through time as tourism develops. This process is comparable to that of the resort cycle designed by Butler (1980). Doxey's 'Irritation Index', widely cited in tourism literature, suggests the attitudes of local people change as tourism develops at a destination. From the early stages of tourism development, local attitudes move from euphoria through apathy, annoyance, and finally to antagonism. It assumes that the growth and expansion of tourism can, for some, be

reflected by an increasingly negative attitude towards tourists among the host community. It is perhaps in the final stage of Doxey's model that the disadvantages of tourism are the most apparent and when any association between tourism and crime would seem to be most obvious.

One of the most widely cited negative sociocultural impacts of tourism is the demonstration effect of affluence in less developed and developing regions. The process of the demonstration effect assumes that local communities begin to alter and adapt their own values and behaviour, often in an attempt to imitate those of tourists (Sharpley, 1994: 204). The demonstration effect may be advantageous or disadvantageous to the host community. On the one hand, observing tourists may encourage locals, particularly in developing countries, to strive for possessions they lack. In other words, it may assist development. On the other hand, the demonstration effect may cause discontentment and resentment because the degree of wealth and freedom of behaviour displayed by visitors imposes an impossible goal. As a result of the latter, increased consumption expectations among the local population aspiring to material standards of the tourists may lead to the copying of consumption patterns (Mathieson & Wall, 1982: 144). Those that are unable to attain these goods through legitimate means may turn to illegitimate activities to obtain the level of wealth they desire. Such activities include crime and prostitution, both of which have been frequently mentioned as negative by-products of tourism. Among the other negative sociocultural effects of tourist-host encounter and tourism development are the erosion of local language and culture; the overcrowding of resources used by the local population such as roads, communications and leisure facilities; an increase in undesirable activities including drug-peddling and crime.

Crime is considered a socio-cultural 'reverse impact' of the tourist-host interaction and/or tourism development posing a treat to the wellbeing of the tourism industry. Crime is often regarded as one of the safety and security risks of participating in tourism (others include health-related problems such as HIV/AIDS, diphtheria, sexually transmitted diseases, cholera, malaria; or natural disasters occurring at tourist destinations including earthquakes, floods, landslides). Within the tourism literature there is a noticeable lack of

research into tourist-host encounters from the point of view of tourists (Sharpley, 1994: 286).

2. Crime and deviance

A plethora of literature concerning the study of crime and deviance exists and much of it has been utilized by sociologists. As Tarlow & Muehsam (1996: 13) note, 'the study of crime and deviance has long fascinated and occupied sociologists'. After analysis, various social theories may shed more light on the significance between crime and tourism. Although a complete review of crime is beyond the scope of this study, various theories and definitions of crime and deviance as well as issues related to crime statistics and crime typologies are discussed below.

2.1 Defining crime

The question as to how best to define crime has been a source of considerable debate amongst academics. For the purpose of this study various definitions and theories of crime will be examined mostly from a sociological perspective. Many sociological definitions of crime and deviance elaborate on the notion that to 'deviate' means to stray from an accepted path. Thus, deviance consists of those acts, which do not follow the norms and expectations of a particular social group (Haralambos & Holborn, 1990: 580). The American sociologist Clinard (1974) suggests that deviance involves 'those situations in which behaviour is in a disapproved direction, and of sufficient degree to exceed the tolerance limit of the community'. In light of this definition, crime is one of the most obvious forms of deviance. 'Crime' therefore refers to 'any act prohibited by public law, and made punishable by the state in a judicial proceeding in its own name' (Marshall & Clark, 1970: 15).

2.1.1 Theories of crime

There have been various sociological approaches to defining crime, some of which are rooted in more legalistic definitions; others invoke more moral and social elements in the definition. Such definitions are neither right nor wrong. The following theories of crime are examined from sociologist and Marxist perspectives.

Firstly, sociologists in favour of a more normative approach have viewed crime as an act, which breaks particular kinds of social norm. For instance, according to Sutherland (1939: 10):

> "the essential characteristic of crime is that it is behaviour which is prohibited by the state...The two abstract criteria... as necessary elements in a definition of crime are legal descriptions of an act as socially harmful and legal provision of a penalty of the act".

Crime, therefore, constitutes a type of behaviour which breaks a particular kind of norm, i.e. one that is encoded in law. Such deviant acts may range from the mild to serious, for instance speeding, drink and driving, robbery, murder. However, sociologists have noted how difficult it is to establish what is considered 'deviant' behaviour. Furthermore, the problem is compounded because many deviant acts are not defined as 'criminal', for instance, homosexuality is no longer a criminal offence in some societies. The difficulty of developing a precise definition of crime, therefore, is that it varies from time to time, place to place, and that there is nothing intrinsic in behaviour that makes it inherently 'criminal'.

Another, but rather different perspective, has been to consider crime as ideological censure. Marxist or 'conflict' theorists assume crime is a result of class frustration directed towards members of the bourgeois society. Due to the competitive nature of capitalist society and the divide between rich and poor, crime is considered to be a by-product of bourgeois greed. Marxists argue that what is defined as 'criminal' is compatible with the interest of the ruling class. Criminal law and crime, thus, is considered an instrument of state power. As De Haan (1996) states, 'crime is an ideological concept which serves to maintain power relations, justifies inequality and serves to distract public attention from

more serious problems and injustices'. De Haan's definition involves more of a conflict approach stresses the political nature of crime.

Given that certain tourists may well be viewed by some as part of the 'bourgeois class', it is this conflict theory that appears to be most significant to the relationship between tourism and crime. However, as tourism and crime researchers Tarlow & Muehsam (1996: 14) argue, 'not all victims are part of the 'bourgeois class' who freely flaunt their unfairly gained wealth nor are all victimisers necessarily acting out hostility toward and unjust ruling oligarchy'. Indeed, crime occurs at all levels of society and it is only the types of crime committed and the nature of law enforcement that differs between strata. In his study of organized crime in Seattle, Washington Chambliss (1978) pointed out, 'crime is not merely the servant of the ruling class but rather crime occurs throughout all social strata'.

2.1.2 Crime typologies

Since crime is not a homogenous type of behaviour various criminologists have attempted to classify crime in to typologies. However, because such typologies have been based upon a general theory of crime or rather loose definitions of what constitutes crime they should be treated with speculation (Schafer, 1976: 104). Sociologists and criminologists have constructed numerous crime typologies according to various methods. For instance, according to category of criminal acts, or to the severity of the penalty, etc. Sutherland (1939: 19) for example, devised a classification based on the gravity of the crime: 'felonies' and misdemeanors'. Under common law the former included crimes such as murder, manslaughter, and rape, and against property arson, burglary, theft, and robbery (Schafer, 1976: 145). Misdemeanors were considered less serious than felonies. There has, however, been confusion over distinction of the two classes particularly when used as a classification of criminals as a 'felon' or a 'misdemeanant'. The sociologists, Wolfgang, Savitz & Johnston (1962) building on Sutherland's (1939) classification added 'treason' to include the most serious of felonies usually committed against the monarchy. Legal classifications grouped crimes by the motives of the offenders such as economic crimes,

sexual crimes, political crimes, and miscellaneous crimes (with vengeance as the principal motive) (Bonger, 1967). Crimes are also frequently classified for statistical purposes as crimes against the person, crimes against property, and public crimes (such as drunkenness). Various criminal typologies have also been developed consisting of classes based upon the lifestyle of criminals such as 'occasional criminals', 'professional criminals', 'abnormal criminal', 'habitual criminals and 'convictional criminals' (Schafer, 1976: 107–108).

2.2 Crime data

The majority of tourism and crime studies have been based in part on official statistics provided by police, the courts, and other government agencies involved in law enforcement. They do, however, embody a number of methodological issues, the most critical of these being that they rely on police crime statistics.

Official crime statistics generally serve two purposes. First, they provide information on the extent of crime 'known to the police' and changes in crime rates. Second, they provide information on the social characteristics of those who have been offended (the 'typical victim') and those who commit the offence (the 'typical offender'). These crime statistics are generally referred to as *recorded levels* of crime. It is evident that not all incidences of crimes are recorded by the police; many crimes go *unrecorded*. It is this so-called 'dark figure' of unrecorded crime that has given rise to claims that official crime statistics do not reflect the actual extent of crime. As the criminologist Wiles (1971) argues, 'there is a dark figure of crime sufficiently large enough to render reported and recorded offences highly suspect as a basis upon which to make inferences upon criminal behaviour in general'. Official statistics, therefore, do not provide a complete measure of the incidence of crime (Black, 1970). It is for these reasons that criminologists have debated whether recorded crime provides some valid approximation of crime in general, or whether it reveals nothing more than the process whereby crime is reported, recorded and responded to.

According to criminologists, an incident must pass through three stages before it becomes a 'recorded crime'. First, it must come to someone other than the offender's attention that a crime is taking place. Second, the incident must be reported to the police. Third, the police must be willing to accept that the law has been broken and record it as such. In addition for an offender to be recorded, two further stages are required: a suspect needs to be identified, and the police need to record this (Coleman & Moynihan, 1996). In examining crime rates in tourist areas tourism and crime researchers have relied on official statistics and in doing so have identified similar methodological problems. For instance, separate crime rates for tourists and residents are often not calculated. The issue of official crime statistics and ensuing methodological constraints in tourism and crime studies is discussed in more detail in the next section.

2.3 Fear of crime

The concept of 'fear of crime' has featured in criminology literature since the 1960s. Coupled with the growth of victimisation surveys, the concept was used as an instrument of criminological research and criminal justice policy. According to Farrall *et al.* (2000), fear of crime is now one of the most researched topics in contemporary criminology.

Developed largely as a result of crime surveys, such as the 1982 British Crime Survey (BCS), the term 'fear of crime' was based on the responses to questions which were designed to probe how respondents felt (safe or unsafe) while in public situations, such as using pubic transport or walking in his or her neighbourhood. In essence, the BCS report compared the chances of falling victim to crime with other incidents, such as being involved in a car accident or having an accident at home. Following publication of the BCS, criminologists focussed on relationship between 'fear of crime' and the risk of victimisation (Gottfredson, 1984). Indeed, Hough & Mayhew (1983: 22) suggested that criminologists have been concerned that the fear of crime appears to be out of proportion to the risk of victimisation. A weak association was thus identified between 'fear of crime', as reported in victimisation surveys, and actual risk. This was known as the 'paradox of

fear' debate and is best summarised as thus: 'those who fear crime least are most likely to experience it' (Stanko, 2000: 21).

Garofalo (1979) used National Crime Survey (NCS) data from eight US cities to compare personal victimisation rates with individuals' responses to the question whether they felt safe their neighbourhoods at night. Garofalo's findings led him to conclude that fear is not based merely on risk and experience of crime, but also socialisation, media presentations of crime, and the extent to which respondents felt reassured by police presence. Kalish (1994) suggested that cross-national comparisons of crime need to be used with caution. Nevertheless, such sources of crime are relevant in the context of tourism. For instance, tourists' fear of crime may be derived from several sources, such as their own experience of crime, discussions about crime with their friends and acquaintances, exposure to crime through mass media (television, the Internet, newspapers and radio), and perceptions of actual crime rates, as well as their perceptions of police effectiveness at the destination.

Criminology studies also showed that fear for personal safety was found to differ among specific subgroups. For instance, women and elderly people were more concerned about personal safety and therefore restricted their activities to avoid potential encounters with violence (Stanko, 2000: 23). According to the literature, fear of crime also appears to mean different things depending on location. For example, some people may be afraid inside their home, but not outside, and vice-versa. Put another way, different people feel unsafe in different places. Indeed, feelings of unsafety may cause tourists to avoid particular destinations and taking part in certain activities at a destination.

3. Relationship between crime and tourism

Research into the association between these two forces has only been reported in tourism literature since the early 1970s -commencing with the work of McPheters & Stronge (1974) and then followed by Jud (1975), and Fukunaga (1975). More recently, Pizam & Mansfeld have provided a comprehensive compilation of international case studies on tourism, crime and safety issues (1996a).

This section reviews the range of studies on the relationship between tourism and crime in various tourist locations. It begins by clarifying a definition of crime, and the nature of tourism and crime as proposed by tourism-crime researchers. It then proceeds to draw upon various classifications detailing the relationship between tourism and crime, which will serve as a framework for analysing the literature on this topic. Finally, this section discusses the association between these two forces and explores whether tourism contributes to crime at specific destinations and examines the effect of tourist victimisation at tourist destinations and its affect on demand in such areas.

3.1 Definition of crime and the nature of crime

In reviewing the literature on crime and tourism, it is evident that there are some definition problems relating to both 'crime' and 'tourism'. Tourism and crime researchers generally accept, as Ryan (1993: 174) does, that crime 'is simply defined as an action which is contrary to written or case law in either the tourist-generating country or tourist-receiving country'. This supports the notion discussed in the last section, that crime is 'culturally determined'. In addition, this particular distinction is important because locals and visitors may perceive contrasting notions as to what constitutes 'crime' or 'criminal conduct', since what may be illegal in one country may not be in another (Cohen, 1997: 4).

The scale and nature of tourism itself operates at a number of levels: for example South Africans travelling within South Africa, overseas tourists to South Africa, and South African residents travelling overseas. At each location, crime rates can vary considerably. Moreover, it is not only the location but also the characteristics of the tourist area itself that can influence crime rates. Prideaux (1996) identified a four-stage 'Tourism Crime Cycle' model where local tourism and family value stages are connected with low crime rates, and hedonistic and mass tourism stages are associated with higher crime rates. The researcher concluded that a number of factors, including the style of promotional images, type of entertainment facilities and size of the drug culture, were all influential in determining crime rates at destinations in the study area (Prideaux, 1996: 73). Ryan (1993) suggested

that there is something inherent in the nature of tourism itself that might give rise to a relationship between crime and tourism. Ryan's proposition may hold true given the fact that tourists are free from their normal social constraints and daily responsibilities which may lead them to become involved in illegal or quasi-illegal behaviour; and indeed may well be the motivation for the holiday. In addition, tourists, motivated by the desire for relaxation and taking less care when away from their home environment, are more likely to become a crime victim (Ryan, 1993: 181).

3.2 Crime and tourism typologies

Various classifications regarding different categories of crime and tourism have been developed by tourism researchers to expand an understanding of crime and tourism (Cohen, 1996, 1997; Kelly, 1993; Mansfeld, 2000; Pizam, 1999; Ryan, 1993). Ryan (1993: 173–180) suggested a tourism-crime typology that identifies five types of relationships between crime and tourism:

- Tourists who are accidental victims of crime who happen to be in the wrong place at the wrong time and are seen as easy targets;
- Locales used by criminals due to the nature of the tourist location, but the victims are not specifically tourists;
- The industry and its locations that attract criminal activity because tourists are much more prone to taking risks;
- Criminal activity that is organized to meet tourist demand, for example getting involved in deviant activities such as drugs and soliciting prostitutes; and
- Organised criminal and terrorist groups who commit specific violent acts against tourists and/or tourist facilities.

Various occurrences involving crimes against tourists fit into the first and third categories of Ryan's typology (1993). Ryan's first category assumes that tourists are perceived as easy targets by criminals. They are away from their usual familiar environment and often

travelling off the beaten track in possession of valuables. In the third category, the location attracts criminal activity because tourists are perceived as easy targets by the perpetrators who are aware that tourists are in unfamiliar territory and more vulnerable. Crime is committed by individuals or small groups. It is opportunistic and primarily motivated by the acquisition of belongings. These two types of tourist-oriented crimes have also been referred to as crimes of opportunity (Mansfeld, 2000: 118).

The relationship between crime and tourism can therefore be said to range from the commitment of crime where the tourist setting is incidental to, at the other extreme, a situation where tourists and tourist facilities are deliberately targeted as objects of terrorist action. Tourists held as hostages are considered symbols of global capitalism and engaged in a sponsored activity of the state which is the enemy of certain terrorist groups. This is what Mansfeld, in his definition of tourist-oriented crime, termed 'planned crimes' (2000: 118). As a result of any of these occurrences, tourism demand can be greatly affected to a destination affecting all sectors of its tourism industry (such as accommodation, transportation, attractions and so on) as well as the destination's image.

In similar fashion to Ryan's tourism-crime typology (1993) Kelly (1993: 4) identified four broad categories of offences, which are commonly associated with tourism:

(i) activities which are directed against tourists;
(ii) offences committed by tourists;
(iii) offences which occur through the illegal servicing demands created by tourists; and
(iv) criminal activities, which relate to the growth and development of a destination which, exhibit a tourism-dependent economic base.

In considering the effects of crime and violence on tourism demand, Pizam (1999: 6–7) classified the attributes of some three hundred acts of crime and violence occurring at international tourist destinations into a typology, as detailed in table 3, in order to analyse the differential effects of such acts on tourism.

The relationship between crime and tourism can be divided into two fields: tourism-oriented crime and tourism-related crime. Cohen (1996: 77) defines the former as 'crime committed by locals against tourists' and the latter as 'all kinds of crime occurring in a touristic setting'. Tourism-related crime therefore refers to crimes that are in some way related to tourism: tourists against tourists: tourists against locals, locals against tourists, and locals against locals. In empirical studies on the interface of crime and tourism, the theoretical perspective taken by researchers was mainly confined to tourist-oriented crime. As Cohen (1997: 5) notes, most of the qualitative and quantitative studies of crime and tourism have concentrated on tourist-oriented crime, while disregarding the other categories. For instance, despite being a very serious and organised criminal activity particularly in developing countries, the last category: crimes of locals against locals, remains an unexplored area of research. The field of tourism-related crime is, thus, complex and much broader than assumed. Nevertheless, the nature of this study will mostly be confined to crime committed by locals against tourists occurring at tourist destinations.

Table 3. Pizam's (1999) typology of acts of crime and violence at tourist destinations

I.	**Nature of criminal/ violent act:**	
	Motive	Economic; social; political; personal
	Victim	Residents; political figures; famous personalities; tourists; businesses
	Location	Off-tourism premises; on-tourism premises
	Severity	Loss of property; bodily harm; loss of life; mass destruction of life and property
	Frequency	Rare (once a year or less); occasional (2-3 times a year); rapid succession
	Type	(every month); constant (several times a year)
II.	**Effects on tourism demand:**	
	Intensity	No effect; slight decrease; significant decrease; drastic decrease; cessation
	Expanse	Local; regional; national; international
	Duration	Short (a few weeks); medium (2-4 months); long (more than one tourism season); indefinite
III.	**Prevention methods:**	Legislation; enforcement; safety & security training for employees; installation of security devices; tourist education; citizens' awareness
IV.	**Responsible for prevention:**	Law enforcement agencies; community; tourism industry; tourists; businesses; government; international community
V.	**Recovery methods:**	
	Information dissemination	Tourists; citizens; employees
	Marketing	Pricing; packaging; positioning; promotion
VI.	**Responsible for recovery:**	Governments; tourism industry; businesses; community

3.3 The impact of tourism on crime

Tourism and crime researchers have sought to establish whether the tourism industry in different tourist locations encourages criminal activity. In other words, an increase in

tourist activities may well result in an increase in various types of crimes. Research undertaken in this domain includes tourist areas where increasing crime rates are seen as an externality of tourism development (Chesney-Lind, Lin & Schaafsma, 1983; Fujii & Mak, 1979, 1980; Fukunaga, 1975; Jud, 1975; Kelly, 1993; Lin & Loeb, 1977; Loeb & Lin, 1981; McPheters & Stronge, 1974; Nicholls, 1976; Prideaux & Dunn 1995; Urbanowicz, 1977; Walmsley, Boskovic & Pigram, 1983). These researchers, however, have found it difficult to measure accurately the direct link between an increase in crime with the development of tourism. Needless to say, there is no doubt that in areas where there are large numbers of tourists during a tourist season there will be those attempting to benefit illegally from their presence. Within this body of literature there have also been numerous studies of residents' perceptions of tourism at an individual or community level at various tourism destinations (Lankford, 1996; Lankford & Howard, 1994; Liu & Var, 1986; Long, Perdue & Allen, 1990; Milman & Pizam, 1988; Pizam, 1978; Ross, 1992; Rothman, 1978), the impact of special events (such as the America's Cup) on destination crime rates (Barker, Page & Meyer, 2002, 2003), and tourists as the aggressors of crime as opposed to the victims of crime (Harrison, 1994; Ryan & Kinder, 1996a, 1996b; Ryan & Martin, 2001).

An early inquiry of crime and tourism in Florida published by McPheters & Stronge (1974) found a close similarity between the tourist season and the crime season. Their study found that the presence of tourists increased the availability of targets for criminals and decreased the possibility of detection from the criminal's point of view. They also found variations in types of crimes. For example, economic crimes (such as robbery and burglary or property-related crimes) were more prevalent in the tourist season. In the following year in his study of tourism-oriented crime in 32 Mexican states Jud (1975: 328) found that property-related offences were more associated with tourism, while violent offences were only marginally related to it. Also in the same year Fukunaga (1975) examined crime as an externality of the development of a tourist resort complex in a previously rural area of Hawaii. He noted that after five years of the resort opening crimes had increased threefold. Urbanowicz (1977) found a similar situation in Tonga, and noted that rising crime incidents such as theft, violent acts (between locals and non-locals),

prostitution, begging and public drunkenness were related to ten years of tourism development in Tonga. Fujii & Mak (1979) supported these findings, arguing that a repercussion of the displacement of agriculture by tourism resort development in Hawaii resulted in significantly higher rates of burglary and rape incidents. They employed a time-series and cross sectional analysis over a 14-year period (1961–1975) and this analysis suggests a statistically significant relationship between tourism and rape, and tourism and robbery.

In a subsequent time-series analysis measuring tourism in terms of average daily spend Fujii & Mak (1980: 27) found that an increase in the number of tourists resulted in a greater amount of robberies, burglaries and rapes, but not vehicle theft. In addition, the authors constructed a cross-section analysis parallel to their time-series model and found opposing conclusions to their time series results as to whether tourism is related to murder. They confirmed the relationship between tourism and rape and robbery, but not for murder. The researchers claimed that this was due to high motor car negligent homicide rates in rural areas, which skewed the time-series results (1980: 34). Fujii & Mak claimed their research was more accurate than the previous studies of McPheters & Stronge (1974), and Jud (1975), because they considered multi variables (economic and sociodemographic) such as unemployment and police per capita which had been left out by the previous researchers. Chesney-Lind, Lind & Schaafsma (1983) also applied a time-series analysis study of tourism and crime in Honolulu over a 23-year period and their findings are similar to that of Fujii & Mak's (1980) work: a positive statistical relationship between tourism and the rate of assaults. Their analysis showed that residents, rather than visitors, are the primary victims of both assault and murder.

Walmsley, Boskovic & Pigram (1983) compared crime rates in tourist and non-tourist areas in Australia. Walmsley, Boskovic & Pigram (1983: 136) found that while tourist areas experienced more day-time crime such as theft from property and shoplifting, they experienced fewer offences involving drugs and assault than expected. The researchers (1983: 154) concluded, as did McPheters & Stronge (1974), that peak holiday periods coincided with increased crime rates in the tourist destinations of the study area. Similarly,

Nicholls (1976: 179) noted that according to police department statistics, increased visitor rates correlated to the increased number of arrests in a holiday resort town in North Carolina in the USA. Kelly (1993: 8) also suggested that the frequency of predatory crimes (against persons and property) in two tourist areas namely Cairns and the Gold Coast – the two most popular destinations in the state – was higher when compared to other areas in Queensland, Australia. The researcher attempted to explain the reason for high crime rates in these two locations by examining the types of crime committed and found that they attracted different types of criminals. Kelly (1993: 9) speculated that both the climate and the stage of tourism development might well have played a role in the types of crime committed at these tourist areas. The data used by Kelly compared offences against persons and those directed at property. Prideaux & Dunn (1995) indicated that there was a statistical relationship between the growth of tourism and increasing crime rates on the Gold Coast in Queensland, Australia. Their study, like the work of Kelly, found that crime rates on the Gold Coast were above the state average. Prideaux & Dunn, nevertheless, claimed that up until the time of the study the Gold Coast had not suffered a decline in tourism as a consequence of high crime rates (1995: 14). Kelly (1993) and Prideaux & Dunn's (1995) research, however, failed to distinguish between crimes against locals and those committed against tourists. The analyses were based on crime experienced by all members of the community, i.e. both short term visitors and long term residents.

Most of the research studies examining the effects of tourism on crime were confined to a single city or state. Several studies have, however, examined this association in specific countries. In their study of tourism and crime in Mexico, Lin & Loeb (1977: 164) considered several factors namely:

(i) Population density during the tourist season;
(ii) Per capita incomes of hosts and tourists; and
(iii) Location of the resort in relation to an international border.

Economists were really the first academics to study the effect of tourism on criminal activity (Jud, 1975; Lin & Loeb, 1977; and Loeb & Lin, 1981). The researchers described

crime in economic terms, rather than in the more traditional sociological and psychological terms as adopted by more recent researchers (for example, Cohen, 1997; Tarlow & Muehsam, 1996). Lin & Loeb (1977, 1981) evaluated the effect of tourism on criminal activity in Mexico using an economic model. They respecified Jud's earlier model (1975) and added a dummy variable to denote the characteristics of Border States and found that their regression analyses did not support those of Jud's. They noted that tourism did not contribute to crime in Mexico. It is interesting to note that, after omitting the tourism variable from the model, they found that criminal activity in Mexico was statistically significantly affected by urbanisation (Lin & Loeb, 1977: 165). Nevertheless, as they point out, their findings were by no means conclusive. Further research is required to determine the cause of crime in Mexico, to include a per capita variable into the tourism economic-crime model and to determine whether tourism is indeed a cause of crime, and if so, which crimes (Lin & Loeb, 1981: 325).

Pizam (1982) analysed tourism and crime throughout the USA. He examined the relative contribution of tourism to various types of crimes throughout a nation-wide survey. His analysis considered an extensive number of sociodemographic variables as well as tourism predictors for each of the nine types of crimes. Pizam found that tourism had a weak but statistically significant relationship to four types of crimes, namely: robbery, rape, property crimes and aggravated assault. His findings indicated limited evidence to support that tourism contributes to crime in the USA, but claimed it was possible that 'in some communities one might find a high correlation between tourism and crime' (1982: 10).

Although not conclusive, the evidence provided by these studies, suggests that tourism leads to increased levels of crime among the local population tourist areas. As Chesney-Lind & Lind (1986: 185) reiterated: 'while increases in the number of tourists might lead to general increases in crime throughout the community by contributing to urbanisation and other forms of social change'. Notwithstanding, there are many logical reasons for expecting crime rates to be higher among tourists than among local residents. Tourists have certain personal and behavioural attributes which tend to make them 'desirable victims' – they often carry large sums of money or valuable items such as cameras and

jewellery, which can easily be sold by criminals (Chesney-Lind & Lind, 1986: 178). In addition, the changing demographics resulting in an older and some believe, more vulnerable traveller, may contribute to an increase in crime rates (Olsen & Pizam, 1998: 2). As Ryan (1993: 176) has so aptly observed, 'tourism is often the provider of victims'.

Researchers, however, have been cautious when attempting to suggest an association between an increase in crime and the development of tourism. Most researchers noted the difficulty in assessing the impact of tourism on crime (Milman & Pizam, 1988: 191). Fujii & Mak (1980: 34) point out that 'although it would be attractive to assume that tourism-generated crimes are committed only against tourists because visitors are generally considered to be easy targets, data limitations prevent us from identifying the direct victims of crime'. Limitations in available data, thus, have constrained research to prove whether tourism as an industry increases crime throughout communities, or whether it is the victimsation of tourists themselves that accounts for the observed increase in crime rates.

As with the 'demonstration effect' and the socio-cultural impacts of tourism discussed earlier, the link between tourism and crime is far more complex. This is because the growth of tourism may be associated with a broader process of modernisation and development which could in fact be the real underlying source of social instability and hence criminal behaviour. As Mathieson & Wall (1982: 145) pointed out, the causes of crime, therefore, may not solely be confined to tourism. Increased crime rates at specific destinations may also be a result shared by other industries at the destination, such as farming, agriculture, and mining industries. For instance, labourers and migrant workers might participate in criminal behaviour post-work. Nevertheless, tourism lends itself to being blamed, since this places the guilt on 'others' and diverts the scrutiny away from more fundamental problems in society. In addition, tourism-related crimes are highly publicised, thus resulting in a disproportionate emphasis on tourism as the reason for such activity.

Begging, gambling and prostitution, which are often social consequences of the tourism industry, are also associated criminal activity in certain host communities. For example, in his study into the impact of casino gambling on US communities Long, (1996: 341) found it led to increases in crime rates. Another factor that should be taken into consideration when viewing the relationship between crime and the tourism industry is that tourism growth is usually accompanied by an increase in the local population, which means that the actual number of crimes might increase without any actual growth in the per capita crime rate. Practically, it would be reasonable to suggest that there is an association between crime and tourism development, especially given the increased numbers of people lured to a tourist resort during a defined season, and also that tourists represent easy and lucrative prey to local criminals.

Several other studies assessing residents' perceptions of the impacts of tourism upon crime and undesirable activities have been conducted. Such studies confirmed, that in most cases, the local host communities attributed the presence of various types of crimes and undesirable activities to tourism. Nevertheless, this research found that most respondents were in favour of tourism (depending on their level of involvement with the industry) although rising crime levels was cited as a major concern (Lankford & Howard, 1994; Milman & Pizam, 1988; Ross, 1992). Several studies found that tourism did not contribute to perceptions of increased crime rates in respondents' communities (Allen *et al.*, 1993; Liu & Var, 1986; Rothman, 1978; Var, Kendall & Tarakcioglu, 1985). For instance, Liu & Var (1986) found that residents in Hawaii were reluctant to attribute social costs such as crime to tourism. Only a third of respondents felt that increased crime rates were a result of tourism (Liu & Var, 1986: 205). In addition, their findings indicated that dependency on tourism-related jobs did not appear to be a significant factor in residents' perceptions of tourism development in Hawaii. They did, however, note that tourists are 'legitimate' targets for criminals. Similarly, Allen *et al.* found that residents' attitudes in numerous rural Colorado towns in the US were relatively neutral with regard to the effects of tourism development on crime rates (1993: 31). Var, Kendall & Tarakcioglu attempted to determine the social impacts of tourism as perceived by residents in a resort coastal town

in Turkey. Their findings suggested that residents indicated that more than 80 per cent did not regard tourism as contributing to crime rates (1985: 656).

The impact of touristic events on criminal activity (event-related crime) has only recently started receiving attention. Barker, Page & Meyer (2002) examined the impact of the 2000 America's Cup Yacht Race on crime rates in New Zealand. The research was ignited by Schiebler, Crotts & Hollinger's (1996) 'hot spots' theory study, which argues that crimes against tourists are likely to cluster in areas involving the concentration of tourism attractions. Thus, they expected crime to be higher in areas hosting a special event of such magnitude as the America's Cup. The researchers aimed to establish not only if the America's Cup led to an increase in crime rates, but also if international tourists were more likely to be victims of crime than domestic tourists. They found that crime did increase, although at a rate that was less than the proportional change in population during the Cup. Findings also revealed that although there was no significant difference between the victimsation rates of international and domestic tourists, the types of crime experienced by the former differed from that of the latter. For instance, international tourists were more likely to be the victims of theft from accommodation, while theft from vehicles were higher among domestic visitors (Barker *et al.*, 2002: 779). The researchers noted the limitations on relying on unreliable crime data, in particular the recording and reporting of crimes during the event. Furthermore, just as other tourism-crime researchers had observed, Barker *et al.* (2002) found it problematic to suggest a direct link between an increase in crime, the increase in tourist activity, and in this case, the hosting of a special event.

Another new theme of tourism and crime research has examined the role of the tourist as an aggressor and not solely the causality of crime. Much of the research in this domain has been conducted by Ryan (1991a), Ryan & Kinder, (1996a and 1996b) and Ryan & Martin (2001) who investigated the role of the tourist participating in deviant activities while on holiday. These activities included prostitution (Ryan & Kinder, 1996a, and 1996b), drug taking (Ryan, 1991), and frequenting strip bars (Ryan & Martin, 2001). Although these

studies represent another form of tourism contributing towards crime, this topic is not within the scope of this research.

3.4 The impact of crime on tourism

Within the tourism and crime spectrum, there is sufficient evidence to suggest that serious acts of violence committed against tourists will have a negative impact on tourism demand (Bloom, 1996; Dimanche & Lepetic, 1999; Elliot & Ryan, 1993; Fujii & Mak, 1980; Kelly, 1993; Levantis & Gani, 2000; Pizam & Mansfeld, 1996b, 1996c; Prideaux, & Dunn, 1995; Tarlow, 2000; Turner & Ash, 1975). Literature within this sphere has also focused more specifically on tourist victimisation at certain destinations (Allen, 1999; Chesney-Lind & Lind, 1986; Crotts, 1996; de Alburquerque & McElroy, 1999, 2001; Harper, 2001; Schiebler, Crotts & Hollinger, 1996). Tourists and certain tourist locations, therefore, have been found to be vulnerable to crime. Visitors, regarded by criminals as 'easy targets' or those that happen to be in the wrong place at the wrong time, may become crime victims, and ensuing media attention may have an adverse affect on prospective travellers' perceptions and ultimately on visitor numbers to such destinations. The main theme of these studies, therefore, has been to examine crime rates against tourists impacting certain tourist locations and tourist demand to those destinations.

Following his (1999) typology of acts of crime and violence at tourist destinations, Pizam put forward a number of propositions as to the relationship between acts of crime and violence at destinations and their differential effects of tourism demand as shown in table 2.2. The results of his study, which entailed a review of over 300 cases of criminal acts occurring at tourist destinations world-wide, proposed that acts of crime and violence, which happen on a frequent basis, are likely to have a long-lasting effect on tourism demand (1999: 8). The researcher also suggested that tourist destinations experiencing high crime rates against either local residents or visitors in the past (for example New York and New Orleans) acquired the image of unsafe destinations, which caused a significant decline in their tourist visitation (1999: 7). Pizam added another factor that has received

little attention in tourism and crime research, namely violence and criminal acts against non-tourists such as local residents, political figures and famous personalities, and its effect on tourism demand (1999: 7).

Various studies have attempted to assess the impact of crime at various international tourist destinations. Bloom (1996), for instance, measured the economic impact of crime on South Africa's tourism industry. He pointed out that a slight decrease in international tourist numbers (as a result of high crime rates and reporting thereof) could result in significant income losses to a country or region's economy. He claimed that a decline of 2.5 per cent in foreign tourists to the Western Cape region as a result of crime could cause total (direct and indirect) income losses of $6.9 million. A 15 per cent decrease would result in losses of $42 million (1996: 96). Taking into account that these figures were based on a rand conversion, which has since lost well over half of its value against the dollar in recent years, and based on a region, the effect on the country as a whole could be formidable.

Schiebler, Crotts & Hollinger (1996) reported that several murders involving international tourists in Florida in 1992 generated considerable media attention and resulted in a significant decline in visitation. However, the researchers pointed out that crime rates against non-residents had declined at the same time. New Orleans serves as another example of a study area that has been examined because it experiences high crime rates. In New Orleans both locals and tourists have been the victims of murder and robbery during the 1990s. A study by Dimanche & Lepetic (1999: 22) described how high numbers of crime incidences in New Orleans led to widespread negative media reporting. Although the researchers claim that the city's tourism industry has not yet suffered, crime remains a short-term threat Pizam, Tarlow & Bloom (1997) also previously examined these three situations: Cape Town (in the Western Cape, South Africa), New Orleans and Orlando in Florida. Rather than attempting to examine the effects of crime rates on these city's tourist flows, their study sought to detail how the three destinations' law enforcement agencies and tourism industries dealt with preventing and reducing tourist-oriented crime.

Along with the South Pacific islands the Caribbean was the focus of a study carried out by

Levantis & Gani (2000), who investigated the effect of crime on tourism in these developing island economies. They found that tourism demand has been adversely affected in those countries by crime problems. The researchers made use of time-series analysis over a 23-year period (1970–1993) to suggest that high crime levels were impeding tourism growth in eight South Pacific and Caribbean tropical islands (2000: 959). Their research confirmed that deteriorating law and order in a destination country constrained international tourism flows largely due to negative news reporting being disseminated to tourist-generating countries.

In recent years, certain destinations worldwide have suffered significant declines in overseas visitation in response to widely reported terrorist attacks against tourists. A number of research papers have focused on terrorism acts affecting the tourism industry (including the seminal work of Richter & Waugh, 1986). However, a detailed review of these articles would exceed the scope of this study. It is still worth considering a couple of examples, which illustrate the impact of such events. Egypt, for example, lost an estimated US$1 billion in tourism revenue due to the publicity surrounding the murder of three and the wounding of a dozen foreign tourists by Muslim extremists over a 12-month period (Associated Press, 1996). Elliot & Ryan (1993) pointed out that the activities of nationalist terrorist groups reported in the French media was effecting tourism in Corsica during the late 1980s. Reports of a number of French tourists being killed have resulted in a decline of the number of French tourists visiting the island (1993: 292). Similarly, Bar-on (1996) presented an example of how a wave of terrorist attacks in Israel affected US visitor arrivals. Goodrich (2002) and Pizam (2002) also noted the vulnerability of the tourism industry to terrorism in light of the events of September 11, 2001.

There are also less serious crimes, such as theft, that do not gain as much media attention and probably have less impact on the tourism industry. Nonetheless, these less serious crimes are likely to be experienced by far more tourists than the more serious types of crimes mentioned above.

A research theme that is relevant to this study is the tendency of tourists to fall victim to crime (Chesney-Lind & Lind, 1986; Crotts, 1996; Mawby, Brunt & Hambly, 1999; Walmsley, Boskovic & Pigram, 1983). It can be assumed that the probability of a tourist being a crime victim is no greater than that of the local residents of the area they are visiting. As Prideaux (1996: 73) points out, 'neither residents nor tourists are exempt from the possibility of becoming a crime victim'. Consequently, the likelihood of visitors finding themselves victims of crime is determined by existing levels of criminal activity in that area. In other words, the high rates of tourist victimisation occur at destinations that also experience high crime rates of crime. This proposition is supported by Schiebler, Crotts & Hollinger who stated that 'crimes against tourists are more likely to occur in those areas that already are experiencing a disproportionately high level of crime' (1996: 48). Conversely, in those areas with low rate of crime such as the coastal area near Malaga, Spain, the crime experience of tourists is correspondingly low. Strangeland, for instance, found that crime rates in tourist areas were no higher than those in the city of Malaga (1998: 74). Nevertheless, he reported that tourists were more susceptible to crime such as burglaries and petty thefts in tourist areas in the province of Malaga (1998: 75).

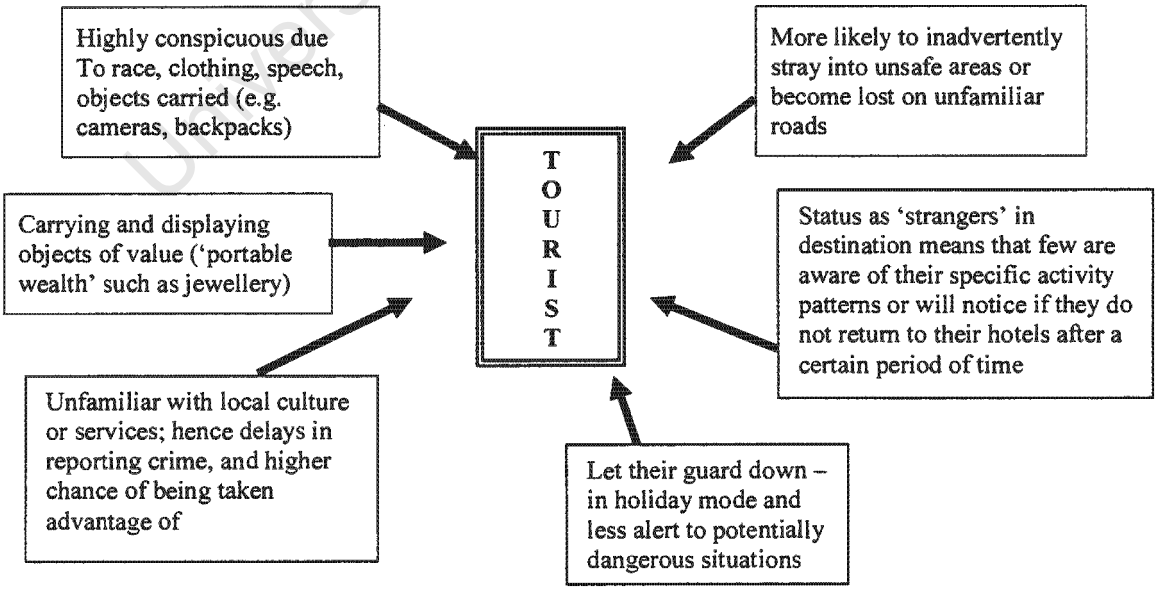
These findings support the notion that tourist locations can be 'hot spots' for certain types of crimes (Sherman, Gartin & Beurger, 1989). Areas ranging from tourist resorts to transportation hubs may be considered by criminals as desirable locations for conducting crime, whether against tourist or locals. Crotts (1996) and Scheibler, Crotts & Hollinger (1996) attempted to place the location and incidence of crimes against tourists using the hot spots theory along with the routine activities theory, both extracted from human ecology. The hot spots theory, therefore, examines locations, which provide convergent opportunities in which predatory crime can occur. Routine activity theory views criminal acts in the course of their everyday, routine activities such as work and leisure; criminals need to satisfy themselves by taking something of value from victims (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Scheibler, Crotts & Hollinger, 1996). The theory postulates that in order for these criminal acts to occur, three basic elements are required: a suitable victim or target, a motivated offender, and a relative absence of police and private security forces (or 'guardianship'). Any one of these components missing is enough to prevent the criminal

act from occurring (Crotts, 1996: 4). The concept behind the two theories is that they provide a useful way understanding how and where local communities expose tourists to the risk of criminal victimisation. Walmsley, Boskovic & Pigram stated the need for such proactive measures to combat 'crimes against tourists' stating the need 'to identify the features of tourist areas which make them conducive to crime, and to isolate the criteria which make some tourist locations more susceptible to crime than others' (1983: 155).

Tourists may also be 'accidental' victims of crime in non-tourist areas and 'happen to be in the wrong place at the wrong time' (Ryan, 1993: 177). Nevertheless, the possibility of tourists finding themselves victims is enhanced by the fact that they possess a number of different behavioural attributes, which may contribute to the fact that they are more susceptible to crime than local residents. First, they are known to carry large sums of money and valuables which are 'economically disposable' such as currency, passports and cameras. Indeed, tourists carry forms of 'portable wealth', including cameras and jewellery, which are among the most frequently stolen items (Chesney-Lind & Lind, 1986: 178). In order to avoid being victims of crime, many tourists make an effort to "blend in" with the locals. Such behaviour may involve keeping a low profile, reducing the amount of portable wealth and not identifying themselves with other foreigners. Realistically, blending in is difficult for tourists, whose behaviour and the places they visit easily separate them from locals (Sonmez, 1998). In addition, language differences are always going to create barriers that are perceived as troublesome (Basala & Klenosky, 2001). Second, while on holiday tourists are relaxed and tend to be more careless taking part in risk-taking activities such as patronising nightclubs and bars, consuming alcohol, venturing into areas which locals consider 'dangerous'; all of which facilitate their victimisation. As Turner and Ash noted (1975: 230) 'leisure tempts one to lower one's guard'. In addition, some tourists participate in activities that they might not consider in their home environment, such as purchasing narcotics and 'picking up' prostitutes or strangers (Chesney-Lind & Lind, 1986: 179). Third, if victimised, tourists might be less likely to press charges in the event of the criminal being caught. As Karmen (1984: 66) states, 'a tourist's average length of stay is a few days to a few weeks is invariably too brief to see a case through to a conclusion'. The potential gain for criminals, thus, may be high and the

risk of detection is low (Mathieson & Wall, 1982: 151). A return to the tourist area to testify in a subsequent court case to provide evidence would mean extra costs for the tourist; the expense of travel and having time off from work. Furthermore, the tourist is likely to be reluctant to return to the scene of the possible traumatic experience. It is for these reasons that Chesney-Lind & Lind reported lower prosecution rates for crime in tourist areas than non-tourist zones in Hawaii (1986: 180). Additionally, representatives of the law-enforcing agencies may feel less obligated to deal fairly with tourists, especially if the visitor has a reputation for being involved in an illegal activity. As Cohen (1987: 185) point out, 'as a temporary and highly visible stranger, ignorant of the customs and laws of the host country and socially isolated, he may easily become a victim'. Fourth, introducing a large number of 'aliens' such as tourists into a community alters its environment. This results in an isolation effect, which lessons the likelihood of local residents observing and reporting any suspicious activity and thus increases the incidence of victimisation (Fujii & Mak, 1980: 28). What remains evident is that tourists are relatively affluent with their valuables and dress and when travelling particularly to poorer countries, make tempting targets for local criminals (see figure 3).

Figure 3. Factors that make tourists targets of criminal activity



Crimes committed against tourists is clearly not a new phenomenon (Tarlow & Muehsam, 1996: 12), yet researchers have been circumspect to link tourist victimisation directly to tourism demand. This is because there are many exogenous factors are involved in the tourist's decision-making process. Some of these factors include economic considerations, accessibility, climatic, changes in consumer trends, the amount of 'push' and 'pull' by intermediaries and the effectiveness of marketing campaigns. Furthermore, tourism researchers have been hindered by a lack of available data because most law-enforcing agencies do not distinguish between crime committed against tourists and crime committed against residents. As Fujii & Mak (1980: 34) note, data limitations often prevent researchers from being able to identify the direct victims of crime. Tourism-crime researchers, have therefore either relied on interviewing tourists as they leave the destination (Strangeland, 1998) or made use of police records that identified victims as tourists (Chesney-Lind & Lind 1986, de Albuquerque & McElroy, 1999; Schiebler, Crotts & Hollinger, 1996).

Various studies have attempted to compare visitor and resident victimisation rates to illustrate that tourists are more likely to be victims of crime than residents (de Albuquerque & McElroy, 1999; Chesney-Lind & Lind, 1986; Cohen, 1987; Crotts, 1996; Harper, 2001; Mawby, Brunt & Hambly, 1999). Most notably, Harper (2001) analysed the findings from these victimisation studies to compare tourist and resident populations' crime experiences. Harper noted that the crime experience of residents was greater than that of tourists in all of the studies except for Schiebler, Crotts & Hollinger's (1996) Florida study. Nevertheless, Harper concluded that as the crime experience increases for locals, it also tends to increase for visitors (2001: 1055). This is consistent with most of the studies, which shared the general consensus that crime against tourists is more likely to happen in areas that experience high crime rates.

Chesney-Lind & Lind (1986) contrasted tourist and resident victimisation in two Hawaiian holiday resorts during the late 1970s and early 1980s. In order to separate crime rates for tourists and residents they used police data on the residential status of crime victims and compared these to the average daily tourist and resident sub-populations. They calculated

annual average crime rates per 100,000 of the population for residents and tourists in Honolulu and Kauai. They noted tourist-crime rates (for burglary and violent crimes) were distinctly higher in Honolulu. Indeed total crime rates for tourists in Honolulu were almost 30 per cent above that of residents (1986: 173) and well above that of either the Hawaii or US average (1986: 174). Chesney-Lind & Lind (1986: 176) point out, violent crimes (against local residents) in Honolulu ranked one of the lowest compared to other US cities and that the state of Hawaii the rate of violent crimes are generally below that of mainland US cities. However, for Kauai – a less developed tourist island – tourists were less likely to be victims of violent crime and vehicle theft. Notwithstanding, Chesney-Lind & Lind (1986: 184) concluded, tourists in both study areas were more susceptible to robbery and rape than residents. The research by Chesney-Lind & Lind (1986) illustrates that tourists are in fact more likely to be victims of property crimes and certain violent crimes than residents in the study areas, especially in Honolulu. The researchers argued that the victimisation of tourists may well account for the observed increase in crime rates, and hence a statistical relationship between tourism and crime (1986: 176). Fujii & Mak (1980) found similar results in their study of tourism and crime in Hawaii. They used a formula to calculate the average daily census of tourists and found an increasing number of tourists in the population produced significantly higher levels of burglary and rape.

A study by de Albuquerque & McElroy (1999) compared visitor and resident victimsation rates in Barbados, in the Caribbean. In order to calculate tourist population figures they converted the transient tourist population into a resident population by employing similar methods previously used by Fujii & Mak (1980) and Chesney-Lind & Lind (1986). The analysis found that tourists visiting Barbados were more likely to be victims of property crime and robbery, whereas residents are more likely to be victims of violent crime namely murder and aggravated assault. As with Chesney-Lind & Lind's (1986) study, de Albuquerque & McElroy (1999) were unable to suggest a positive link between tourist victimisation rates and tourist density levels.

Cohen proposed that different types of tourists have varying degrees of likelihood of becoming victims of local criminals as well as law enforcement agencies. He claimed that

non-institutionalised (explorer-type) travellers are more vulnerable because they travel outside the environmental bubble and are hence more exposed to criminals than conventional mass tourists (1987: 195). Cohen, whose study was based on observations of tourists in Thailand, a country highly frequented by 'explorer'-type backpackers. In a subsequent study, Cohen claimed that mass tourists receive the most protection or 'guardianship' by the host destination, whereas the non-institutionalised receive the least and occasionally persecution by law-enforcement agencies (1997: 9). Ryan (1993: 174) however, argued that the risk-taker explorer traveller is in fact taking less risk than the 'risk-averse' mass tourist who patronises the mass tourist destination. Certainly it appears that the mass tourist, on leaving the protection of the tourism industry, is perhaps a more lucrative target than most thrifty backpackers/travellers.

In general, the literature on tourism and crime, although not conclusive, suggests that high rates of tourist victimsation occur at destinations that also experience high crime rates. Prior research also implies that crime rates tend to be higher in tourist seasons, and tourists are victims of particular types of crime. It can therefore be postulated that concern with personal safety is a major factor influencing tourists' decisions. To gain an understanding of the problem of crime at tourist destinations, it is necessary to explore the separate but related issue of tourist perceptions of crime in order to ascertain the impact that image has on destination choice.

4. Decision-making

It has been suggested that mathematics, economics and social sciences have contributed to the theoretical understanding of decision-making (Lee, 1971; Scholz, 1983). Two approaches have emerged from this literature, namely deterministic and probabilistic. The former proposes that individuals (or groups) are economically rational and will choose that alternative which is perceived have the greatest attractiveness or utility (Berkeley & Humphreys, 1982; Girt, 1976; Halperin, Richardson & Constanzo 1984; Mansfeld, 1992; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Pipkin, 1982). The latter probabilistic approach is based on

random-utility theory. This approach assumes that choice among alternative destinations is a probabilistic matter and that utilities are actually probabilities (Berkeley & Humphreys, 1982; Halperin, Richardson & Constanzo, 1984; Mansfeld, 1992; Pipkin, 1982). The probabilistic framework is widely used in decision-making research and is preferred because it assumes that the utility and utilities of an assessed alternative are composed of rational and irrational elements (Mansfeld, 1992: 400). By examining both rational and irrational components, the researcher can convey a more pragmatic understanding of their nature and their effects on the decision-making process.

4.1 Consumer decision-making

Consumer behaviour refers to the process of acquiring and organising information in the direction of a purchase decision and of using and evaluating products and services. This process encompasses the stages of searching for, purchasing, using, evaluating, and disposing of products and services.

Consumer behaviour research started in the mid-1960s (Engel, Kollat & Blackwell, 1968; Howard & Sheth, 1969; Nicosia, 1966). The field of consumer behaviour, which is embedded in the marketing concept, has received increasing attention in recent years. Several factors have contributed to the growing interest in consumer behaviour, including the heterogeneous needs of consumer markets, the increase in new product development, environmental concerns, and the opening of global markets (Schiffman & Kanuk 2000: 4). In their early (1968) study of consumer behaviour Engel *et al.* noted the systematic stages that individuals go through when purchasing goods and services. These stages move from motivation to information seeking and to evaluation of alternatives, ending with choice. Howard & Sheth (1969) later added the study of routinised response behaviour. Their model of buyer behaviour was significant at the time because it highlighted the importance of inputs to the consumer buying process, and suggests ways in which the consumer orders these inputs before making a final decision. Howard subsequently (1977) suggested that even simple, routine behaviour is a result of the application of choice criteria to

product/service alternatives. He also noted that the process extends to include those actions after choice.

Engel, Blackwell & Miniard (1985) later developed a detailed five-stage consumer decision-making model (need recognition, search for information, alternative evaluation, purchase, and outcomes). Engel, Blackwell & Miniard's (1985) paradigm has since become the most widely accepted model of consumer decision-making for nonroutinised purchases, and several authors have adapted the model in the context of tourism presenting the stages using different names. For instance, Crompton (1992: 429–430) proposed a six-stage individual tourist's destination process model: problem recognition, passive internal search, initial consideration set, late consideration set, destination selection, and postpurchase evaluation.

According to Schiffman & Kanuk (2000: 446), consumers evaluate potential alternatives (choice sets) during the first stage of the decision-making process by making use of an 'evoked' (the specific product/service brand alternatives considered for purchase). A consumer's evoked set is distinguished from his or her 'inept set' (which consists of brands excluded from consideration due to negative perceptions, undesirable characteristics, or negative feedback), and from the 'inert set' (brands about which consumers have insufficient information or are undecided).

Various extended decision-making models have been widely discussed in marketing literature. The decision-making process can be viewed as three distinct interlocking stages (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000: 6). The first stage begins with a stimulus, which motivates consumers. This influence is in the form of two sources of information: the marketing efforts by the product/service (the marketing mix components: promotion, price, the product, and where it is sold) and the external influences on consumers (family, friends, business associates, neighbours, peers, social class, noncommercial such as news media, consumer groups, and cultural and subcultural memberships). The cumulative input of all of these factors is likely to affect what consumers purchase. The second stage, the process, involves consumer's recognition of a need and that purchasing /consuming a

product/service will satisfy a need or solve a problem. It is at this stage that the consumer weighs up the risks of purchase (such as uncertainties associated with the product/service) against the benefits (such as satisfying a need) (Evans & Berman, 1994). If benefits outweigh risks, then the consumer proceeds to search for information acquiring a set of alternatives. If the consumer has previous experience in purchasing a similar product/service this stage is likely to be internal relying on (for example, personal experience), but if is there is limited previous experience then the consumer is likely to make use of external sources of information. At this point the consumer evaluates product/service alternatives by ranking their attributes according to their features. The last stage, i.e. output, consists of two interrelated post purchase activities: purchase behaviour (for instance, a discount offered by the product/service provider evoking trial purchase) and postpurchase evaluation (such as satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the product/service, repeat purchase) (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000: 7).

4.2 Perceived risk in consumer decision-making

Beginning in the late 1960s, the concept of risk received attention as a factor influencing consumer decision-making (Barnes, 1977; Bauer, 1967; Bettman, 1973; Cox, 1967; Cunningham, 1967; Engel, Kollat & Blackwell, 1973; Jacoby & Kaplan, 1972; Popielarz, 1967; Prasad, 1975; Roselius, 1971; Ross, 1975; Schiffman, 1972; Sheth & Vanketesan, 1968). Bauer (1967) first introduced the concept of 'perceived risk' in marketing literature. Bauer's theory asserted that, because the consequences of purchase decisions are not known with certainty, consumers view such decisions as involving risk. Bauer proposed that perceived risk consisted of two definite aspects of uncertainty: *uncertainty* about the outcome of a decision and uncertainty concerning the adverse *consequences* of buying a product or service (1967: 24). Cunningham (1967: 83) elaborated on Bauer's (1067) work and provided a two-factor view of risk-taking. The first aspect is related to making a wrong choice (individuals manage this type of risk by seeking further information about the product or service). The second aspect is concerned with the amount, which is at stake in making the decision (individuals deal with this type of risk by either reducing the stake or

delaying/avoiding the decision). In this way, both the probability and the outcome of each purchase decision are uncertain. Bauer noted his interest in perceived (subjective) risk and not actual (objective) risk (1967: 30). Ross pointed out that Bauer clearly viewed perceived risk as not only related to consumers' pre-decision information acquisition and processing activity but to post-decision processes as well (1975: 2). Thus, Bauer describes the concept of dissonance as the 'ways in which people reduce perceived risk after decisions are made' (1967: 32).

Engel, Kollat & Blackwell positioned risk specifically in the 'external search and alternative evaluation' stage of decision-making and noted its importance: 'decision-making occurs in order to reduce perceived risk to tolerable levels' (1973: 376). Bettman (1973) constructed a model and measurement system for perceived risk, including 'inherent risk' and 'handled risk'. Inherent risk is the latent risk associated with product class, whereas handled risk refers to the risk perceived after information processing and risk reduction mechanisms in relation to a particular situation (1973: 184). Bettman noted that these two types of risk had been confused in subsequent research literature with various authors citing one or the other risk types and not making a distinction between the two (1973: 184). In his research Bettman studied household consumables and found that various products (toothpaste, margarine) related to inherent risk and others (instant coffee and beer) rated higher for handled risk.

In his book on risk-taking and information handling in consumer behaviour, Cox (1967: 11) examined three main processes involved in dealing with uncertainty or information handling: acquisition, processing, and transmission. Information acquisition refers to the way that consumers, when uncertain about the purchase of a product, proceed to acquire further information to reduce risk or uncertainty. After acquiring information, the consumer then proceeds to process the information – what not to use, what to respond to, what to remember, or what to forget. Finally, some consumers obtain and transmit information from personal influences such as word-of-mouth, or from opinion leaders. Cox's (1967) compilation of papers noted several information acquisition and processing constructs significant to this research including word-of-mouth, opinion leadership,

sources of information, levels of conversation; albeit in the context of mainly household consumer goods. More recently perceived risk and its effect on information handling behaviour has been studied by Dowling & Staelin (1994) who found that perceived risk influences intended search behaviour. The researchers noted that respondents conducting various shopping activities made use of more search activities in situations that they perceived to be high risk and that respondents' use of these activities are influenced by their perceived benefit of the activity to reduce perceived risk (1994: 132).

Various other studies have asked respondents to evaluate the importance of information sources. In general the more intensive information search activity occurs when risk rises (Murray, 1991). Word-of-mouth was found to be a very important 'reliever' in many high-risk situations (Arndt, 1967; Roselius, 1971; Sheth & Venkatesan, 1968). For instance, in his study Roselius (1971) measured and analysed 11 types of risk reduction methods across four types of loss (ego, time, hazard, and money). Roselius (1971: 56) noted, consumers can be as uncertain about the best method of risk reduction as they are about whether to make a purchase. Perception of risk causes the consumer, therefore, to select numerous preferred risk-relieving devices best suited for the type of risk involved to aid a purchase decision. Roselius (1971: 58) found that respondents rated word-of-mouth (from friends and family) highly as a risk reliever for all types of losses except for 'hazard loss'. The researcher suggested the need for marketers to determine the kind of risk perceived by their customers and then create a mix of risk relievers suited to their combination of buyer type and loss type (1971: 61).

Other studies have identified specific components of risk associated with consumer decisions. Typically these classifications included components such as financial risk, performance risk, physical risk, psychological risk, social risk and time loss risk. Jacoby & Kaplan (1972) examined the importance of various components of risk for a set of 12 products and services. Their five components included performance (product failure) risk, physical (safety) risk, psychological (self-image) risk, social risk, and financial risk. Although the study was conducted on students, findings show considerable variance across different products and services. Several studies have examined the various factors that are

likely to influence levels of perceived risk including the amount of previous experience with a product or service, degree of interest and preference (Popielarz, 1967; Schiffman, 1972).

4.3 Tourist decision-making

The factors influencing impacts of tourism have already been discussed. These impacts ultimately stem from the multitude of individual decisions to visit particular destinations. It is appropriate, therefore, to focus on the decision-making processes of tourists. The need for a better understanding of how tourists go through a process of choosing which destination to go to has become more important in recent years as a result of the rapid growth of tourism demand and the tourist industry (Mansfeld, 1992: 414). Furthermore, as van Raaij & Francken (1984: 101) point out, 'holidays are a major consumer expense category. Individuals devote considerable attention to deciding whether to take one or not (generic decision), to making joint decisions as husband, wife, and children, and to acquiring information from different sources and media'. For the purpose of this study research will be confined to leisure tourist decision-making, i.e. those tourists that choose destinations for the purpose of leisure. To the best of the researcher's knowledge there is no research with specific reference to the decision-making of business tourists (who do not have the same amount of freedom when choosing which destination to go to). It cannot be assumed therefore that the business tourist decision-making process is the same as leisure destination choice process.

Since Goodrich's (1978) seminal work on tourists' preferences for tourist destinations, increasing attention has been paid to the decision-making of tourists as individuals. This research has focused on tourists' motives for travel preferences (Mansfeld, 1992; Pearch & Caltabiano, 1983), attitudes towards a destination or its image (Um & Crompton, 1990), structure of vacation destination choice sets (Crompton, 1992), influence of cognitive distance on destination choice (Ankomah, Crompton, & Baker (1996), and the relationship between personal values and destination choice (Munson, 1984; Dichter, 1984; Pitts &

Woodside, 1986). In addition, researchers have also examined the decision-making of tourists as families (Jenkins, 1978; Nichols & Snepenger, 1988, 1999; Ritchie & Filiatrault, 1980;).

Most tourist decision-making studies have mirrored consumer decision-making research focusing on decision modeling and the analysis of choice sets. For instance, Engel, Kollat & Blackwell's (1968) decision-making process has since been incorporated as a central component of the general models of a 'tourist's destination-choice process' by applying the evoked, inept, and inert choice sets to holiday destinations (Crompton, 1992; Um & Crompton, 1990; Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Woodside & Sherrell, 1977). This concept provides a framework for conceptualising how tourists filter through the large number of destinations available to them. The concept of choice sets assumes that there is a funneling process, which involves a relatively large initial set of destinations being reduced to a smaller late set, from which a final destination is selected. According to Crompton (1992: 423), the individual's structures of these choice sets are shaped both by internal forces such as potential tourist' motives, and external forces including previous experience, prior knowledge, information obtained from friends, and advertisements. Howard's earlier (1969) decision-making process consisting of awareness and unawareness sets, designed with fast moveable products in mind, was deemed as too restrictive when operationalised in the context of tourism. This stands to reason given the fact that tourists are aware of numerous destinations and likewise are unaware of an infinite number of unknown destinations.

Choice sets are also most likely to be applicable when the purchase task is a new or modified one in which individuals typically seek information and evaluate alternatives, and when the purchase entails some high degree of risk (Spiggle & Sewell, 1987). Crompton suggested that many holiday destination selection decisions involving high-involvement will meet these two criteria. However, in some situations (for instance, a weekend holiday that is close to home) destination selection is likely to be a low-involvement decision (1992: 421). In these limited problem-solving situations, the concept of choice sets is unlikely to be applicable.

Ankomah, Crompton & Baker (1996: 139) added sets to the notion of choice sets to form a systematic process beginning with an initial set of destinations. Following the initial set they added a reject set (tourist discards trip) and a late set (the individual considers probable destinations within a given time period, for example, 12 months) alongside the traditional inert set. This late set is then subdivided into an action set (those destinations which potential tourists have taken some action such as requesting information) and an inaction set (places which the individual took no further action) before the final destination is selected. It is at the tourist's reject set where individuals either have had an unpleasant experience at a destination/s, or because they have acquired negative information about a destination/s.

A number of studies have focused on applying the concept of the evoked set to the tourism field by exploring how individuals develop a set of alternative travel destinations from which they make a final selection (Thompson & Cooper, 1979; Woodside, Ronkainen & Reid, 1977; Woodside & Sherrell, 1977). These studies examined tourists' attitudes to each of these alternative destinations in selecting the set of alternatives (Um & Crompton 1990: 433).

4.4 A typology of tourists based on decision-making

It is important to recognise that destination decision-making models were being developed simultaneously with the work of writers such as Cohen (1972) and Plog (1974) on the related subject of tourist typologies. Decrop (1999: 126), derived from qualitative interviews with 27 householders before and post-holiday, proposed a typology of tourists based on their holiday decision-making process style:

- The *alternative tourist* plans an extended stay at the destination. They are mass-tourism aversive.
- The *surrogate tourist* likes talking about holidays more than actually experiencing.

- The *unplanned tourist* goes on holiday spontaneously, constrained by money and time.
- The *unwilling tourist* is required to make the trip because eof work or family demands.
- The *homebody tourist* is not really involved in a holiday decision-making process.
- The *gestalt tourist* does not need to actually go on holiday.

Decrop (1999) noted the importance that there are numerous possible decision-making processes, depending on the individual, the group, and the moment in time.

4.5 Individual decision-making process

The probabilistic approach to decision-making assumes that individual tourists go through a series of decision stages of what van Raaij & Francken termed a 'vacation sequence' (1984: 102). This sequence can be described as a model for explaining the stages that tourists go through during holiday decision-making and mirrors that of Engel, Blackwell & Miniard's (1985) process. van Raaij & Francken's (1984) sequence begins with the tourist having to make a generic decision whether to stay at home or go on a holiday. This decision is made according to factors such as the amount of disposable time and money available to the individual ('expenditure'). If it is decided that a holiday will be taken, a sequence of stages then ensues: information acquisition, joint decision-making, holiday activities, and post-choice evaluation (satisfaction and complaints). The vacation sequence is controlled by push factors (such as the need for a holiday) and pull factors (destination attributes such as a warm climate) which influence travel behaviour. These push and pull factors can be viewed as travel motivators that trigger the whole decision process and channels it accordingly (Mansfeld 1992: 414). van Raaij & Francken's (1984) suggestion of a generic decision to on holiday, followed by destination choice, was supported by Crompton, who conceptualised destination choice into two phases: a generic phase which addresses the issue of whether or not to go on holiday; and a choice phase following the individual's decision to travel which is concerned with where to go (1977).

Mansfeld (1992) noted the importance of finding out what motivates tourists to actually travel and how much importance they place on particular destination attributes. According to Mansfeld (1992: 400), as a consequence of needs, expectations, and backgrounds the individual tourist theorises the attributes of a destination which are assigned positive or negative utility values, and a measurement scale is devised to enable their weighting. Following this, the individual eliminates alternatives and evaluates a smaller set of alternatives before making a destination decision (Mansfeld, 1992: 402). The researcher proposed a tourist destination-choice process: travel motivation; travel information gathering; eliminating, assessing, and choosing destination alternatives; actual travel; and evaluation of destination choice (1992: 402).

There are many factors internal and external influencing the individual's travel behaviour. Inputs refer to the personal characteristics (sociodemographics, personality, lifestyle, and situational factors), motives, attitudes, and perceptions of tourists. External inputs can be viewed as the social interactions and marketing communications to which a tourist is exposed to (Um & Crompton, 1990: 434). These internal ('personal') and external ('situational') factors are of crucial importance in contributing to individual tourist's decision-making processes. Um & Crompton (1990) identified five sets of decision processes:

(i) Formation of subjective beliefs about destination attributes (passive information search);
(ii) Decision to take a pleasure trip;
(iii) Expansion of an evoked set from awareness set of destinations;
(iv) Evolution of subjective beliefs about destination attributes of each alternative in the evoked set of destinations (active information search); and
(v) Selection of destination.

Um & Crompton's (1990) model along with the integration of the internal and external inputs produces three sets of constructs: awareness set, evoked set, and destination selection (1990: 434). Um & Crompton's 'awareness set' refers to all travel locations

which people might consider as a potential destination before any decision process about the holiday has been initiated (1990: 436), for example all the places an individual desires to travel to. The evoked set (which is located in between the awareness set and the destination choice) includes those destinations which prospective tourists might consider to be reasonable alternatives in selecting a specific destination(s) (Howard & Sheth, 1969).

Various tourism researchers have attempted to classify tourist motivations (Cohen, 1972; Gray, 1970; Lundberg, 1972; Mathieson & Wall, 1982; McIntosh, 1977; Plog, 1974; Smith, 1995). These proposed typologies range in the levels of sophistication ranging from a couple of categories through to a list of twenty motivational components. Gray (1970) for instance, used the terms 'sunlust' and 'wanderlust' to categorise tourists based on purpose of trip. The former types of tourists are motivated by the desire for relaxation and the three S's: sun, sand and sea. On the other hand Gray referred to Wanderlust tourists, as those seeking different cultures and new places. McIntosh's (1977) classification proposed four classes of motivators: physical (those relating to physical rest, sports and recreation), cultural (the desire to gain knowledge about other countries in terms of cultural activities), interpersonal (the desire to meet new people, visit friends and relatives), and status and prestige (relating to self-esteem and personal development). Tourist motivations, however, are far more complex than these typologies suggest and include pre and post-trip motivators, images based on personal experience, the influence of external sources as well as the tourists' personal factors (such as health, age, family obligations, time available), and so on.

Attitudes are important aspects of travel motivation and reflect past experience (Neulinger & Breit, 1971: 108). A visit to a destination that comprises of negative (or positive) experiences is likely to determine attitudes towards future holidays to that destination or towards the activities that the tourist participates in at the destination. Um & Crompton's (1990) study examined the role of attitudes in an individual's travel destination choice process. They found that an individual's attitude is a significant indicator for predicting destination choice from a series of alternatives (1990: 445). They reiterated Lancaster's (1966: 433) suggestion that consumers do not choose goods themselves, but rather the

attributes are possessed by the goods, and consumers use perceptions of attributes as input factors to assess utility. Um & Crompton noted that the image and attitude dimensions of a tourist destination are likely to be critical elements in the destination choice process, irrespective of whether or not they are true representations of what the place has to offer (1990: 433).

Pitts & Woodside (1986) examined the relationship between personal values and travel behaviour as a means to better understand individual travel motivation. Their findings resembled that of Howard's (1977) proposition that individuals possessing similar values will exhibit similar choice behaviour. Pitts & Woodside (1986: 24) also compared the value differences of visitors' and non-visitors to a number of tourist attractions in North Carolina. Pitts & Woodside (1986) found a marked difference between the two groups' needs and motives. Interestingly, they noted that the important values of non-visitors were the needs and motives the attractions did not perceive to satisfy.

Woodside & Lysonski (1989: 8) applied their general model of traveller destination awareness and choice to examine travellers' perceptions of and preferences for various countries. The model was built on the work of several research findings from behavioural psychology, marketing, and travel and tourism. They interviewed 92 New Zealanders who had taken a week's holiday away from home during the previous year. They posed numerous questions to measure respondents' consideration, inert, unavailable/aware, and inept sets of international travel destinations. They found a number of respondents' positive and negative associations with specific destinations. For instance, respondents frequently noted the UK, USA, and Australia as 'consideration' destinations, whereas South Africa and Iran were included as part of the unavailable/aware and inept sets more than any other countries. Woodside & Lysonski concluded that potential tourists' associations might portray what they perceive to be true and relevant about the destination and, thus, have implications for tourism marketers and planners (1989: 12).

The role played by travel information gathering is considered an important one in the destination choice process (van Raaij & Francken, 1984; Mansfeld, 1992; Mazursky, 1989)

and for first time travellers (Snepenger *et al.*, 1990). Once potential tourists are motivated to travel (although before destination alternatives have been established) they need to gather information on various aspects of the holiday. Mansfeld summarised this information gathering process into two phases: (i) information based on constraints; and (ii) information based on place (or destination) utility (1992: 406).

Travel information is available in a number of forms. As Mathieson & Wall noted, potential tourists can consult travel agents for information, study advertisements and brochures and talk to experienced travellers or friends and relatives (1982: 28). This gathered information is then weighed up against individual personal factors such as available time and money, work and family situations; destination and alternative destination(s) features (accessibility, cost); holiday features (duration, distance); and perceived risk and uncertainty of travel to and/or at the destination. Mill & Morrison suggested travel information is derived from formal (commercial environment) and informal (social environment) sources (1985: 18–19). Formal sources consist of travel agents, brochures, travelogs, guide-books, television travel programs, and maps. Informal sources consist of other peoples' influences, and knowledge based on past travel experience.

Research on tourist information search has focussed on uses of various information sources, including welcome centres/visitor information centres (Fesenmaier, Vogt & Stewart, 1993), information kiosks (Kingsley & Fesemaier, 1995), and promotional materials (Etzel & Wahlers, 1985). Research has also examined the overall use of information sources (Snepenger, Meged, Snelling & Worrall, 1990; Uysal, McDonald & Reid, 1990). More recently Fodness & Murray (1998, 1999) investigated types of information strategies in terms of various source uses. In general, research on tourist information search follows that of consumer behaviour literature, which focuses on information search related to decision-making.

Snepenger *et al.* (1990) examined first-time visitors' information gathering strategies and their travel behaviour. They found that the respondents most often consulted multiple

information sources such as travel agents, travel brochures, and friends and relatives at the destination. According to Snepenger *et al.*, first-time travellers' choice of information search strategy is influenced by the composition of the holiday group, the presence of family and friends at the destination, and prior visits along with the degree of novelty associated with the destination (1990: 13).

Mazursky studied the effects of past experience on future travel and tourism decisions and concluded that tourists' personal experience (such as prior visits and expectations) may have more of an influence on travel decisions than information acquired from external sources (1989: 342). Mazursky suggested, 'future travel intentions could be affected by an individual's opinions regarding expectations, perceptions, extent and nature of past experience, and satisfaction' (1989: 341–342).

Mazursky's (1989) findings were supported by Goodrich (1978) who examined US travellers' perceptions of numerous typical holiday destinations as well as their preferences for touristic attributes at such destinations. Using a mail survey to collect the data, Goodrich (1978: 13) found that destination preference was influenced by familiarity with, perceptions of, and knowledge about tourist destinations. The more favourable perceptions of a tourist destination increased the chances of preference for (or choice of) that destination Goodrich, however, pointed out that the findings from his study were by no means worthy of generalisation given the nature and size of the sample (230 respondents). He noted that perceptions of and preferences for a destination will differ, depending on the individual's travel experience, degree of familiarity with the destination, cultural background, prior expectations, and geographic origin (1978: 13).

4.6 Joint decision-making process

Joint (or family) decision-making research in tourism has received increasing attention since the 1970s (Cosenza & Davis, 1981; Davis & Rigaux, 1974; Filiatrault & Ritchie, 1980; Jenkins, 1978; Nichols & Snepenger, 1988, 1999). These studies have shown that

decisions involved in destination choice are not confined to individuals but also involve the family. Indeed, several studies propose that holiday planning and decisions are an entire family rather than individuals' decisions (Davis & Rigaux, 1974: 52; van Raaij & Francken, 1984: 107). Jenkins's (1978) study of married couples and their travel decision-making behaviour, on the other hand, found that husbands are the dominant force in several holiday decisions (length of holiday, period of holiday, and holiday expenses) as well as gathering travel information. Decisions regarding holiday activities, accommodation, destination choice, mode of transport, and whether to take the children were based on joint consultation. Jenkins also found that children exert an influence on destination choice-making including the activities undertaken, period of the holiday, and the selection of the destination.

Jenkin's (1978) findings were defended by a similar study conducted by Filiatrault & Ritchie (1980) who found that greater influence on the children's part tends to weaken the wife's influence. Their investigation of the influence of couples (without children) and families (with children) on travel decisions found that husbands are inclined to be more involved in decision-making in families than in couples. Filiatrault & Ritchie (1980: 133) also identified six aspects of holiday decisions:

(i) general holiday decisions (year/season);
(ii) specific holiday decisions (time/length);
(iii) budget decisions;
(iv) holiday type decisions (family vs. couple, travel cottage);
(v) holiday destination decisions (region/destination); and
(vi) accommodation decisions (type, reservation, chain, location).

Research has also suggested that the balance of decision roles between husband and wife varies at different life-cycle stages. For instance, Cosenza & Davis (1981) found that joint involvement in decision-making decreases after the first stage; thereafter couples exchange roles of decision-makers. In a replication study by Nichols & Snepenger (1988), 66 per cent of travel decisions such as destination selection and information gathering were found

to be made by consensus (husband and wife), 21 per cent were made by the husband, and 13 per cent by the wife.

4.7 Perceived risk and tourist decision-making

The role of perceived risk and its effect on tourist decision-making has only recently received the attention of tourism researchers (Cook & McCleary, 1983; Cossens & Gin, 1994; Crompton, 1992; Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Mansfeld, 1992; Moutinho, 1987; Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a, 1998b; Tsaur, Tzeng & Wanf, 1997; Um & Crompton, 1992; Witt & Moutinho, 1989). From an analysis of this literature, it is evident that when risk enters the touristic equation it has the potential to disrupt the conventional tourist decision-making process. As Sonmez & Graefe (1998a: 171) point out, 'the consumer decision-making approach, while useful for studying routine tourism decisions, might be weak in situations involving risk because the element of risk has the potential to alter the decision process'. Destination choice, therefore, as with many other kinds of choices, involves a certain amount of uncertainty (Mathieson & Wall, 1982: 26; Berkeley & Humphreys, 1982: 240). The unique characteristics of the travel product mean there is a high degree of risk associated with destination choice. Risky decisions are defined as 'choices among alternatives that can be described by probability distributions over possible outcomes'. In addition, at least one of the possible outcomes must be undesirable (or at least less desirable than the others) for risk to exist (Weber & Bottom, 1989: 114). Naturally it is logical to assume that prospective tourists will compare destination alternatives according to perceived costs and benefits. These costs may be monetary (for instance getting to the destination, accommodation, travel insurance, and so on), physical distance, time costs, and risk associated with the journey such as accident, sickness, or crime. Travel can involve varying degrees of risk, from simple disappointment to serious injury and even death.

Tourist-oriented crime and/or crime and its prevalence in certain countries comes under the broader attribute area of safety and security, which is an umbrella term for a number of different safety and security concerns such as food and water problems, road accidents and

travel safety, HIV/AIDS infection, contracting malaria, and political instability (see figure 1.1). To certain groups of individuals, 'safety' or 'feeling safe' are important factors that affect destination selection. Dowling & Staelin (1994: 120) acknowledged that the consumer involvement with the purchase decision influences the person's perception of risk. Tourism activity is considered a high involvement purchase decision. There are thus numerous risks and uncertainties associated with travel. For example, the 'outcome of a decision' such as the risk of choosing the wrong destination and the 'consequences of a decision' including consuming valuable time and money; health and danger risks; dissatisfaction as a result of the quality of services at the destination not living up to expectations. According to Mountinho (1987: 22), the degree of risk may vary with the costs involved in a decision and the degree of uncertainty that the decision will lead to satisfaction. Cook & McCleary (1983) identified time, budget, and physical distance as constraints prospective tourists take into account when evaluating destinations. Similarly, van Raaij & Francken (1984) suggested that travel decisions are likely to be made based on weighing constraints against economic situations. van Raaij & Francken (1984: 102) noted that tourists might choose less expensive options or decide to abort travel plans during economic hardship. Crompton (1977) supported these notions and added that tourists make a destination decision after time and money constraints have been measured against destination image. Tourists when choosing where to holiday, therefore, weigh up the perceived costs and benefits associated with destination alternatives. Besides risk, factors, which directly influence risky international travel, include attitude toward foreign travel, risk perception level, and income (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b: 138). It would therefore be reasonable to hypothesise that tourists are just as likely to make destination decisions based on perceived risk from various threats such as high crime rates at a destination. For instance, if a holiday destination is perceived as too high a risk (whether it be a financial or safety risk) consumers then may make alternative decisions. This viewpoint is shared by Roehl & Fesenmaier (1992: 17) who, citing early researchers in the field of risk taking, noted that destination choice involves risk when the consequences associated with the decision are uncertain and some outcomes are more desirable than others.

In his review of marketing literature, Moutinho divided tourist perceived risks into five categories namely functional risk, physical risk, financial risk, social risk, and psychological risk (1987: 23–24). Similarly, Roehl & Fesenmaier (1992) categorised seven types of risk items that had been identified in consumer behaviour literature: equipment, financial, physical, psychological, satisfaction, social, and time. Roehl & Fesenmaier applied these risk items in an attempt to understand the influence of these risk factors have on US respondent's leisure travel. The researchers classified respondents into three risk groups based on their benefits-sought and similar risks existing in their last holiday: risk neutral, functional risk, place risk. They found that respondents' risk perceptions regarding travel are situation-specific; that is a decision-maker pays more attention to certain risk dimensions than others. In essence, situational factors and types of risk perceived determine how potential tourists respond to risky situations. Roehl & Fesenmaier (1992) study results found that respondents most frequently associated financial, psychological, satisfaction, and time risk with pleasure travel (1992: 24). These results are consistent with those of Cook & McCleary's (1983) and van Raaij & Francken's findings (1984). Most notably, Roehl & Fesenmaier (1992: 24) found that those respondents perceiving the most risk were least likely to have relied on information sources. This, they noted, contrasts with consumer behaviour literature where information search is typically used as a risk reduction strategy (for example, Dowling & Staelin, 1994: 119, Roselius, 1971: 60–61). Furthermore, this is inconsistent with several tourism researchers who all noted that sources of information act as risk minimisers or 'decision reinforcers' (Um & Crompton, 1990: 441; Witt & Moutinho, 1989: 66). In addition, as Roehl & Fesenmaier (1992: 25) point out, many research studies failed to examine internal (or 'personal') sources such as past travel experience and its influence on risk reduction in the (tourist) decision-making process. This observation is shared by Sonmez & Graefe (1998a: 171) who noted past travel experience and future travel behaviour has not been studied widely. Nevertheless, several researchers noted a positive relationship between past travel experience and future travel intentions (Goodrich, 1978; Perdue, 1985; Mazursky, 1989; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a). For instance, Mazursky (1989: 341) suggested that future travel is influenced not only by the extent but also the nature of past travel experience and suggested that personal travel experience may be more of an influence than information acquired from external

sources. Similarly, Sonmez & Graefe (1998a) found that past international travel experience of US travellers influenced their future travel behaviour. Sonmez & Graefe, however, examined this relationship in the context of perceived terrorism risk. They inferred that an individual's personal travel experience is likely to affect their perceptions of safety-risk, and in turn affecting their future travel behaviour (1998a: 171–172). They conducted a survey measuring respondents' perceptions of risk using Roehl & Fesenmaier 's (1992) typology of seven types of risk dimensions and added three other risks (health, terrorism, and political instability). Sonmez & Graefe indeed found that those respondents that had gained international travel experience were more likely to compare their perceptions with reality than those respondents who lacked travel experience. They concluded that it is a traveller's perceptions that are of more detriment to travel decision-making than actual safety and risk at a particular destination (1998a: 176).

Roehl & Fesenmaier suggested that an individual's personality traits could be used to explain risk-taking behaviour (1992: 17). Therefore, in her analysis of US traveller's personal factors on international travel decisions, Sonmez applied Plog's (1974) tourist personality continuum in an effort to understand traveller's risk taking tendencies (1994: 80). According to Plog (1974: 57), individuals select where and what to do to on holiday in the light of their personality type. Plog classified travellers ranging from 'psychocentric' (preferring familiarity) to 'mid-centric' to 'allocentric' (preferring novelty) personality types. Assuming Plog's (1974) model of tourist personality types can be used to determine travel decisions and behaviour, psychocentric tourists could be deemed 'risk-avoiders', midcentrics would be 'risk-neutral', and allocentrics, 'risk-takers'.

Potential tourists generally have limited knowledge about attributes of a previously unvisited destination. Due to the intangible nature of the holiday experience, prospective tourists at the time of decision-making may know very little about certain tourism conditions (the weather, the attitudes of the hosts, etc.). Therefore most of the studies concerned with destination choice have focussed on identifying the dominant attributes of destination image. Um & Crompton (1992) suggested that potential tourists are likely to filter complicated perceptions of destination attributes into 'facilitators' and 'inhibitors'.

They explained destination choice behaviour as a function of the interaction between perceived facilitators and perceived inhibitors, which they claimed is a crucial component of destination choice process. Um & Crompton defined 'facilitators' as those beliefs about destination's attributes which help to satisfy a potential tourist's specific motives, where 'inhibitors' are those attributes which are not congruent with the tourist's motives (1992: 121). The selected destination, therefore, represents the tourist's preferences for destination attributes, which are constrained by situational variables such as travel distance, available time, and money (1992: 18).

Um & Crompton (1992) incorporated the roles of perceived facilitators and inhibitors into their reconceptualised destination choice process (from an awareness and evoked set to early evoked set and late evoked set). They noted that a sufficient time lapse between the development of early and late evoked sets, enabled individuals to consider the relative impact of facilitators and inhibitors and thus reduce the number of destinations in their consideration set of potential destination (1992: 19). Um & Crompton found that perceived facilitators employed the greatest influence at the early stage of the destination choice process and perceived inhibitors had a significant impact at the later stages (1992: 24). They further suggested that tourism behaviour models should reflect that the risk-reduction inhibitor factors are likely to be deterministic, rather than the attributes of the destination. The authors concluded that in order to reduce risk for the potential tourist, the destination should appear to offer rewards within perceived constraints.

Crompton (1977: 21) suggested that destination choice should be considered a function of the interaction between pragmatic constraints such as time, money, and skills and destination images. This was later challenged by Um & Crompton who argued that situational constraints together with attitudes should be considered at each stage of the destination choice process by operationalising them as perceived inhibitors and perceived facilitators. They concluded (1990: 446) that potential travellers may interpret a complex array of perceptions of destination attributes by simplifying them into facilitators and inhibitors in formulating destination choice decision.

4.8 Tourists' perceptions of safety

A parallel concept to that of perceived risk and tourist decision-making is that of the role of safety concerns and its effect on decision-making of tourists. If a tourist feels unsafe or threatened at a holiday destination, he or she can develop a negative impression of the destination. This can be very damaging to the destination's tourism industry and can result in the decline of tourism to the area. This can happen in the following ways:

i) Prospective tourists may decide not to visit the destination because it has a reputation for having a high crime rate.
ii) If tourists feel unsafe at a destination, they are not likely to take part in activities outside their accommodation facility.
iii) Tourists who have felt threatened or unsafe are not likely to return to the destination, and they are not likely to recommend the destination to others.

In recent years there has been a plethora of crime incidents at international tourist destinations. Tourism to Egypt, Florida, Kenya, Spain, Lebanon, and South Africa, for example, has been affected by reports that tourists have either been held hostage, accidental victims or targets of crime or terrorism resulting in injury, rape, torture, and sometimes even death. Ensuing media attention has raised tourists' concerns about safety, and ultimately led to cancellations to these destinations. In essence, the level and patterning of the tourist market, both national and international, is skewed by public perceptions of safety.

Research into the relationship between tourism and criminal acts affecting tourists' safety or perceptions of safety, started receiving attention in the early 1990s (Barker, 2000; Brunt, Mawby & Hambly, 2000; Carr, 2001; Demos, 1992; Goodrich, 1991; Milman & Bach, 1999; Pinhey & Iverson, 1994). As with risk perceptions, when safety concerns are introduced into travel decisions, they are likely to have the potential to become the overriding factors, altering the context of conventional decision-making models and causing travellers to amend travel plans. A common shared finding in this literature is that

In a similar study, Pinhey & Iverson (1994) explored safety concerns by focusing on typical holiday activities among visitors to Guam. Their study, unlike that of Demos's, used a multivariate analysis to examine Japanese visitors' socio-economic characteristics in relation to seven items of travelling safety concerns: the perception of:

(i) described safety;
(ii) sightseeing safety;
(iii) watersports safety;
(iv) in-car safety;
(v) beach activity safety;
(vi) night-life safety; and
(vii) road safety.

The author's survey of 608 respondents reported that Japanese visitors to Guam were more likely to report concerns about safety when they participated in activities that did not take them too far away from their hotels. Pinhey & Iverson (1994: 92) also noted that younger, more affluent Japanese tourists felt less safe when taking part in a number of leisure pursuits than other respondents. This latter finding supports Demos's (1992) work that visitors with higher educational status were more likely to report concerns about safety than visitors with lower educational levels. While focusing on several activities, Pinhey & Iverson's (1994) exploratory study did not take into account other tourist-related activities such as food, accommodation, transportation and visiting tourist attractions.

Milman & Bach (1999) assessed the impact of the industry's crime preventative measures on tourists' perceptions of safety in Orlando, Florida. They found that their respondents (n = 166), who were surveyed at various hotels and motels, generally perceived central Florida to be a safe destination. Their findings revealed that travellers' previous exposure to crime influenced their overall sense of security (respondents who had been crime victims prior to the trip perceived central Florida to be less safe than those who had not been victimised), and that certain security devices such as CCTV (closed-circuit television), improved lighting and the employing of hotel security staff provided visitors

with a greater sense of security (1999: 384). Notably, providing security advice, in the form of travel safety brochures to warn visitors about possible criminal activity, was not found to be an important crime prevention measure in Milman & Bach's study.

A study conducted by Carr (2001) examined the gender differences in tourists' perceptions within the city of London in the UK. Carr's study involved surveying 197 young people between the ages of 16 and 35 at a youth hostels in the center of the city. He found that a higher percentage of women than men perceived London to be dangerous place during nighttime. Carr postulated that other factors such as personality type might also be influential on an individual's perception of danger in a holiday destination (2001, 569).

Barker (2000) in his study of tourist crime in New Zealand conducted primary research on tourists' perceptions and also made use of used police tourist-crime data to examination victimisation rates. The researcher's survey of tourists visiting New Zealand found that respondents' travel decisions were greatly influenced by the issue of safety and security. Barker also found that those tourists that participated in the study did not utilize to a great extent safety precautions while holidaying in the country. However, this finding may not be so surprising given that respondents perceived New Zealand to be the safest destination compared to all those listed in his questionnaire. Indeed both analyses (survey and police data) found a low level of reported tourist victimisation rates in New Zealand. Nevertheless Barker noted a statistical relationship in the survey between criminal victimisation and certain variables, namely length of stay, travel experience and the use of safety precautions.

Brunt, Mawby & Hambly (2000) surveyed British tourists to examine their perceptions and experiences of crime while on holiday. Brunt *et al.* mail-surveyed 514 readers of *Holiday Which* – a journal published by the Consumers' Association – in the UK. Their survey questions related to holidays, perceptions and experiences of crime and safety, and the demographics of respondents. Unlike most of the other surveys, their study did not make use of official police statistics but their own findings from a victim survey. Furthermore, the survey questions related to the respondent's previous holiday encounter. Their findings,

although taken from a different perspective, correspond to existing literature such as the studies carried out by Chesney Lind & Lind (1986), de Alburquerque & McElroy (1999), and Harper (2001), which claim that tourists are more susceptible to victimisation than local residents. The research conducted by Brunt *et al.* (2000: 423) also found that tourists showed low levels of concern about safety, and even those that had been victims of crime (mainly property or motor vehicle theft) usually felt that their holiday location had been safe.

Mawby (2000) subsequently reviewed the findings of Brunt *et al.* (2000) in the context of a risk-fear paradox. He noted that criminologists have been concerned that fear of crime appears to be out of proportion to actual risk of crime. On one hand, the news reports of crime magnify the danger of crime at destinations, and on the other hand, tourists' fears might well be justified, given the evidence provided by tourism researchers of high crime rates in tourist areas and the tendency of tourists to fall victims of crime. Mawby (2000: 101) proposed that tourists should be informed of the risks of visiting tourist areas in order to reduce fear of criminal incidences while holidaying. And this, according to Mawby (2000: 119), is where the paradox lies: 'the fear of crime may be a deterrent to the growth of tourism...yet only if tourists are educated about risk...will crime (tourist-oriented) be reduced in the long term'. Prideaux & Dunn (1995: 14) noted a similar paradox in their study of crime and tourism in the Gold Coast, Australia:

> "...the influence of high crime rates on tourist perceptions of the area could prove extremely damaging ...[yet] by making visitors more aware of measures they can adopt to enhance personal safety the recent trends of increasing crime rates may be averted".

George (2003a,b) examined tourists' perceptions of safety and security while staying in Cape Town, South Africa. His study, which included 438 respondents, found that for the most part visitors felt reasonably safe, although they felt unsafe going out after dark and making use of the city's public transport. The data also showed that visitors' nationality, whether they had encountered any danger, and, to a lesser extent, their duration of stay influenced their perceptions George (2003a: 23). In light his findings, George (2003: 23)

recommended that law enforcement agencies and the tourism industry co-ordinate efforts to implement crime prevention measures in an attempt to reduce tourists' fear of crime.

5. Tourism marketing and management implications

The marketing and management perspectives of the crime-tourism relationship have been examined by a number of researchers who have been concerned with mitigating the amount of damage to the tourism industry as a result of safety and security issues at specific destinations. This research has focussed on improving safety and security at destinations (Bach, 1996; Bach & Pizam, 1996; Leong, 2001; Muehsam & Tarlow, 1995; Olsen & Pizam, 1998, 1999), implementing marketing strategies to counter negative publicity (Brayshaw, 1995; Cassedy, 1992; Dimanche & Lepetic, 1999; Pizam, 1999; Pizam, Tarlow & Bloom, 1997; Prideaux & Dunn, 1995; Prideaux, 1996; Sonmez, 1998; Tarlow & Santana, 2002), and image and travel choice (Chon, 1991; Cossens & Gin, 1994; Dann, 1996; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Roehl & Fesenmaier 1992; Walmsley & Young, 1998). By and large, the literature suggests that a greater understanding of tourists' perceptions and attitudes will aid marketing strategies (Cossens & Gin, 1994; Roehl & Fesenmaier 1992; Sonmez, 1998), and the implementation of crime prevention initiatives may reduce the opportunity for victimisation to occur (Muehsam & Tarlow, 1995; Tarlow & Santana, 2002). Information and education on safety and security needs to be disseminated to reduce the risk of tourists becoming crime victims at destinations (Brayshaw, 1995; Pizam, 1999; Prideaux, 1996; WTO, 1995, 1997b). It is also cited throughout the literature that the tourism industry requires a concerted and unified partnership between the private and public sectors as well as law-enforcement agencies to create a safe environment for tourists (Prideaux & Dunn, 1995). According to the WTO, forming and coordination partnerships are two fundamental requirements for organisations safety and security in tourism. In addition, the WTO recommends that every country develop a national policy on tourism safety commensurate with the prevention of tourist risks (WTO, 1991). The measures and systems of a National Tourism Safety Plan as proposed by the WTO are outlined in Appendix C.

In their study of New Zealanders' risk perceptions of HIV infection and attitudes in association with international travel, Cossens & Gin (1994) noted that destination marketers should be aware of tourists' perceptions and images to ascertain how they position destinations on important attributes. According to Cossens & Gin, only after such an investigation can the destination marketer look to control, create or change public perceptions and attitudes held about a destination (1994: 2). Roehl & Fesenmaier (1992) proposed similar suggestions in their study of an American University town's residents' risk perceptions regarding holidays. While Roehl & Fesenmaier admitted that promoting the safety of a particular destination (or a particular travel product) may not be suffice to reduce travellers' risk perceptions, a number of benefits for the tourism marketer can be gained through a greater understanding of travellers' risk perceptions (1992: 24). For instance, they found that respondents in one of three risk groups identified by the authors (the 'functional risk' group) were concerned with risks associated with equipment failure and physical danger. The researchers recommended promoting child-friendly products to travellers in this group that had children. They further suggested that destination advertising messages aimed at reducing risk perceptions should address a number of travel-risk concerns such as financial risks (through positive price-value offers), and time risk (promoting the benefits of travel and taking time-off).

A tourist destination that experiences high crime rates (albeit against locals or tourists) will ultimately gain the image of an unsafe destination. From a marketing perspective, it is important for destinations to realise that crime and resultant media coverage will have an effect on their image. In her paper on tourism, terrorism, and political instability, Sonmez (1998: 437) pointed out, that when a tourism destination suffers a setback due to negative occurrences, it can no longer rely on traditional marketing efforts...it must conduct 'recovery marketing' This, she notes, includes integrated marketing with crisis management activities. Pizam, however, argued that in most cases (war and terrorism acts), only resolution could lead to recovery (1999: 11). He added: 'for recovery from crimes the best strategy is future prevention coupled with tourist education and employee training... marketing and public relations seem to be the least effective strategy' (Pizam, 1999: 11).

The failure of tourists to take care and safety precautions with their property and persons may, in part be attributed to the marketing of tourist destinations, which are often described as virtual paradises, friendly and hospitable, and offering opportunities for romantic experiences. In his study of crime and tourism, Prideaux (1996) examined crime statistics in various Australian beach tourist resorts and the relationship with marketing images. For instance, those resorts that portrayed a hedonistic image were more likely to experience higher crime rates. He found that destinations, which gain notoriety as crime hot spots, are likely to experience difficulty in regaining their tourism industry.

Several authors have suggested marketing strategies for increasing visitation. For instance, Kelly (1993: 10) proposed that destination marketing organisations (DMOs) should redirect their marketing efforts to less vulnerable markets: 'offences against the person may be reduced by changing the destination marketing strategy to focus on family and group travel'. Similarly, Fujii & Mak (1980) also suggested altering the mix of tourists in their study of tourism and crime in Hawaii. They motioned for a shift from a mass tourism perspective towards quality tourism within Hawaii's development policy plan. This, Fujii & Mak (1980: 34) argued, would thereby attract few tourists, but nonetheless, high spenders and on the premise that they are more educated and that there are few of them decreases the probability of them being victims. They concluded that this type of policy could have a significant impact on the level of crime in tourist destinations. Milman & Bach recommended that hotel operators should use safety and security devices not only as crime prevention techniques, but also as marketing tools to create a greater sense of security among guests to attract more safety-conscious guests (1999: 384).

Two think-tank sessions on the subject of tourism and hospitality safety and security identified several needs to address safety and security issues. The actions called for integration of information, protection against economic crimes (e.g., hi-tech credit card fraud, theft of facsimile messages, etc.), proactive police, interpret sustainable approach with the proactive approach, and crime prevention environmental design (Olsen & Pizam, 1998, 1999).

An additional tourism-related crime topic that has been examined is the literature, which deals with strategies to improve security levels in hotels. For example, in their study of hotel crime prevention strategies and crime rates in Florida, Bach & Pizam (1996) found that certain types of security devices were associated with levels of crime, others were not. For instance, hotels that had security devices such as electronic locks, 24-hour security staff and monitored surveillance cameras on the premises had lower rates of crimes than properties that did not have such devices. Conversely, those properties that had devices such as in-room safes and mechanical locks with deadbolts experience higher rates of crimes than those that did not have such devices (1996: 70). Bach (1996) supports this in her literature review of strategies to improve safety and security of hotels in Florida. She claims that travellers are more aware of their security needs while staying in hotels or motels. The researcher also noted that hoteliers show an increasing awareness of their responsibilities for guests' security. Bach concluded that although numerous security devices and strategies are available for hoteliers there is no empirical evidence to validate their effectiveness (1996: 292).

The image which individuals have of a specific destination plays an important role in a destination's marketing success. This is because the decision-maker acts upon his/her image, beliefs and perceptions of the destination rather than the objective reality of it (Hunt, 1975: 1). Destination image may then be defined as the visual or mental impression of a place experienced by the general travelling public. According to Dann, 'people choose destinations based on internal 'mental pictures'. These, in turn, are based on selective perceptions; the various ways people make sense of the world' (1996: 51). Advertising and promotional messages are then decoded by the individual, who interprets the message in his or her own way (based upon various motivations, experiences, moods, etc.). In essence, no two people view a destination in exactly the same way. Images are believed to develop on two levels: organic (formed internally as a result of actual experience or visitation) and induced (formed externally from advertisements, publicity, news reports, or input from acquaintances (Gartner, 1989; Gunn, 1972). Media coverage of occurrences of serious acts of crime at a destination (involving tourists or locals) has the potential to shape the induced image individuals have of destinations. Negative media coverage can, thus, impact attitude

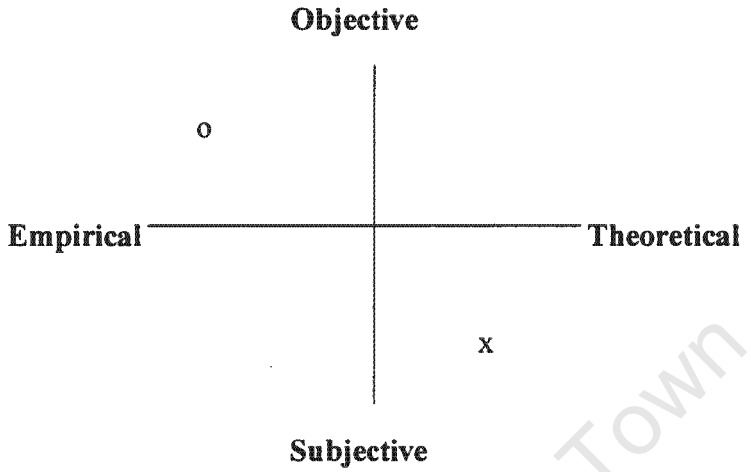
formation quite easily. Image therefore, becomes a crucial factor in travel choice and tourism marketing (Chon, 1991; Dann, 1996; Echtner & Ritchie, 1991). Although the importance of image to marketing is well documented, the impact of tourist-oriented crime and violence on destination image has received no attention. A comprehensive review of the literature on destination image, although without reference to the effects of crime and violence, confirms that it is a critical component in the tourist's destination process (Baloglu, 1997; Chon, 1991; Dann, 1996; Walmsley & Young, 1998).

6. Summary

This chapter has reviewed literature regarding the concept of crime, its relationship to tourism, decision-making in general, and tourist decision-making and the role of risk in tourist decision-making in particular. Although the marketing implications of the relationship between tourism and crime have also been discussed, the impact of crime on tourist's decision-making process has not yet been analysed. A review of several crime and tourism studies has focused on crime rates against tourists or whether crime rates increases due to tourism in specific areas. This review has confirmed that there is a dearth of research on surveying how tourists perceive crime as an issue when choosing where to holiday.

The review has also found that only a minority of crime and tourism and tourism impact studies are based on empirical research. Many are indeed based on subjective opinions (researcher's, resident's, tourist's, or tourist professional's) and untested hypotheses. Only a small number of these studies use objective measures to quantify the impacts of tourism or crime at a destination. This research study will be of an empirical nature that will use objective methods. It will involve a large quantitative study, which will test various hypotheses to validate its findings (see figure 4).

Figure 4. Tourism & crime/impacts of tourism research typology-matrix



Key:
x = existing studies
o = proposed study

A review of the literature has also established that when the consequences of a travel decision are uncertain, that decision is perceived as risky. Decision-makers compare the benefits and costs of destination choices and weigh up the benefits and costs. Destinations that are perceived as risky (whether actual or not) are seen as undesirable and are discarded by the tourist decision-maker. The literature review illustrates that very little research exists on how crime risk affects tourists' decision-making. Within the subject area, there is also a paucity of empirical research on how travel decisions are actually made. In particular there is little evidence of research into how a range of factors influence an individual's process of making a travel purchase decision; in particular in the context of long-haul travel. More specifically consumers' personal factors (such as crime-risk perception levels) and situational factors (such as past travel experience) affects their buying behaviour decisions.

The purpose of this study is therefore to examine the role that the perception of crime plays in tourist long-haul destination choice of UK international travelers. The next chapter will present the theoretical framework for the study.

3 Theoretical Framework of Study

Introduction

This chapter will discuss the theoretical framework for decisions regarding long-haul holiday travel that involve crime-risk. This will provide a conceptual model for the study.

As pointed our in Chapter 1, the objective of this study is to examine the influence of UK long-haul leisure travellers' personal and situational factors on their decisions to travel to various long-haul destinations within the context of crime-risk.

1. The long-haul holiday travel decision-making model in the context of crime-risk

Zaltam & Burger (1975) define a model as a simplified but organised and meaningful representation of an actual system or process. The model specifies both the key elements in a system, such as consumer attitudes, situational factors and purchasing behaviour, as well as the relationship between these elements. Consumer behaviour models are a useful tool for planning and coordinating research studies. The decision-making processes for leisure travellers' choices may be classified as ranging from extensive problem-solving to limited or routine problem-solving, and even occasionally as impulse problem-solving. These problem-solving situations for tourists are influenced by multiple variables such as demographics and marketing influences (Woodside & King, 2001: 11).

A tourist consumer behaviour model, illustrating the complexity and the dynamics of long-haul holiday travellers' choice decisions, is presented in figure 5. The model comprises 14 decision stages, linked and influenced by intervening variables. The arrows in the diagram indicate how the stages and variables are connected. As shown in the diagram, the model is influenced by three interrelated forces namely personal, situational, and destination factors.

The 'situational factors' box includes an important situational context variable, i.e. whether or not the traveller has made a prior visit to the long-haul destination being considered. Such prior-direct experiences are likely to have a major impact on whether or not the traveller uses extensive problem-solving as opposed to limited or routine problem-solving processes (Woodside & King, 2001: 11). For the purpose of this study, it is likely that any previous experience of the long-haul destination will affect the consumers' degree of perceived risk in terms of their personal or physical safety and property.

This study was designed to explore the influence of personal or 'internal' and situational or 'external' factors on long-haul holiday travel decisions, which entail an awareness of personal and property crime-risk (see figure 5.).

The study furthermore examined relationships between independent variables (personal and situational factors) such as

(i) long-haul holiday experience;
(ii) crime-risk perception levels of various long-haul destinations;
(iii) past holiday-crime encounters; and
(iv) socio-demographics,

and dependent variables (the process) such as

(i) (extent of) travel information search;
(ii) degree of travel-safety research; and
(iii) use of crime-risk precautions.

The shaded boxes in the model in figure 5 indicate the findings from the study.

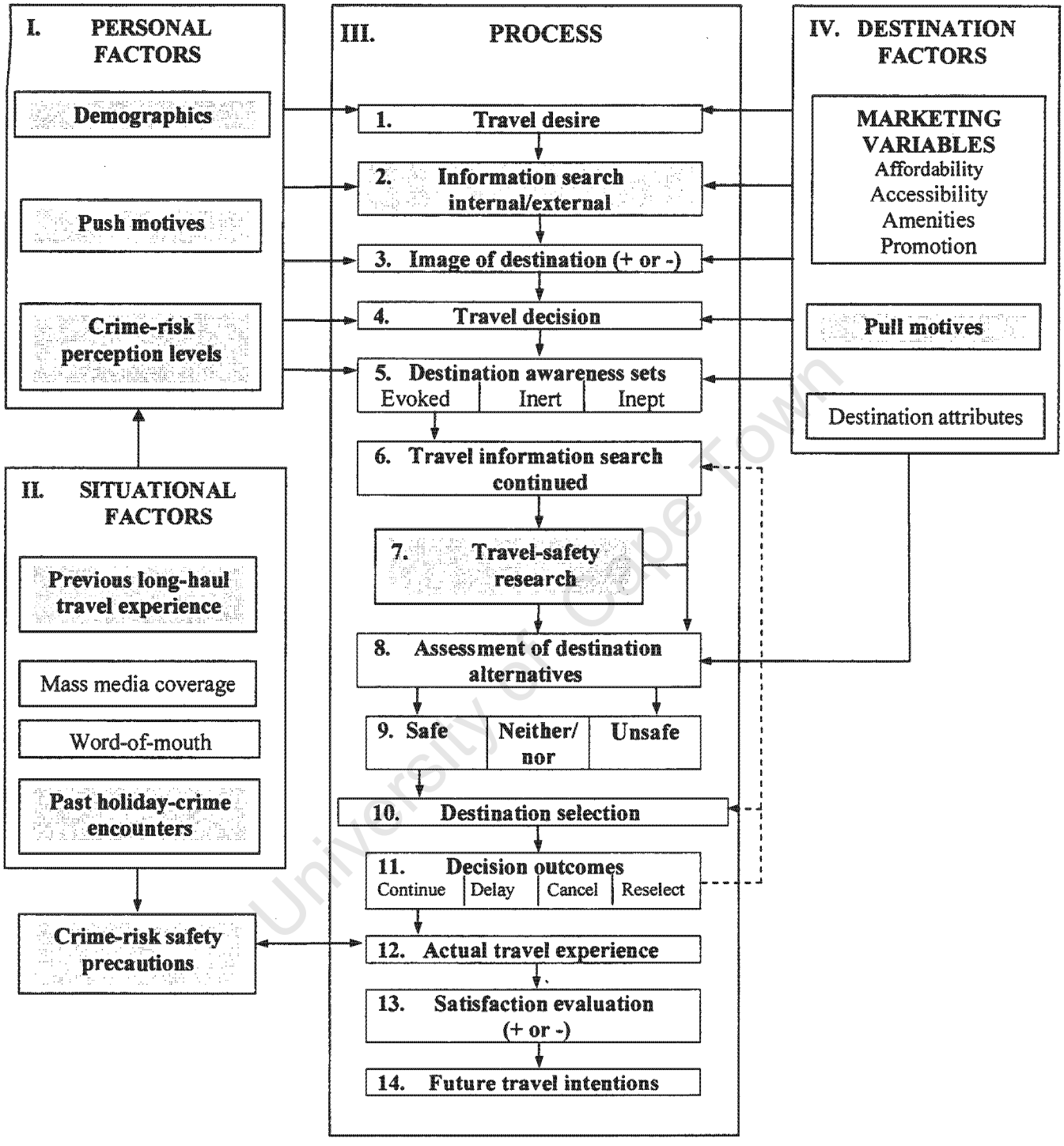


Figure 5. Long-haul travel decision-making model influenced by perceptions of crime-risk. (Based on Schmoll, 1977; Um & Crompton, 1990; Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b; Mathieson & Wall 1982).

The long-haul holiday travel decision-making model in the context of crime-risk

The model has been briefly described and is illustrated in figure 5 above. Each stage of the long-haul holiday travel decision-making process is explained in greater detail below.

1.1 Stage 1: Travel desire

The **consumer's desire to travel** is derived from a combination of several influences, for instance personal (i.e. individual's sociodemographics), situational (i.e. previous long-travel experience) and marketing variables (such as a tour operator's discounted travel package offer).

Reasons for and against meeting that desire are considered by the consumer. The desire to travel is also greatly affected by motivations, in particular push and pull motives and trip features. Academic tourism literature emphasizes the importance of both push and pull factors in shaping tourist motivation (Crompton, 1979). Some motivations may be so powerful that they totally dominate the purchase decision to the exclusion of all other factors, for instance the motivation to take part in special interest activity such as bird-watching or rock climbing (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999: 79). Various factors such as personal factors (**box I**), situational factors (**box II**), destination factors (including marketing variables, (**box IV**) will have an influence on the decision-making process (**box III**). These include, age, level of education, cost, distance, risk and motivation.

The desire and motivation to travel may be a result of **marketing influences**, which can be a combination of a Destination's Marketing Organisation's (DMOs) promotional offers or a tour operator's packages/prices.

1.2 Stage 2: Initial travel information search

Information on various travel destinations is transmitted to potential travellers through both internal and external **travel information search** sources (Engel, Blackwell & Miniard, 1985; Hawkins, Best & Coney, 1995).

1.2.1 Internal information

Internal information may have been acquired actively from past information searches or passively through low-involvement learning, where consumers are repeatedly exposed to marketing. When an internal search proves inadequate for making a purchase decision, the search process then focuses on acquiring information from external sources (Crotts, 1999).

1.2.2 External information

Sources of **external information** generally consist of personal information for instance advice from friends, relatives and business associates; marketer-dominated information such as travel brochures, advertisements in the print and broadcast media; neutral information from travel agents and tour operators; experiential information for instance pre-purchase visits; and interactive information for instance browsing the Internet (Hawkins, Best & Coney, 1995; Money & Crotts, 2003).

Laws (1995) noted awareness of travel destinations is enhanced by travel reporting in the media, guidebooks and TV documentaries. The Internet is also regarded as an increasingly important information source for the future (Buhalis, 2000; Muller, 1998). It has been suggested that different types of travellers opt for different sources for their information search. For instance, Snepenger *et al.* (1990) found travel agents are the most important source of pre-trip information for destination-naïve tourists. According to Snepenger *et al.* (1990: 13), the factors that influence an information search include:

(i) the composition of the holiday group,

(ii) the presence of family and friends at the destination,

(iii) prior visits to the destination, and

(iv) the degree of novelty associated with the destination

It can be assumed that trip features, such as distance of the destination (i.e. long-haul), and personal factors, such as perceptions of the crime-risk, may also influence the extent of travel information search during the holiday buying behaviour process. Indeed, Sheldon (1993: 31) suggests that long-haul travellers require extensive destination information before they travel to a destination: "The increasing complexity of the tourism industry and the increasing sophistication and diversity of travellers, makes access to this information both more important and more difficult, especially for long-haul destinations."

1.3 Stage 3: The image of the destination (+ or -)

Image is defined as the sum of beliefs, attitudes and impressions that a person or group of people has of an object (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Crompton, 1979). The object may be a company, product, brand, place or person (Barich & Kotler, 1991: 95). Generally speaking, images can be either descriptive (e.g. the perception that Durban is a seaside resort) or evaluative (the perception that Durban is tacky and unsafe). Images form part of consumers' decision-making processes in that they will influence the choices made by consumers.

The image of the destination is a key factor in the leisure travel decision-making process (MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997). A positive or negative **image of the destination** may be the result of a number of factors, for instance personal factors such as an individual's sociodemographic variables, situational factors such as exposure to mass media, extent of travel experience, word-of-mouth communication, etc., destination factors such as pull motives, marketing variables (the 4 P's) and trip features. Destination image is also based upon the credibility of the information search source such as word-of-mouth accounts with friends and relatives, and marketing channels. As reiterated by Mathieson & Wall (1982:

31), the awareness of destinations depends on the availability of travel information and the credibility of its source. The credibility of the source also affects the decoding of the message.

The source of the communication, i.e. his or her perceived honesty and objectivity, has enormous influence on how the communication is accepted by the receiver. When the source is well respected and highly thought of by the intended audience, the message is much more likely to be believed. Conversely, a message from a source considered unreliable will be received with skepticism and may be rejected (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000: 283). Nolan (1976), for instance, found that travel information from friends and relatives was the most informative, but it ranked the lowest in credibility. Information obtained from travel guidebooks and DMOs ranked high in terms of quality and credibility (Mathieson & Wall, 1982: 31). Similarly, information from sources such as newspaper articles have greater credibility than advertisers, because of the perception that newspaper articles are more objective in their product-offering assessments (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000: 283).

1.4 Stage 4: The decision to travel long-haul

If the consumer has acquired sufficient information from internal and external information search sources, and has a reasonably positive image of the destination alternatives he or she makes a **decision** as to whether to **travel long-haul** as opposed to travelling short-haul or within his or her own country. This decision may be subject to personal factors in a particular traveller's sociodemographic profile as well as push and pull motives, trip features, and so on.

1.5 Stage 5: Long-haul destination awareness sets

The number of holiday destinations the consumer is aware of is likely to be substantial. As a result the consumer considers only a limited number of these in planning a holiday (Woodside & Ronkainen, 1980; Woodside & Sherrell, 1977). The destination awareness sets or total available sets are further divided into three: the evoked, inert and inept sets.

1.5.1 Awareness set

The **awareness set** of long-haul destinations includes all those destinations of which an individual may be aware at any given time (Howard, 1977: 98).

1.5.2 Evoked set

Within this set, an **evoked** set of destinations is formulated. This consists of those destinations remaining from the initial awareness set after a reduction process has been implemented (Um & Crompton, 1999). The evoked set includes the travel destinations of which the consumer is aware and has some likelihood greater than zero of visiting (Woodside & Ronkainen, 1980: 7). This set of travel destinations becomes the list of alternatives regarding which the potential traveller has reached positive conclusions and is most likely to draw from in reaching a purchase decision.

1.5.3 Inert set

Destination alternatives regarding which the consumer is indifferent (neither positive nor negative evaluation) are known as the **inert set**. Consumers will accept information about alternatives in their inert sets, although they do not actively seek such information.

1.5.4 Inept set

The **inept set** consists of those destination alternatives that the consumer dislikes (due to negative perceptions) and are therefore unworthy of further consideration. Further information searches on destinations in the inept set are not considered.

1.6 Stage 6: Information search continued

The consumer chooses among destinations in the evoked set of alternatives. Consumers will accept **information** about alternatives in their inert sets, although they do not actively seek such information. The consumer compares each of the relevant criteria. This process requires that consumers consults friends and relatives and business associates, travel agencies, tour operators, tourism boards, travel guide books, etc. to acquire information on which to base their final decision. Although no work has identified information sources used by long-haul travellers, numerous studies have identified the most common information sources used prior to general holidaying (Crotts, 1999; Nichols & Snepenger, 1988; Sheldon, 1993; van Raaij & Francken, 1984). Personal sources of information such as word-of-mouth accounts with friends, relatives and business associates have been consistently identified as the most important. However, it has been suggested that for long-haul destinations, which travellers are likely to know less about, travel agents are more important information sources and word-of-mouth communication is perhaps less important because fewer people experience long-haul destinations (Sheldon, 1993).

An internal information search takes place when the consumer retrieves information from memory-based sources, acquired by means of past information searches or personal experiences with the destination (*active*). In addition, information may have been *passively* acquired from external sources through low-involvement. As Lynch & Srull (1982) note, the recognition of the role played in consumer choice by memory-based decision processes is a likely prerequisite for the development of a better understanding of decision-making in real life situations.

The individual actively seeks external information through friends, relatives and business associates, the Internet, guidebooks, TV travel programmes, tourism boards, newspaper travel supplements, travel agencies and tour operators. Advice from friends, relatives and business associates (word-of-mouth communication) is one of the most frequently acquired and influential sources of information available to the traveller (Crotts, 1999: 156). Word-of-mouth accounts can be positive or negative and is based on the friends, relatives and business associates' previous experience with the destination. The extent of the external information search may depend on a number of factors including crime-risk perception levels and previous travel experience. As with word-of-mouth, travel information sources such as travel agents, travel guidebooks can be positive or negative depending on the travel consultant or writer's interaction with the destination. More intensive search activity for decision-making occurs when risk rises (Murray, 1991).

1.7 Stage 7: Travel-safety research

When internal and external information searches proves inadequate to make a final decision, or when the consumer has gained an awareness of risk associated with the evoked set of destinations an active **travel-safety research** then ensues. The consumer consults friends, relatives and business associates who may have experienced the destination or region, government travel advisories (obtained from website/call centre), Internet sites, tourism boards, travel agencies, travel guidebooks, etc. The use of government travel advisories or reports has been identified as a crime-risk reduction strategy (Barker, 2000). As with the previous stage the extent of crime-risk information search will depend on a number of personal and situational factors such as crime-risk perceptions levels, previous long-haul travel experience, importance of trip motivation, and past holiday-crime encounters. Additionally, the extent, type and credibility of travel information gained from the crime-risk information search have the potential to affect the consumer's choice of holiday destination.

1.8 Stage 8: The assessment of destination alternatives

Long-haul destinations are **assessed** in terms of personal and situational factors, long-haul trip features (accessibility, cost, destination attractions), availability of information as well as safety and security risk factors in relation to crime.

1.9 Stage 9: The evaluation of safety

Destinations in the evoked set undergo an **evaluation of safety** according to the level of crime-risk factors. Consumers consider whether destinations are safe or unsafe. Destinations perceived as safe from physical or property crime are accepted. Those perceived as risky will be rejected. Consumers may also be undecided or indifferent regarding how they perceive destinations. Physical and property crime-risk has been rated 1 to 5 levels – groups: 1 being low-perceived crime level (very safe) and 5 being high-perceived crime level (very unsafe).

1.10 Stage 10: The selection of long-haul destinations

Consumers must have a positive view of a particular destination in order to select it above others. When evaluating and **selecting a long-haul destination**, the consumer uses a mental cost-benefit analysis. Destination selection follows a type of ranking system in the consumer's mind. In essence, the destination must maximise consumer benefits and minimise undesirable outcomes. In this study, crime-risk constraints are considered as either benefits or costs. Potential long-haul travellers select the destination, which best matches their needs by offering the most benefits for the least cost or risk.

1.11 Stage 11: Decision outcome

At the **decision outcome** stage consumers are faced with four decisions. Consumers can respond in the following ways:

(i) To **continue** with travel plans regardless of crime-risk perception levels and other personal factors

(ii) To **postpone** holiday until a later date when and if the crime situation at the destination improves

(iii)To **cancel** long-haul holiday altogether (cancellation may be due to media attention focussing on crime at the destination)

(iv)To **reselect** an alternative safer destination within the evoked set of destination or possibly choose a short haul/domestic holiday alternative

Consumers that delay, or reselect will return to one of the previous stages namely stage 6 ('travel information search'), or stage 10 ('destination selection').

1.12 Stage 12: Actual long-haul travel experience

After a long-haul destination has been selected, the total tourism product is generally purchased in a sequence, i.e. transport, accommodation, tours, etc. Additional decision-making processes therefore take place during the **actual travel experience**.

A sub-stage of the actual travel experience is the use of **crime-risk safety precautions**. Consumers may use specific crime-risk reduction strategies, which may affect subsequent buying decisions at the destination. For example, the consumer avoids going out at night or making use of public transport at the destination for fear of becoming a victim of crime.

1.13 Stage 13: The evaluation of satisfaction levels

Satisfaction levels must be considered in relation to holiday features, expectations as well as perceptions of actual crime-risk at the destination. These satisfaction or dissatisfaction levels are key factors in future decisions and repeat purchases. Actual holiday consumption may lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction, which will provide internal information and experience for future long-haul travel decisions.

1.14 Stage 14: Future travel intentions

This stage of the process includes perceived **likelihood of visiting** a specific destination within a specific time period. According to Moutinho (1987: 43), future decision-making is mainly related to the study of the tourist's subsequent behaviour by analysing different probabilities for repeat buying a particular holiday destination.

2. Factors influencing the decision-making process

The various influences namely personal, situational and destination factors affecting the various stages of the long-haul holiday decision-making process are discussed below.

2.1 Personal factors

The long-haul traveller profile consists of variables such as demographics (i.e. age, education), push motives, and crime-risk perception levels, which will now be examined in more detail.

2.1.1 Sociodemographics

Sociodemographic variables used in the study include gender, age, living status (i.e. marital status), household structure, social class, and education. In terms of determinants of destination choice, a traveller's sociodemographic profile includes factors such as age, income, and life cycle stage (Woodside & Lysonski, 1989; Um & Crompton, 1990).

2.1.2 Push motives

Motivations are the dynamic process in consumer buying behaviour, and bridge the gap between the perceived need and the decision to purchase (Middleton, 1988). Motivations also affect decisions made in the process, for example the consumer may conduct less extensive information search if visiting friends and relatives. The holiday choice is based on person-specific motivation, commonly referred to as 'push motives' (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977; Goodall & Ashworth, 1988). In figure 5, the **push motives** are located in the personal factors box. The difference between a push and a pull motive is that the motivation to take a holiday 'pushes' the potential tourist into a decision, while the attraction of the holiday images 'pulls' the tourist to a particular destination.

2.1.3 Crime-risk perception levels

Crime-risk perception levels may be defined as the degree of property or physical crime-risk respondents associate with the long-haul destinations listed in the survey.

2.2 Situational factors

Situational factors include previous long-haul travel experience, consumers' exposure to mass media coverage, word-of-mouth communication, and past holiday-crime encounters.

2.2.1 Long-haul travel experience

Previous **long-haul travel experience** has been defined as the extent of respondents' leisure travel to destinations outside of Europe or six hours flying time or more for the purposes of this study.[1] An important variable included in the personal factors box is whether or not the traveller has been physically exposed to the long-haul destination being considered. Mok & Armstrong (1996) noted that tourists generally have limited knowledge about a destination that they have not previously visited. Hence, their destination choice is often dependent upon symbolic information acquired either from the media or word-of-mouth communication from social groups. Such prior-direct crime experiences are likely to have a major impact on how the individual perceives the destination from a crime-safety perspective.

2.2.2 Mass media coverage

Current **mass media coverage** not only affects various decisions in the travel decision-making process but also their outcomes. Consumers' exposure to newspaper, television, Internet and other broadcast media in the generating country can affect any stage of the buying behaviour process up to the actual travel experience. For example, during the assessment of destination alternatives (stage 8), negative media news about a safety and security issue could deter the travellers from considering that destination.

[1] There is no standard definition of the term 'long-haul' travel. However, the tourism trade would generally recognise a guideline that encompassed travel of greater than 3000 miles or six hours flying time (Bowen, 2000: 50).

2.2.3 Word-of-mouth communication

An additional situational factor includes consumers' **word-of-mouth** communication with social groups such as friends, family and business associates in generating and/or destination country. Communication with social groups – friends and relatives, reference groups. Also depends on their travel experiences, satisfaction levels, crime experiences while travelling to those long-haul holiday destinations being considered.

2.2.4 Past holiday-crime encounters

Any previous **holiday-crime encounters** will also influence consumers' travel decisions. It is reasonable to assume that if a consumer has experience of the destination, he or she will possess lower crime-risk perception levels (i.e. safe). However, if an individual has been the victim of crime at any of the destinations in the awareness set, then he or she will more likely have higher crime-risk perception levels (i.e. unsafe).

2.3 Destination factors

These include holiday trip features and destination pull motives

2.3.1 Holiday trip features

Holiday trip features include such factors as distance, duration of stay, travel party size, and trip cost. Travel behaviour is influenced by many factors in terms of trip characteristics (Lang, O'Leary & Morrison, 1997; Sheldon & Mak, 1987). The features of the long-haul holiday destination may influence the travel decision and the assessment of travel alternatives. Goodrich (1978), Woodside & Lysonski (1989), and Um & Crompton (1990) stated that trip variables affected perceptions of a destination image. Such factors will also influence individual long-haul destination decision-making, for instance whether subjects are travelling alone or if they are members of a party (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999: 79).

A destination comprises a number of core components. Cooper *et al.* (1998: 103) refer to these components as the '4As':

- Attractions
- Access (i.e. transport networks and infrastructure)
- Amenities (i.e. accommodation, food and beverage outlets, entertainment, retailing and other services)
- Ancillary services (i.e. local organisations)

Weaver (2000:102) added a fifth 'A' - affordability. Certain long-haul trip features such as the **affordability** of the trip may override all holiday decision-making factors. According to Swarbrooke & Horner (1999: 77), during the 1990s, UK tour operators offered heavily discounted last minute holidays (packaged holidays booked very late in the decision-making process). These types of holidays proved so popular that they lead to people not even worrying about the destination of accommodation provided because the price was low enough (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999: 77).

2.3.2 Pull motives

The **pull motives** of the destination are also located in the destination factors box (figure 5). As discussed previously, 'pull motives' focus on the supply side of tourism (product or destination-based forces) rather than the demand/market side ('push motives').

3. Definitions of concepts

The various concepts used in the theoretical model for the study are defined as follows:

- **Awareness set:** The holiday destinations that a consumer may be aware of at any given time

- **Consumer decision-making:** A consumer decision process that is activated or aroused by a discrepancy

- **Crime-risk perception level:** The degree of property or physical crime-risk potential tourists associate with long-haul leisure travel.

- **Evoked set:** The subcategory of travel destinations about which a consumer has reached positive conclusions and is most likely to draw from in making a purchase decision

- **External information search:** Information acquired from external sources including
  (i) personal (e.g. advice from friends, relatives, and business associates),
  (ii) marketer-dominated (e.g. brochures, advertisements in print and broadcast media),
  (iii) neutral (travel agents, tour operators),
  (iv) experiential (pre-purchase visits), and
  (v) interactive (the Internet)

- **Inept set:** A subcategory of the awareness set of destinations that a consumer dislikes or feels is unworthy and will have little chance of purchasing.

- **Inert set:** A subcategory of the awareness set of destination alternatives towards which a consumer is indifferent.

- **Internal information search:** relevant information stored in long-term memory used to assess whether a satisfactory alternative exists once a consumer need is activated. The consumer may have actively or passively acquired internal information.

- **Perception:** The process by which an individual selects, organizes and interprets information to create a meaningful picture of the world.

- **Purchase decision:** The stage of the buyer decision process in which the consumer actually buys the holiday.

- **Push motives:** The forces that lead to the decision to take a holiday – relating to the needs and wants of the traveller.

- **Pull motives:** Those factors that lead an individual to select one destination over another – the features, attractions or attributes.

4. Research hypotheses

The purpose of this study is to examine the influence of UK travellers' personal and situational factors on their decisions to travel to various long-haul destinations within the context crime-risk.

4.1 Independent variables

Independent variables include the following personal and situational factors:

(i) long-haul holiday experience (Q. A.7, *ordinal variable*);
(ii) crime-risk perception levels (Q. B.1, *ordinal/interval variable*);
(iii) past holiday-crime encounters (Q. B.3, *nominal variable*);
(iv) gender (Q. E.1, – *nominal*);
(v) age (Q. E2, *nominal/interval*); and
(vi) education (Q.E.6, *nominal,* education – *nominal)*

4.2 Dependent variables

Dependent variables consist of the stages of the long-haul leisure travel decision-making process, which includes:

(i) extent of unstructured information search (Q. C.1, *ordinal/interval*);
(ii) extent of directed information search (Q. C.1, *ordinal/interval*);
(iii) degree of travel-safety research (Q. C2, *ordinal/interval*);
(iv) use of avoidance crime-safety precautions (Q. A.8, *ordinal/interval*); and
(v) use of reduction crime-safety precautions (Q. A.8, *ordinal/interval*)

4.3 Research hypotheses

The purpose of this study is to examine the influence of long-haul travel experience, perceptions of crime-risk, past holiday-crime encounters and sociodemographics on individuals' long-haul decision-making processes. The following five research hypotheses were developed:

H^1: The **extent of unstructured information search** during long-haul travel decision-making is directly associated to long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday-crime encounters, age, gender and education.

H^2: The **extent of directed information search** during long-haul travel decision-making is directly associated to long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday-crime encounters, age, gender and education.

H^3: The **degree of travel-safety research** during long-haul travel decision-making is directly associated to long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday-crime encounters, age, gender and education.

H^4: The **use of avoidance crime-safety precautions** during long-haul travel decision-making is directly associated to long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday-crime encounters, age, gender and education.

H^5: The **use of reduction crime-safety precautions** during long-haul travel decision-making is directly associated to long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday-crime encounters, age, gender and education.

5. Summary

In closing, this chapter has provided the theoretical model, which provides a framework for the study. The influence of various factors on long-haul travel decision-making, namely personal, and situational factors, which affect the various stages of the process, will be examined. In the next chapter the methods for the study are presented.

4 Research Methodology

Introduction

The research literature confirms that while there is a growing amount of research that discusses the nature of the phenomenon of tourism and crime there is a lack of empirical research investigating the issue at a tourist consumer level. The literature emphasises a number of research opportunities, in particular with regard to analysing the role that perception of crime-risk plays in travellers' selection of long-haul holiday destinations. The research also confirms that leisure travellers are more affected by perceptions of lack of safety and security while they are in the process of selecting the destination than while on the actual holiday itself.

Literature also suggests a lack of research regarding the influence of personal factors, i.e. respondent's demographics, crime-risk perception levels, and situational factors, i.e. extent of respondent's long-haul travel experience, on travel decision-making. Furthermore, there is no evidence that crime-risk perception as a variable has been divided into two separate items, namely physical and property crime-risk. Certain destinations may indeed pose more of a threat to an individual's physical being than to his or her property, and vice-versa. In addition, there is very little evidence of existing research into tourists' use of travel-safety research sources, i.e. government travel advisories, during travel decision-making and the use of crime-safety precautions, i.e. avoiding going out at night, while on holiday.

The review of literature also suggests a distinct lack of research on tourist consumer behaviour involving travel to long-haul holiday destinations, for example, the extent and type of information sources utilised during long-haul decision-making. The general consumer behaviour literature indicates that more intensive search activity for decision-making information occurs when risk rises. Safety and security issues and consumer behaviour represent an important gap in tourism consumer behaviour research.

This chapter sets out the methods used in the study. These methods include the study setting, instrumentation, pre-testing survey, the sample and sampling procedure, data collection, telephonic survey of non-respondents, and the limitations of the research.

1. Study setting

In Chapter 1, statistics gathered by the World Tourism Organisation provide strong evidence of the importance of travel and tourism as an economic driver and a major industry for many countries (WTO, 1997a). The interests of the international travelling population include an increasingly mobile and sophisticated consumer with a desire to travel further. As a result, these forces are widening the scope and diversity of tourism destinations. However, many tourism destinations have not completely avoided some of the negative consequences – such as crime, environmental degradation, commercialisation of culture. If left unchecked, these factors will continue to limit the growth of the tourism industry. The issue of crime is but one of many safety and security risks that affects the well-being of all travellers. Crime and lack of personal safety can affect the decision to travel, and also the satisfaction levels at the holiday destination.

Tourists are regarded as easy targets by local criminals and are vulnerable. Tourists are far away from home, possess valuables, and may be on holiday in a country where they do not speak the local language. Long-haul destinations, which very often have the perception of being exotic, may be located in developing countries where the gap between rich and poor is greater and crime is more prevalent than in the tourist's generating country. Long-haul travel may indeed pose more of a risk to travellers than short-haul or domestic travel. Perceptions such as the aforementioned may affect the prospective traveller's decision-making process, for instance, their utilisation of travel information sources. Long-haul travellers rely less on word-of-mouth communication, as it is less likely that many people have experienced certain long-haul destinations, but rather rely more on travel professionals such as specialist tour operators and travel agents.

In order to understand how perceptions of crime impact on the long-haul travel decision-making process, it is important to study consumers who travel long-haul. In order to achieve the research objectives outlined in Chapter 1, this study examines survey data in order to understand the issue of tourist consumer behaviour and how it relates to safety and security. This study seeks to examine how perceptions of crime-risk at various long-haul destinations as well as a range of other factors influence travel buying behaviour.

2. Instrumentation

The survey was structured in a very particular manner. General questions about the respondents' previous long-haul travel experience were asked first in order to stimulate interest in the survey. The reason is that opening the survey with a set of easy questions helps to establish a rapport with the respondents and builds their confidence regarding their ability to answer the questions (Bradburn & Sudman, 1991; Kahn & Cannell, 1957;). Only then did questions focus on respondents' perceptions of long-haul travel destinations in terms of crime-risk.

A self-administered questionnaire (Appendix A), designed to gather information from the sample, is divided into five sections, i.e.:

- Section A: The respondent's long-haul travel experience
- Section B: Their perceptions of long-haul travel
- Section C: The extent of the respondent's travel information search
- Section D: The respondent's future travel intentions
- Section E: The respondent's demographic characteristics

The sections are described in more detail below:

2.1 Section A: Long-haul traveller profile

In this section of the survey, the following is determined:

(a) last long-haul destination individual travelled to;
(b) motivations for holiday (push and pull motives);
(c) extent of previous long-haul holiday experience; and
(d) extent of crime-safety precautions used whilst at the destination.

Responses to this part of the survey has provided information for two independent variables, namely previous long-haul holiday experience (4-items) and crime-risk perception level (20 items), and one dependent variable namely utilisation of crime-safety precautions (7 items). Two factors were devised based on the factor analysis (chapter 5):

i) 'avoidance' – avoided going out at night, avoided using public transport, avoided going out alone, avoided going to certain streets; and
ii) 'reductions' – reduced wearing expensive jewellery, tried not to look like a tourist, didn't carry large amounts of cash.

2.2 Section B: Crime-risk perception levels and attitudes

For the purposes of this study, **crime-risk perception levels** have been defined as the degree of property or physical crime-risk potential tourists associate with long-haul holiday travel. The literature suggests that perceived risk influences the consumer's evaluation of destination alternatives and information acquisition (Roehl & Fesenmaier 1992; Weber & Bottom, 1989).

This section on long-haul leisure travel crime-risk perceptions has obtained information regarding the:

(a) individual's level of physical crime-risk associated with various long-haul destinations around the world (20 were listed);

(b) individual's level of property crime-risk associated with various long-haul destinations around the world;
(c) individual's experience of visitation with various long-haul destinations around the world;
(d) countries (out of the 20 items) which will be avoided as future travel destinations;
(e) individual's personal experience of crime; and
(f) individual's general attitudes regarding travel to long-haul holiday destination in relation to crime-risk.

Responses to this part of the survey provided information for two independent variables, i.e. crime-risk perception level and past holiday-crime encounters.

2.3 Section C: Long-haul travel information search

This section determines:
(a) extent of various sources of long-haul travel related information used; and
(b) importance and utilisation of long-haul travel-safety research sources.

Responses to this part of the instrument have provided information for two dependent variables, namely long-haul travel information search and long-haul travel-safety research.

Travel information search (6 items) gave rise to two factors as a result of Cronbach's-Alpha coefficient factor analysis (chapter 5) and was interpretd as:

i) 'unstructured' information search – Ceefax/Teletext, Internet sites, newspapers, tourism boards, travel guidebooks and TV programmes; and
ii) 'directed' information search – tour operators and travel agents.

2.4 Section D: Long-haul travel intentions

This section obtains information regarding:

(a) the propensity for long-haul holiday in the next 12 months; and

(b) future long-haul travel decisions.

Responses to this part of the survey have provided information for the response variable, i.e. long-haul holiday decisions.

2.5 Section E: Personal information

This section determines respondents' socio-demographic information. Only the major characteristics considered to be most relevant to achieving the objectives of the survey are included in this section of the survey.

Independent variables were measured with information obtained on personal factors and dependent variables were measured with information obtained on the long-haul holiday decision-making process.

2.6 Survey questions

Individual questions in the study survey (Appendix A) are cross-referenced and listed below.

2.6.1 Long-haul traveller profile (questions A.1 to A.7 in the survey) [Section A:]

Long-haul traveller profile is represented by information gathered from components in Section A of the survey.

Long-haul travel experience

- When did you last go on a long-haul holiday (i.e. a destination outside of Europe)? *(Q.A1)*

- Where did you go? *(Q.A2)*
- How many times have you been on a long-haul holiday during the last five years? *(Q.A7)*

Long-haul travel motivations

Push motives:

- What were your main reasons for going on this particular long-haul holiday? *(Q.A6)*

- To get away from ordinary UK life (escape)
- To go somewhere I hadn't been before (explore)
- To have fun & excitement (hedonism)
- To learn about a places, people & things (education)
- To just relax (relaxation)
- To visit friends & relatives (personal)
- To meet new & different people (social)

Pull motives:

- Indicate the amount of importance you associated with each of the following when you chose to visit this particular long-haul holiday destination. *(Q.A3)*

- Beautiful scenery/natural attractions
- Good entertainment & nightlife
- Interesting & friendly local people
- Value for money
- Interesting culture/history
- Nice weather
- Personal safety & security

2.6.2 Long-haul crime-risk perception levels (questions B.1 to B.3 in the survey) [Section B:]

- Rate the following countries in terms of levels of crime-risk (physical and property) *(Q.B1)*:

- Argentina
- Australia
- Barbados
- Brazil
- Canada
- China
- Costa Rica
- Egypt
- Jamaica
- Jordan
- Kenya
- India
- Malaysia
- Mauritius
- New Zealand
- Seychelles
- South Africa
- Thailand
- UAE (Dubai)
- USA

2.6.3 Long-haul travel crime-risk perceptions [Section C (Continued; question B.4 in the survey)]:

Attitudes regarding the decision to travel to long-haul destinations in relation to crime-risk

- Indicate your level of agreement/disagreement with each of the following statements. *(Q.B3)*

- I don't travel to certain long-haul places for fear of becoming a crime victim.
- Other people's crime experiences influence my decision to travel overseas.
- I'm just as likely to be a victim of crime in the UK as I am while on a long-haul holiday.
- If I read or hear about high crime rates at a long-haul destination I would avoid it for a holiday.

2.6.4 Long-haul travel information search (question C.1 in the survey)

- To what extent do you use the sources of information listed below when considering and planning a long-haul holiday? *(Q.C1)*

- Ceefax/Teletext
- Internet sites
- Newspaper travel supplements
- Tourism Boards
- Tour operator
- Travel agency
- Travel guidebooks
- TV travel programmes
- Word-of-mouth communication
- other

2.6.5 Crime-risk information research (question C2. In the survey)

- To what extent do you purposely make use of each of the following research sources about the crime situation of the destination/country you are visiting? *(Q.C2)*

- Friends/relatives/business associates
- Government travel advisories
- Internet sites
- Tourism Boards
- Travel agency/tour operator
- Travel guidebooks

2.6.6 Degree of crime-safety precautions used (question A. 8 in the survey)

- How often did you make use of the following crime-safety precautions while you were at the long-haul holiday destination? *(Q.A8)*

- Avoided going to certain streets/areas
- Avoided going out alone
- Avoided going out at night
- Avoided using public transport
- Didn't carry large amounts of cash
- Reduced wearing expensive jewellery
- Tried not to look like a tourist

2.6.7 Section Four: Long-haul travel intentions (questions D. 1 to D.3)

- In the next 12 months, how likely are you to go on a long-haul holiday (not for business)? *(Q.D1)*

- Likely
- Undecided
- Unlikely

If you are **undecided** or **unlikely** to go on a long-haul holiday in the next 12 months consider the reasons listed below. Indicate the amount of importance you associate for each reason. *(Q.D3)*

- Fear of deep-vein thrombosis (DVT)
- Fear of flying
- Hadn't considered it
- Health risks
- Too far away
- Not enough time
- Not interested
- Too dangerous
- Too expensive
- other

2.6.8 Section Five: Personal information (questions E.1 to E.7 in the survey)

Socio-demographics

- What is your gender? *(Q.E1)*
- What is your age? *(Q.E2)*
- What is your living status? *(Q.E3)*
- What is your household structure? *(Q.E4)*
- What is your occupation? *(Q.E5)*
- What is the highest level of education you have attained? *(Q.E6)*
- What is your country of citizenship? *(Q.E7)*

2.7 Long-haul travel decision-making process

The long-haul travel decision-making model and questions in the survey are discussed below:

- **Personal factors** are represented by information gathered from the long-haul travel crime-risk perceptions (Q.1, Section 2), push motives (Q.6, Section 1) and demographic components (gender, age, social class, education level) of the survey (Section 5).
- **Situational factors** are represented by information gathered from the previous long-haul travel experience (Q. 7, Section 1), past holiday-crime encounters (Q.3, Section 2) of the survey.

- **Destination factors** are represented by information gathered from the pull motives (Q.3, Section 1) of the survey.

The stages of the **long-haul travel decision-making process** are represented by information gathered from extent of information search (Q.1, Section 3), travel-safety research Q. 2, Section 3), and use of crime-risk safety precautions (Q. 8, Section 1).

Questions in the survey (Appendix A) regarding the long-haul travellers profile and the long-haul holiday decision-making process are explained below.

2.7.1 Long-haul traveller profile (see figure 5.)

(i) Long-haul travel experience

As part of developing a long-haul travel profile of the sample, two single-item screening questions (Section A, Questions 1, and 2) provide a measure of the respondent's past long-haul holiday experience. The measure is based on individual's previous long-haul holiday experience. This data provides an indication of the respondent's exposure to long-haul travel. The extent of long-haul holiday experience is measured by one multiple-item question regarding the number of long-haul holidays taken during the last five years (Section A, Q.7). It has been anticipated that providing

the respondents with a realistic time frame (five years), their experiences would be recalled more accurately. Answers to Question A7 are added to an overall scale of long-haul holiday experience. Respondents are categorised as 'experienced', 'moderately experienced', 'inexperienced' long-haul travellers.

(ii) Long-haul travel motivations

Two multiple-item questions in Section A, Questions 3 and 6, have assisted with the development of the long-haul traveller profile. The questions comprise a number of 'push motives' and a number of destination attributes that tourists seek as 'pull motives' in their travel decisions. These items have been drawn from a range of destination choice and tourist motivation literature (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977, 1981; Klenosky, 2002; Kozak, 2002; Uysal & Hagan, 1993). 'Push motives' are origin-related and refer to the intangible, intrinsic needs and wants of the individual traveller, for instance the desire for relaxation, escape, and social interaction. Conversely, 'pull motives', are mainly related to the features and attractions of the destination, such as beaches, cultural or historical attractions, VFM (value for money), and climate (Klenosky, 2002; Uysal & Hagan, 1993). In essence, push and pull factors have generally been characterised as relating to two separate decisions, i.e. – one focusing on whether to go, and the other on where to go.

(iii) Crime-risk perception levels

The overall measure of crime-risk perception levels is determined by one multi-item question, (Section B, Q.1). Respondents are asked to compare 20 long-haul holiday destinations listed in alphabetical order, in terms of their perceptions of physical and property crime-risk on a five-point Likert-type scale, in other words very safe, safe, neither/nor, unsafe, and very unsafe.

Crime-risk as an item has been divided into two variables, namely physical crime-risk and property crime-risk. This division is consistent with suggestions to use more traditional categories of 'Offences Against the Person' (or personal crime-risk) and

'Offences Against Property' (or property crime-risk) as found in the tourism criminological literature (Prideaux, 1996) and as documented in the crime research literature (Hope *et al.* 2001; Hough & Mayhew, 1983). However, there is no evidence in tourism crime literature of these two variables being differentiated.

Destinations have been selected on the basis that these are the tour operator's main long-haul destinations to which they send their clients. In addition, the majority of the selected countries also support the regions documented in academic literature, for example Australia (Allen, 1999; Kelly, 1993; Prideaux & Dunn, 1995; Prideaux, 1996), Brazil (Tarlow & Santana, 2002); the Caribbean (de Albuquerque & McElroy, 1999; Levantis & Gani, 2000); Egypt (Aziz, 1995); Mexico (McPheters & Stronge, 1974; Jud, 1975; Lin & Loeb, 1997); New Zealand (Barker, 2000; Barker, Page & Meyer, 2002; Ryan); South Africa (Bloom, 1996; George, 2001, 2003a); Thailand (Cohen, 1987, 1996); USA (Chesney-Lind and Lind, 1986; Fujii & Mak, 1979, 1980; Nicholls, 1976; Pizam, 1982; Schiebler, Crotts & Hollinger, 1996). 14 of the destinations selected for the study are consistent with Mintel's (2001a) top 20 long-haul destinations for UK holidaymakers in 1999 (Australia, Barbados, Brazil, Canada, Egypt, Jamaica, Kenya, India, Malaysia, South Africa, Thailand, UAE, and the USA). Furthermore, Muller's (1998) long-haul destinations with the highest growth rates were included in the survey – South Africa, Australia, New Zealand, China, USA, Canada and the Caribbean.

Answers to Question B1 are added to a sub-scale. As Roehl & Fesenmaier (1992: 24) noted, it has been possible to compare individuals with respect to specific destinations, and to investigate how and why individuals differently perceive a destination by keeping destinations constant. The data is used in their interval level in the multiple regression analyses. The standardised frequencies are categorised into three groups: 'low-risk', 'moderate risk', and 'high-risk' perception level groups.

In addition, subjects are asked to rate which of the 20 destinations (in Section B, Q.1) they would avoid travelling to for fear of crime, e.g. "riskiest to third riskiest country"; Section B, Q.2.

Subjects are also asked about their level of agreement with four statements (Section B, Q.4) regarding crime-risk associated with long-haul travel, such as 'I'm just as likely to be a victim of crime in the UK as I am while on a long-haul holiday', on a five-point Likert-type scale (strongly agree, agree, neither/nor, disagree, strongly disagree). The results were standardised and combined to create an overall sub-scale of attitude towards long-haul travel in relation to crime-risk and used in the multiple regression analyses.

2.7.2 Long-haul travel decision-making process (refer to the process in figure 5)

Several stages of the long-haul travel decision-making process have been analysed with findings from Section A (long-haul travel decisions, travel-safety precautions used), Section C (information search, travel-safety research), and Section D (long-haul travel intentions) of the survey.

(i) Attitudes regarding the decision to travel to long-haul destinations in relation to crime-risk

The general decision to travel to long-haul holiday destinations is measured by asking subjects about their level of agreement with four statements on a five-point Likert-type scale (strongly agree, agree, neither/nor, disagree, strongly disagree) regarding long-haul holiday travel and crime victimisation (Section B, Q.4).

(ii) Extent of information search

The extent of information search carried out by respondents is measured by nine information sources, for example, "the Internet, word-of-mouth communication, tour operator, newspaper travel supplements", on a five-point Likert-type scale ("always", "often", "sometimes", "rarely", and "never"; Section C, Q.1). These items are consistent with tourist information sources documented in tourism academic literature (Fodness & Murray, 1998; Muller, 1998; Snepenger *et al.* 1990; Snepenger &

Snepenger, 1993). For instance, Muller (1998) found the Internet, teletext, broadcast media and word-of-mouth communication to be important information sources for aiding long-haul destination decisions.

The reliability of the 9-item measure was tested with Cronbach-Alpha coefficient (α=.72) (see chapter 5). This finding suggests the items are sufficiently similar to each other to be viewed as a collective score and will be used as an indicator of overall travel information search.

(iii) The degree of the travel-safety research

The degree of travel-safety research (in the context of crime-risk) utilised by respondents is measured by presenting six travel-safety research sources such as "government travel advisories, Internet sites, travel guidebooks". The question regarding their use was posed on a five-point Likert-type scale ("always use" to "never use", Section C, Q.2). As there is no evidence of this variable having being used in existing tourism and crime theoretical or secondary data, the travel-safety research sources were identified through an extensive review of the literature and were thus designed specifically for this study.

The reliability of the 6-item measure was tested with Cronbach's-Alpha coefficient (α=.79).

(iv) Decisions regarding crime-safety precautions used

The degree of crime-safety precautions used by respondents is measured by presenting seven crime-safety items they may have used during their last long-haul holiday (Section A, Q.8). The scale used is "always", "often", "sometimes", "rarely", and "never". Although most of the crime-safety precautions were designed and subsequently chosen specifically for the purpose of this study, several items are consistent with Barker's (2000) New Zealand tourism crime study, namely "avoided going out at night", "avoided going out alone", "avoided certain areas", and "avoided

using public transport". In addition, a number of crime-safety precautions were derived from several tourist crime studies such as Fujii & Mak, 1980; Chesney-Lind & Lind, 1986; Ryan, 1993. These were then refined and condensed to seven items. For instance, Ryan observed that 'tourists are obvious in their dress and carry items of portable wealth...they are relaxed and off guard...' (1993: 177). With reference to 'avoiding using public transport', some studies have identified this item as a measure for safety (Pinhey & Iverson, 1994; George, 2003a). Similarly, the item "avoided going out at night" was used as a safety for a measure in the research studies conducted by Demos (1992) and George (2003a).

(v) Long-haul travel intentions

In Section D, Questions 1,2 and 3, the propensity for long-haul travel is measured by the individual's likelihood of taking a long-haul holiday during the next twelve months on a three-point Likert-type scale ("likely", "undecided", and "unlikely"). Respondents who were undecided or unlikely to travel, were asked to rate nine reasons for not travelling on a five-point Likert-type scale ("very important" to "very unimportant"). A review of relevant holiday motives and travel safety and security literature identified several items reported in various studies. For instance, deep vein thrombosis (DVT) or 'travellers' thrombosis' as it is also known has been a widely publicised health issue affecting travellers' concerns (Donne, 2002).

(vi) Socio-demographic variables

Gender =(1=Male; 2=Female) and country of citizenship (0 = UK; 1 = Other). Social class levels were determined in accordance to the United Kingdom's JIC-NARS (Joint Industry Committee for National Readership Surveys) socio-economic classification. The classification categorises individuals into one of six social class groups on the basis of their occupation, as illustrated in table 4.

Table 4. Socio-economic classification (source: JIC-NARS, 1994; Youell, 1996)

Social grade	Social class	Typical occupations
A	Upper Middle	Higher managerial and professional
B	Middle	Intermediate managerial and admin.
C1	Lower Middle	Supervisory, clerical/secretarial
C2	Skilled working	Skilled manual workers
D	Working	Semi- and unskilled manual workers
E	Not working	Pensioners, students, unemployed

The instrumentation of the survey in relation to the theoretical model (the long-haul holiday decision-making process; see figure 5 in Chapter 3) for the study has been discussed, in the next section the testing of the survey prior to administration is explained.

3. Pre-testing survey

A pre-test involves using the questionnaire on a trial basis in a small pilot study to determine how well the questionnaire works (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002: 981). The testing of questionnaires prior to administration is a process that is necessary to identify sampling and non-sampling errors that could be avoided during the main surveying period (Aaker, Kumar & Day 2001: 319). The procedures used are intended to identify deficiencies that may affect the quality or validity of the final data.

The draft survey was pilot-tested over a period of two weeks at a public library in the UK. 24 out of 40 self-administered surveys were filled out. The pilot sample was deemed reasonably representative of the sample population as respondents were UK residents and had travelled on a previous long-haul holiday (determined by screening question). This is consistent with the claim made by marketing researchers, for example according to Aaker, Kumar & Day, "...because a pre-test is a pilot run, the respondents should be reasonably representative of the sample population. However, they should

not all be 'typical', for much can be learned from those at the extremes of the sample" (2001: 319).

Two in-depth (face-to-face) interviews were also conducted for the purpose of pre-testing the survey. The questions in the survey were put to the respondents without probing from the researcher. In addition, the views of the tourism industry were also taken into account. A draft copy of the survey was sent to Cape Town Tourism (the City of Cape Town's TIC), the Western Cape Tourism Board (South Africa's provincial tourism organisation), the Chief Director of the Western Cape Department of Economic Development & Tourism, and the Western Cape's Tourism Safety Forum (TSF).[1] Each tourism stakeholder was requested to critique the survey and provide feedback for modifications or improvements. Only one organisation, the Western Cape Tourism Board (WCTB) made recommendations. The other two organisations, – Cape Town Tourism (CTT) and the Department of Economic Development & Tourism (DEDT, Western Cape), had no suggestions for improving the survey design.

A number of minor corrections were made to the design of the survey in light of the pre-test. Based on the examination of the methodology and survey responses, deficiencies in the pilot-testing procedure were not identified as an obstacle to the study's success.

4. The sample and sampling procedure

The sampling frame, which was obtained from a UK tour operator's database, included individuals who had booked a holiday with the company during 1982 to 2002. The tour operator's database consisted of 30,000 names from which a systematic random sample was conducted. A sample of 5,000 names was extracted from the database. This sample size was deemed necessary based on the anticipation of a response rate of less than 20 per cent, which is typical for mail surveys without a follow-up procedure (Aaker, Kumar & Day, 2001: 226). Every third client's name and address (not disclosed to the

[1] The Western Cape's TSF, was formed in 1999 in response to several bombings that occurred targeting tourist establishments and to counter the region gaining an international reputation for high levels of crime and social instability (George, 2001).

researcher) was drawn alphabetically from the database. A random sample of 5,000 was therefore drawn from the tour operator's database of 30,000. The study's target population included men and women born between 1930 and 2002, and included those who have used the services of the tour operator. The sample was deemed to be reasonably representative of the company's database.

5. Data collection

From the four primary methods of data collection, i.e. mail surveys, personal interviews, telephone surveys and fax surveys, mail surveys were selected as the most cost effective method. Market researchers have long recognised the obvious advantages of mail questionnaire surveys. They are relatively low in cost, geographically flexible, and can simultaneously reach a widely dispersed sample without the problems regarding interviewer access or possible distortions of time lag (Kanuk & Berenson, 1975: 440). Mail surveys are also the least expensive, allow the largest sample size within a given budget, eliminate interview bias, permit longer questionnaires, and allow respondents to consider their questions carefully (Bullen, 1994).

Mail surveys do hold some major disadvantages. These are generally believed to be low response rates as well as response bias and non-response bias (Kanuk & Berenson, 1975: 440; Armstrong & Overton, 1977: 396). Other disadvantages include that mail surveys allow for the least control over question completion, are subject to loss in the postal system, and do not permit interviewer probing (Aakar, Kumar & Day 2001: 244). Nevertheless academic researchers favour mail surveys for reasons of expediency, since data can be procured more quickly, more abundantly and cheaper than when other survey methods such as telephone and personal surveys are employed (Kephart & Bressler, 1958: 123).

The mailing was sent out during the third week of November 2002 and included:

- a cover letter (see Appendix A) which explained the purpose of the study inserted into the four-page questionnaire (in book form);

- a £20 credit voucher (redeemable against the purchase of a long-haul holiday with the tour operator); and
- a business reply envelope was sent to all 5,000 clients of the sample.

Marketing researchers propose several methods for increasing initial mail survey response rate (Aaker, Kumar & Day, 2001; Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002; Kanuk & Berenson, 1975; Green, 1996; Singer, 1978;). For instance, Kanuk & Berenson (1975) propose a number of techniques for increasing response rates for mail surveys based on their review of numerous empirical studies. These methods include survey sponsorship, return envelopes, postage, personalisation, cover letters, anonymity and monetary incentives. However, the researchers conclude that there is no strong evidence favouring any technique other than the use of monetary incentives to improve mail survey response rates (Kanuk & Berenson, 1975: 451). Providing information about the content and purpose of the survey and respondent anonymity have also been suggested as additional methods for increasing mail survey response rates (Singer, 1978, 152). All of these techniques were indeed utilised when designing the mail survey instrument for this study. In addition to these recommendations, good quality paper was used for both the study questionnaire and cover letter. The *University of Cape Town's* and the tour operator's logos were included and printed in full colour. As Churchill & Iacobucci assert, 'the physical appearance of the questionnaire can influence respondents' co-operation' (2002: 537).

A total of 5,000 questionnaires were mailed and 548 completed questionnaires were returned while 44 incomplete responses were eliminated from the analysis. This represents an 11.0 per cent response rate.

6. Telephonic survey of non-respondents

According to marketing researchers, low response rates in mail surveys is likely to produce non-response bias (Aaker, Kumar & Day, 2001; Armstrong & Overton, 1977; Frechtling, 1994, Turco & Kelsey, 1994). As Turco & Kelsey (1994) assert 'low response rates found in mail surveys argue against using the results to generalise to any population'. The response rate therefore gives an indication of questionnaires returned.

Non-response bias occurs when non-respondents are not representative of the total sample (Bailey, 1987). The most commonly recommended protection against non-response bias has been the reduction of non-response itself. Several approaches for improving responses rate and reducing bias in mail surveys have been recommended. Kanuk & Berenson (1975) suggest follow-up letters or reminders. Along with these suggestions, Churchill & Iacobucci add preliminary notification and repeat mailings (2002: 537). Nevertheless Kanuk & Berenson note that follow-up letters appear to a better investment than preliminary notification (1975: 450). However, due to time and monetary constraints as well as protecting the anonymity of the tour operator's clients, these propositions were not deemed appropriate for this study.

In order to deal with the problem of non-response, researchers propose that studying the differences between those who respond and those who do not is a means of determining the extent and direction of bias (Aaker, Kumar & Day, 2001; Armstrong & Overton, 1977). This is usually achieved by a single or a combination of several methods. These include, *inter alia*:

- taking a subsample of the non-respondents and conducting a telephone (or personal) survey to determine how they, the non-respondents, differ from respondents;
- comparing the results of the survey with 'known' values for the population, using such variables as demographics and socio-economics such as age, gender, education, etc.
- extrapolating and assuming that those who respond less readily are more like non-respondents (Armstrong & Overton, 1977: 399). Those who respond 'less readily' are slower than average in answering a mail survey or those who respond to a follow-up survey (Aaker, Kumar & Day, 2001: 246).

Armstrong & Overton further note that estimating non-response bias is one of the most economical methods for the researcher. 'It might be more economical to accept a lower rate of return. In other words, a non-response estimation strategy might provide equivalent results at a lower cost' (1977: 396)

An 11.0 per cent response rate obtained by this study did require non-response bias to be investigated further. The first two methods listed above were used, i.e. telephone survey of a sample of non-respondents and comparing some of the results with known values of the sampling frame or survey population. Due to the fact the tour operator was required to maintain confidentiality of their clients various findings were compared to the survey population namely a UK long-haul travel Mintel study (Mintel, 2001a). The extrapolation method was not considered to be feasible as the researcher was unable to keep track of the 'wave' of returned surveys as the returned surveys were collated by the UK tour operator.

Results of the telephone survey are discussed below.

A systematic random sample of 100 names representing a 1 per cent subsample from non-respondents (N = 4,452) was selected. 75 (1.7 per cent) responses were obtained Telephone numbers were obtained from the tour operator. This included 4 refusals. A total of 71 telephone interviews were conducted. (A copy of the telephone survey is provided in Appendix B).

The comparison of 8 variables to determine the differences between mail survey and non-respondents (telephone survey) found a significant difference exists between the respondents and non-respondents in terms of the number of times that they have been on a long-haul holiday in the last five years. For the independent variables, significant differences were found only in terms of long-haul travel experience. Non-respondents had less long-haul holiday experience than respondents to the mail survey (p-level=.004. This may be justified given that those that received the survey had travel experience were more likely to complete a travel survey. No significant difference was found between the independent variable attitudes towards long-haul travel and crime-safety (p-level=0.312),

For the response variables, no significant differences were found. For instance, no significant differences were found between the extent of information search undertaken by respondents and non-respondents (p-level=0.550), and crime-safety precautions used while on holiday (p-level=0.397). No differences were found between respondents and non-respondent's demographic variables: education (p-level=.721) and gender (p-

level=.771). In summary, non-respondents appeared to have less long-haul holiday experience than respondents and less likely to go on a long-haul holiday within the next year.

In order to determine the differences between the results from respondents and non-respondents, a comparison was also made with "known" values for the population such as gender, age and social class. A few demographics allow the researcher to draw some conclusions about the appropriateness of the sample profile (Kanuk & Berenson, 1975).

The comparative findings suggest that the profile of the respondents is similar to the profile of the long-haul travel profile of that of the secondary data (Mintel UK long-haul holidays study). These findings more or less mirror that of the general UK long-haul traveller, as shown in table 5.

Table 5. Sociodemographics compared to Mintel (2001) study

	This study %	**Mintel 2001 study %**
Total	100	100
Gender		
Male	39	49
Female	61	51
Age		
15–24	0.5	15
25–34	6.4	18
35–44	25.0	19
45–54	27.2	16
55–64	32.5	13
65+	8.4	19
Social class		
AB	52.4	23
C1	9.8	27
C2	7.3	22
D	4.9	17
E	4.0	11
Retired	21.5	20

7. Study Limitations

This study has several limitations and these should be recognised when assessing the findings.

1. Findings might be limited by the nature of the **sampling frame**. A valid and current mailing list was obtained from the tour operator's customer database. As might be expected, it is especially difficult to obtain a useful mailing list that is representative of the desired population or sample group. It is not possible to determine all of the circumstances relevant to the accumulation of the mailing list, relating study findings to the general population is therefore not recommended.

2. This study is only referring to long-haul travellers that have used the services of the tour operator. Findings should therefore not be inferred to the general **population of long-haul travellers.**

3. The study findings may **not be generalised to include non-UK populations** as the investigation was conducted in the UK. Respondents may well have been influenced by their cultural background.

4. **Survey response bias** A common shortcoming of many surveys is where people with vested interests in the topic are more inclined to respond, thereby leading to selection bias. The survey deals with crime issues related to travel that may be sensitive to some respondents, although for the most part, the survey is not overtly personal.

5. **Database** The tour operator's database consists of clients that date back to over twenty years. As such there may well be a status of the respondents, which is out of the researcher's control.

The study did benefit from having access to a tour operator's mailing list for the mailing of the survey. However, this did limit the flexibility of the research's structure as confidentiality agreements were made between the researcher and the tour operator. For instance, a condition agreed upon was that there would be no contact between the researcher and the tour operator's clients. For this reason, no follow-up letters and surveys were sent out to non-respondents. Nevertheless, the researcher was granted permission to contact clients for the non-respondent telephonic survey.

8. Data analysis

Data was coded and quantitatively analysed using the statistical software package STATISTICA. Descriptive statistics were used to develop a profile of socio-demographic variables as well as independent and dependent variables (e.g. mean, standard deviation, range).

Multiple regression analysis was used to test hypothesised statistical relationships and to identify independent variables showing the strongest influence in the long-haul decision-making stages. Gender was treated as a dummy variable. All other variables were treated at the interval level in regression analysis. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to test the amount of variation within the social class factor and dependent variables.

9. Indices and scales used in analysis

A number of indices and scales were created for the independent and dependent variables.

9.1 Independent variables

A number of indices and scales were created based on the independent variables used in the study. These are listed below and summarised in table 6.

Long haul travel experience – (Question A7 in the questionnaire – Appendix A). 1 = None at all; 2 = Once; 3 = Twice and 4 = Three times or more.

Crime-risk perception level – (Q.B1). This is a weighted summative index of all the responses in question B1. Thus it will be composed of all the ratings in the physical-crime columns multiplied by a weight of 2 + all the weighting in the property-crime columns multiplied by a weight of 1. The reason for using a weighted scale is because of the unequal importance of the Physical vs. the Property factors. This index took a

minimum value of 60 = Low {(20x1x2)+(20x1x1)} and a maximum value of 300 = High {(20x5x2)+(20x5x1)}.

Past holiday crime encounters – (Q. B3). (1 =Yes (past holiday crime encounter) or 2 = No)

Gender – (Q. E.1). (1=Male; 2=Female)

Age group – (Q. E2). (1=15-25; 2=26-34; 3=35-44; 4=45-54; 5=55-64; 6=65+)

Education – (Q. E6). (1=No formal education; 2=GCSE/O level; 3=A-level, trade or technical diploma/professional qualification; 4=university degree; 5=postgraduate degree)

Table 6. List of independent variables and coding

Independent variable	**Q. #**	**Coding**					
Long-haul travel experience	A.7	(1) None at all	2) Once	(3) Twice	(4) Three times +		
Crime-risk perception level	B.1	(1) very safe	(2) safe	(3)Neutral	(4) unsafe	(5) very unsafe	
Past holiday-crime encounters	B.3	(1) yes	(2) No				
Gender	E.1	(1) male	(2) female				
Age	E.2	(1) 15-25	(2) 26-34	(3) 35-44	(4) 45-54	(5) 55-64	(6) 65+
Education	E.6	(1) no formal	(2) GCSE/ O-level	(3) A-level, trade	(4) University degree	(5) post graduate degree	

9.2 Dependent variables.

A series of indices were created based on the scored items of the dependent variables. These are listed below and summarised in table 7.

(i) Unstructured information search – This is a summative index composed of the ratings of the following items in question C1: Ceefax/Teletext + Internet sites + Newspapers + Tourism Boards + Travel guidebooks + TV programmes. This index took the minimum value of 6 = Low (6 items x 1) and the maximum value of 30 = High (6 items x 5). Scale was coded:

(ii) Directed information search – This is a summative index composed of the ratings of the following items in question C1: Tour Operators + Travel Agents. This index took the minimum value of 2 = Low (2 items x 1) and the maximum value of 10 = High (2 items x 5).

(iii) Travel safety information search – This is a summative index compose of the ratings of all the items in question C2: Friends/Relatives + Government travel advisories + Internet sites + Tourism Boards + Travel agency/tour operators + Travel guidebooks. This index took the minimum value of 6 = Low (6 items x 1) and the maximum value of 30 = High (6 items x 5). Scale was coded 1= Never use and 5= Always use

(iv) Avoidance crime-safety precautions – This is a summative index composed of the ratings of the following items in question A8: Avoided going to certain areas + Avoided going out alone + Avoided going out at night + Avoided using public transport. This index took the minimum value of 4 = Low (4 items x 1) and the maximum value of 20 = High (4 items x 5). 1= Never use and 5= Always use.

(v) Reduction crime-safety precautions - This is a summative index composed of the ratings of the following items in question A8: Reduced carrying large amounts of cash + Reduced wearing expensive jewellery + Tried not to look like a tourist. This index took the minimum value of 3 = Low (3 items x 1) and the maximum value of 15 = High (3 items x 5). 1= Never use and 5=Always use.

Table 7. List of dependent variables and coding

Dependent variable	Q. #	Coding					Index range
Unstructured information search	C.7	(1) Never use	(2) rarely	(3) some-times	(4) often	(5) always	6-30
Directed information search	C.1	(1) Never use	(2) rarely	(3) some-times	(4) often	(5) always	2-10
Travel-safety research	B.3	(1) Never use	(2) rarely	(3) some-times	(4) often	(5) always	6-30
Avoidance crime-safety precautions	A.8	(1) Never use	(2) rarely	(3) some-times	(4) often	(5) always	4-20
Reduction crime-safety precautions	A.8	(1) Never use	(2) rarely	(3) some-times	(4) often	(5) always	3-15

10. Summary

In summary, this chapter has outlined the methods used to collect and analyse the data for the study. In spite of various research limitations, which may constrain the study when interpreting the implications of the results, the objectives of the study were achieved.

Based on preliminary data, further research may be required to support or dispute the findings generated. In general the research study contributes to the literature towards understanding tourist consumer behaviour and safety and security. In the next chapter the findings from the primary research are presented and subsequently discussed.

5 Findings and Discussion

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis, including a profile of study respondents, a discussion of the findings of respondents' perceptions of long-haul travel destinations, respondents' involvement in the various stages of the long-haul travel decision-making process, and results of statistical tests of the hypotheses. These findings are then discussed in the context of the research objectives listed in Chapter 1 and the literature overviewed in Chapter 2.

1. Sociodemographic profile

A random sample of 5,000 long-haul travellers from the UK was selected to participate in the study. A total of 548 completed (postal) questionnaires were returned representing an 11.0 per cent response rate. Respondents were primarily older, well educated, and in professional occupations, as displayed in table 8. On average most respondents were in the 45 to 54 years of age category. Over half (or 68 per cent) of the sample was 45 or older; 32 per cent of the respondents were over the age of 55, while 8 per cent were 65 or older and less than 7 per cent of the respondents younger than 35. A quarter (25 per cent) of the respondents attended university and 15 per cent reported having a postgraduate degree. Over 40 per cent of the respondents were in professional or higher management positions, 11 per cent were in middle management positions and 21 per cent were retired or non-working. There were 61 per cent female respondents and 39 per cent male respondents. 97 per cent of the respondents reported the UK as their country of citizenship.

Table 8. Sociodemographic profile of respondents

Sociodemographic variables	*N*	%
Gender		
Female	334	61
Male	214	39
	548	**100.0**
Age		
15–24	4	0.7
25–34	36	6.6
35–44	137	25.0
45–54	149	27.2
55–64	178	32.5
65+	44	8.0
	548	**100.0**
Education		
No formal qualification	32	5.9
GCSE/ O-level	110	20.1
A-level/HND/professional qualification	183	33.1
University degree	139	25.5
Postgraduate degree	82	15.0
Other	2	0.4
	548	**100.0**
Social class		
A[i]	225	41.1
B[ii]	62	11.3
C1[iii]	54	9.8
C2[iv]	40	7.3
D[v]	27	4.9
E[vi]	140	22.0
	548	**100.0**
Country of citizenship		
UK	533	97.2
Other	15	2.8
	548	**100.0**

[i]Professional and higher managerial type occupations
[ii]Managerial type occupations
[iii]Supervisory, clerical occupations
[iv]Skilled manual occupations
[v]Semi- and unskilled manual occupations
[vi]Retired, students, unemployed

2. Long-haul traveller profile

All 548 respondents had been on a long-haul holiday between 1990 and 2002. Respondents to the survey (which was conducted in November 2002) emerged as seasoned long-haul travellers, with almost 50 per cent reporting that they had been on a long-haul holiday during 2002, as shown in table 9.

Table 9. Long-haul travel profile of respondents

Long-haul traveller profile variables	*N*	%
Date of last long-haul holiday		
2002	272	49.6
2001	104	18.9
2000	58	10.6
1999	34	5.3
1998	28	4.2
1996/1997	13	3.2
1990-1995	26	5.9
pre-1990	13	2.3
	548	**100.0**
Region of last long-haul holiday		
Africa	76	13.7
Asia	112	20.4
Middle East	16	2.9
North America	185	33.7
S & C America	54	9.8
Australasia	39	7.1
Tropical Isl. (inc. W. Indies)	65	11.9
Arctic circle	1	0.1
	548	**100.0**
Number of long-haul holidays (during the last 5 years)		
None	52	9.5
Once	79	23.9
Twice	112	20.4
3 times or more	305	55.6
	548	**100.0**
Number of people in travel group		
Alone	160	29.1
2	155	28.3
3-5	50	9.1
6+	184	33.6
	548	**100.0**
Likelihood of long-haul holiday in next 12 months		
Likely	391	71.3
Undecided	110	20.0
Unlikely	47	8.5
	548	**100.0**
Was a victim of Crime		
Yes	34	6.2
No	514	93.8
	548	**100.0**

Respondents also demonstrated that they had travelled widely to a variety of destination regions. For example, a third of respondents, or 33.7 per cent of the sample, stated their last long-haul destination region was North America, 15 per cent reported travel to the Far East, 14 per cent reported travel to Africa, and 12 per cent reported travel to the Tropical

Islands such as Mauritius, the Seychelles, and the West Indies. Furthermore, over 55 per cent of the respondents stated they had been on a long-haul holiday three times or more during the last five years.

Almost 30 per cent of respondents stated that they had travelled alone, while a third of respondents stated they had travelled in a group of six or more travel companions (presumably as part of a tour operator group). Nearly 72 per cent of the respondents expressed intent to go on a long-haul holiday within the coming year, whereas 8 per cent reported they were not likely to do so. 34 respondents, or 6.2 per cent of the sample, reported that they had been victims of crime at one of the twenty long-haul destinations mentioned in the survey. This low incidence of victimisation is consistent with previous tourist victimisation research conducted in New Zealand (Barker, Page & Meyer, 2002).

3. Crime-risk perception profile of respondents

A crime-risk perception profile was determined by respondents' perceptions of twenty long-haul destinations in terms of physical and property crime-risk; avoidance of long-haul destinations due to perceived crime-risk; and attitudes towards long-haul travel in relations to crime.

3.1 Perceptions of long-haul destinations

The destinations perceived on a five-point Likert-type scale (strongly agree, agree, neither/nor, disagree, strongly disagree) by respondents as safe from physical crime-risk included New Zealand ($\bar{x}$ = 1.61), Canada ($\bar{x}$ = 1.72), and Australia ($\bar{x}$ = 1.83) as shown in table 10. Countries perceived by respondents as risky included South Africa ($\bar{x}$ = 3.67), Jamaica ($\bar{x}$ = 3.57), Brazil ($\bar{x}$ = 3.39), Kenya ($\bar{x}$ = 3.39), and Egypt ($\bar{x}$ = 3.21). Findings are comparable to that of Barker's (2000) NZ crime-tourism study which recorded South Africa, Argentina and Thailand as the riskiest countries (although Barker's study did not

include Jamaica, Brazil and Kenya). In this study, as with Barker's (2000) research, New Zealand, Canada and Australia were all perceived as safe.

Table 10. Crime-risk (physical) perceptions of long-haul destinations

Degree of crime-risk (physical) perceptions of long-haul countries								
	N	Very Safe (1)	Safe (2)	Neither/ Nor (3)	Unsafe (4)	Very unsafe (5)	%	Mean $\bar{x}$
South Africa	548	0.7	8.4	29.9	44.3	16.6	100	3.67
Jamaica	548	0.2	6.8	40.1	40.9	12.0	100	3.57
Brazil	548	0.2	10.6	44.3	39.1	5.8	100	3.39
Kenya	548	0.4	9.7	47.6	35.0	7.3	100	3.39
Egypt	548	2.2	18.4	40.0	34.1	5.3	100	3.21
Costa Rica	548	2.2	15.1	56.6	22.6	3.5	100	3.10
Argentina	548	1.5	16.1	60.6	19.0	2.9	100	3.05
Jordan	548	3.5	20.6	52.0	19.3	4.6	100	3.00
India	548	3.5	30.7	48.7	16.1	1.1	100	2.80
Thailand	548	8.0	27.2	43.6	18.8	2.4	100	2.80
Barbados	548	5.5	33.2	48.0	13.0	0.4	100	2.69
Malaysia	548	8.0	34.3	45.1	11.5	1.1	100	2.63
USA*	548	12.4	46.7	29.2	10.8	0.9	100	2.41
China	548	12.4	40.9	41.8	4.7	–	100	2.38
UAE (Dubai)	548	15.1	43.6	36.3	4.7	0.2	100	2.31
Mauritius	548	12.8	46.7	37.4	3.1	–	100	2.30
Seychelles	548	15.5	49.1	32.7	2.6	0.2	100	2.24
Australia*	548	32.1	53.5	13.3	1.1	–	100	1.83
Canada*	548	42.2	44.2	13.1	0.5	–	100	1.72
New Zealand*	548	48.5	41.4	9.9	0.2	–	100	1.61

*Developed/industrialised countries

Destinations perceived on a five-point Likert-type scale (strongly agree, agree, neither/nor, disagree, strongly disagree) by respondents as safe in terms of property crime-risk included New Zealand ($\bar{x}$ = 1.73), Canada ($\bar{x}$ = 1.91), and Australia ($\bar{x}$ = 2.04). Countries perceived as risky comprised of Jamaica ($\bar{x}$ = 3.68), South Africa ($\bar{x}$ = 3.68), Brazil ($\bar{x}$ = 3.59), Kenya ($\bar{x}$ = 3.52), and Egypt ($\bar{x}$ = 3.39) as shown in table 11.

In comparison to the findings in the previous analysis (table 10), there was a minor disparity between how respondents perceived the 20 long-haul destinations in the context of property crime-risk and physical crime-risk. All of the destinations, with the exception

of Jordan (-.04), were perceived as marginally safer in terms of physical crime-risk. India (+.51), Barbados (+.24) and Thailand (+.22) were perceived by respondents as safer in terms of physical crime-risk over property crime-risk. Notably there are variations in the country scores between the industrialised and developing countries in terms of personal and property safety. For example, developing countries such as South Africa, Jamaica, Brazil, Kenya and Argentina all scored low, whereas the industrialised countries of New Zealand, Canada and Australia scored highly for perceptions of personal safety.

Table 11. Crime-risk (property) perceptions of long-haul destinations

Degree of crime-risk (property) perceptions of long-haul countries								
	N	**Very Safe (1)**	**Safe (2)**	**Neither/ Nor (3)**	**Unsafe (4)**	**Very unsafe (5)**	**%**	**Mean $\bar{x}$**
Jamaica	548	0.2	5.3	35.6	43.6	15.3	100	3.68
South Africa	548	0.7	6.0	32.1	46.0	15.1	100	3.68
Brazil	548	0.7	6.8	38.1	41.4	13.0	100	3.59
Kenya	548	0.2	7.3	42.2	40.3	10.0	100	3.52
Egypt	548	1.8	12.6	37.8	39.6	8.2	100	3.39
India	548	2.4	12.4	39.8	42.0	3.5	100	3.31
Argentina	548	1.2	13.5	52.0	29.2	4.2	100	3.22
Costa Rica	548	1.5	12.2	54.9	26.6	4.7	100	3.21
Thailand	548	4.2	19.7	48.9	23.9	3.3	100	3.02
Jordan	548	2.9	21.9	55.3	16.1	3.8	100	2.96
Barbados	548	3.3	24.6	49.5	20.6	2.0	100	2.93
Malaysia	548	4.7	30.5	49.3	14.4	1.1	100	2.76
USA*	548	8.9	40.9	32.1	16.6	1.5	100	2.60
China	548	9.5	38.5	44.7	6.4	0.9	100	2.50
Mauritius	548	7.1	45.3	42.3	5.3	–	100	2.45
UAE (Dubai)	548	13.3	40.1	40.0	6.2	0.4	100	2.40
Seychelles	548	11.3	47.3	36.7	4.6	0.2	100	2.35
Australia*	548	21.7	54.7	21.4	2.2	–	100	2.04
Canada*	548	32.3	46.9	18.4	2.2	0.2	100	1.91
New Zealand*	548	40.5	46.0	12.6	0.9	–	100	1.73

*Developed/industrialised countries

3.2 Avoidance of long-haul destinations

In response to an open-ended question regarding which three countries (from the twenty provided) respondents would avoid for fear of being a crime victim on a five-point Likert-type scale (strongly agree, agree, neither/nor, disagree, strongly disagree), 137 (25 per cent) respondents selected Jamaica as the 'riskiest'. 113 (20.5 per cent) respondents identified South Africa as the 'second riskiest' and 68 (12.4 per cent) respondents chose Brazil as the 'third riskiest' among the twenty long-haul destinations listed, as displayed in table 12. Most notably, South Africa was the runner-up (21.5 per cent) in the riskiest column and runner-up in the third riskiest (12.4 per cent) column. These findings are consistent with that of Barker's NZ tourism (2000) study, which reported South Africa, Egypt and Mexico as the regions respondents would most avoid due to crime safety concerns. Over a third of Barker's respondents claimed that they would not travel to South Africa as a direct consequence of safety concerns (Barker, 2000: 181).

Table 12. Plan to avoid long-haul destinations for fear of crime (in percentages)

	Riskiest (*N*=548) %		**Second riskiest (*N*=548) %**		**Third riskiest (*N*=548) %**
Jamaica	25.0	South Africa	20.3	Brazil	12.4
South Africa	21.5	Kenya	12.0	South Africa	12.4
Brazil	10.8	Brazil	11.7	Kenya	10.8
Kenya	9.3	Jamaica	11.7	Egypt	10.2
Egypt	7.8	Egypt	8.4	Jamaica	9.3
Argentina	4.6	Costa Rica	6.2	India	7.1
Thailand	3.8	Argentina	5.5	Argentina	6.0
Jordan	3.6	Thailand	5.1	Jordan	4.7
USA	2.7	India	4.6	Thailand	4.4
Malaysia	2.6	Jordan	3.1	Costa Rica	4.2
Costa Rica	1.6	USA	2.7	USA	3.6
India	1.5	Malaysia	2.0	Malaysia	3.1
Barbados	0.4	Barbados	0.7	Barbados	2.2
China	0.4	Australia	0.4	UAE	1.1
UAE	0.2	UAE	0.4	China	0.9
Missing	4.2	China	0.2	Mauritius	0.4
	100.0	Missing	5.1	Missing	7.4
			100.0		**100.0**

3.3 Attitudes towards long-haul travel in terms of crime-safety

Findings imply that respondents' attitudes towards long-haul travel may be somewhat influenced by concerns about crime safety. 32 per cent of respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement: 'I don't travel to certain long-haul places for fear of becoming a crime victim', as illustrated in table 13. This finding is supported by an earlier tourism-crime study, which reported that 42 per cent of UK holidaymakers would exclude certain countries because of crime problems (Brunt, Mawby & Hambly, 2000: 422). Additional results showed 35 per cent of respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 'other people's crime experiences influences my decision to travel overseas', while the same percentage of the sample (35 per cent) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the same statement.

Table 13. Attitudes towards decisions to long-haul travel in relation to crime-risk (in percentages)

Attitudes towards long-haul travel in terms of crime-risk								
	N	**Strongly agree (1)**	**Agree (2)**	**Neither/ Nor (3)**	**Disagree (4)**	**Strongly disagree (5)**	**%**	**Mean $\bar{x}$**
I don't travel to certain long-haul places for fear of becoming a crime victim.	548	9.3	22.6	29.4	25.0	13.7	100	3.11
Other people's crime experiences influence my decision to travel overseas.	548	3.5	31.2	29.9	26.5	8.8	100	3.13
I'm just as likely to be a victim of crime in the UK as I am while on a long-haul holiday.	548	21.5	48.0	14.6	12.2	3.6	100	2.28
If I read/hear about high crime rates at a long-haul destination I would avoid it for a holiday.	548	12.2	43.1	27.9	12.8	4.0	100	2.53

Study results demonstrated that a large proportion (70 per cent) of respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 'I'm just as likely to be a victim of crime in the UK as I am while on a long-haul holiday'. Findings suggest that the influence of the media on

travel decision-making is evident. Over half of respondents (55.3 per cent) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement 'if I read/hear about high crime rates at a long-haul destination I would avoid it for a holiday'. This is a significant finding and suggests that respondents are substantially influenced by what they read and hear from information sources (such as the media, family, friends and relatives) regarding the safety and security of destinations during holiday planning. In comparison, in a study of US travellers in the context of terrorism, Sonmez (1994) found that only a quarter of respondents agreed with a similar statement: 'I'd like to travel overseas but negative news discourages me'.

4. Long-haul travel decision-making process

Respondents' extent of involvement with three stages of the long-haul travel decision-making process within the context of crime-risk (information search, travel-safety research and crime-safety precautions) will now be discussed.

4.1 Long-haul travel information search

Respondent's extent of travel information search is shown in table 14.

Table 14. Extent of long-haul travel information search

Sources of information used to measure extent of information search								
	N	Always use (1)	Often use (2)	Some-times (3)	Rarely use (4)	Never use (5)	%	Mean $\bar{x}$
Travel guidebook	548	23.4	33.8	27.7	9.7	5.5	100	2.40
Word-of-mouth	548	8.6	39.1	44.0	6.2	2.2	100	2.54
Tour operator	548	13.7	35.8	33.6	12.6	4.4	100	2.58
Newspapers	548	7.7	43.1	34.7	8.9	5.7	100	2.61
TV programmes	548	6.0	31.9	44.5	13.0	4.6	100	2.78
Travel agency	548	8.9	28.1	35.6	20.3	7.1	100	2.88
Internet sites	548	11.1	26.1	25.2	10.9	26.5	100	3.15
Tourism boards	548	3.3	12.6	35.8	28.8	19.5	100	3.48
Ceefax/Teletext	548	2.2	7.5	22.6	23.0	44.7	100	4.00

Information sources most often used by respondents were found to be travel guidebooks (always or often used by 57.2 per cent), newspapers (always or often used by 50.8 per cent), and tour operators (always or often used by 49.5 per cent). This finding is consistent with Sheldon's (1993) study which found that for long-haul travel destinations, (which travellers are likely to know less about), travel agents are more important information sources and personal information sources are perhaps less important because fewer people experience long-haul destinations.

4.2 Travel-safety research

Travel guidebooks were found to be the most popular source of travel-safety research by individuals (always or often used by 41.3 per cent), as illustrated in table 15. Other important sources of travel-safety research used by respondents included consulting friends and relatives (always or often used by 33.5 per cent), travel agents/tour operators (always or often used by 29 per cent) and government travel advisories (always or often used by 29 per cent). Less popular sources of travel-safety research used by respondents included the Internet (seldom used by 56.6 per cent of respondents). Over 55 per cent of respondents reported that they seldom used tourism boards (destination tourism organisations).

Study findings indicate the importance of printed media (travel guidebooks) as a source of information as well as travel-safety research during long-haul travel decision-making.

Table 15. Degree of travel-safety research

Sources of research used to measure extent of travel-safety research								
	N	Always use (1)	Often use (2)	Some-times (3)	Rarely use (4)	Never use (5)	%	Mean $\bar{x}$
Travel guidebooks	548	13.7	27.6	33.4	11.5	13.9	100	2.84
Friends/relatives	548	8.0	25.5	38.1	14.1	14.2	100	3.00
T.A./Tour operator	548	8.4	20.6	33.6	22.1	15.3	100	3.15
Travel advisories	548	13.7	15.5	26.1	21.2	23.5	100	3.25
Tourism boards	548	2.2	11.9	30.7	27.7	27.6	100	3.66
Internet	548	5.7	14.6	23.2	17.7	38.9	100	3.69

4.3 Crime-safety precautions

Study results imply that respondents were more concerned with ensuring the security of their possessions than their personal safety. The types of crime-safety precautions most often used by respondents during their last long-haul holiday included 'didn't carry large amounts of cash' (78.8 per cent stated they always or often use) and 'carried less valuables' (71.5 per cent always or often use). This finding is consistent with Barker's 2000 New Zealand study which found 81 per cent of respondents 'avoid leaving valuables where visible' (Barker, 2000: 204). As shown in table 16, 'avoided going to certain areas' was also found to be an important crime-safety precaution used by respondents during their last long-haul holiday (50 per cent reported that they always or often use).

Table 16. Use of crime-safety precautions

Types of crime-safety precautions used								
	N	Always use (1)	Often use (2)	Some-times (3)	Rarely use (4)	Never use (5)	%	Mean $\bar{x}$
Didn't carry large amounts of cash	548	55.3	23.5	11.9	6.9	2.4	100	1.77
Carried less valuables	548	55.1	16.4	12.4	6.8	9.3	100	1.98
Avoided going to certain areas	548	30.3	19.7	28.3	13.0	8.8	100	2.50
Avoided going out alone	548	26.8	17.2	24.3	16.8	15.0	100	2.75
Tried not to look like a tourist	548	19.2	22.8	27.2	18.1	12.8	100	2.82
Avoided going out at night	548	7.5	14.2	29.4	22.6	26.3	100	3.46
Avoided using public transport	548	6.2	13.1	26.3	26.1	28.3	100	3.57
Other	19	2.5	0.9	–	–	–	100	1.12

Several crime-safety precautions were identified as less popular, for example, 'avoided using public transport' (stated by 54.4 per cent of respondents that they rarely or never use); this might be attributed to public transport not being available at a particular destination. 49 per cent stated that they rarely or never used 'avoided going out at night' as

a crime-safety precaution during their last long-haul holiday. Several respondents also noted making use of other crime-safety precautions besides the items listed in the survey. These included making use of a hotel safe, and being more aware/vigilant.

5. Long-haul travel attributes and traveller motives

Long-haul travellers' motives included responses relating to individuals' long-haul destination attributes (pull factors) and motives (push factors).

5.1 Long-haul destination attributes

The majority of respondents reported that 'beautiful scenery' was the most important attribute when choosing where to go on long-haul holiday (89.6 per cent stated very important or important), as illustrated in table 17.

Table 17. Importance of destination attributes in long-haul travel decisions

Long-haul destination attributes	N	Very important (1)	Important (2)	Neither/ Nor (3)	Un-important (4)	Very un-important (5)	%	Mean $\bar{x}$
Beautiful scenery	548	47.8	41.8	8.2	1.6	0.5	100	1.65
Nice weather	548	37.4	41.1	18.4	2.7	0.4	100	1.87
VFM	548	29.0	50.4	18.6	2.0	–	100	1.93
Personal S & S	548	29.2	46.0	21.9	2.6	0.4	100	1.98
Interesting culture	548	30.1	45.6	19.2	4.2	0.9	100	2.00
Interesting locals	548	15.1	56.9	24.3	3.1	0.5	100	2.17
Good entertainment	548	7.5	28.6	34.3	23.0	6.6	100	2.92
Other	32	8.2	3.3	–	–	–	100	1.28

A large percentage of respondents stated that value for money (79.4 per cent stated very important or important) and nice weather (78.5 per cent stated very important or important)

were important long-haul destination attributes. Over three-quarters of respondents (75.6 per cent) reported that 'interesting culture/history' was an important or very important attribute when choosing their last long-haul holiday destination. Similarly, three-quarters of respondents (75.2 per cent) reported that personal safety and security was an important or very important destination attribute. 29.6 per cent of the sample reported 'good entertainment' as the least important long-haul holiday destination attribute.

5.2 Long-haul traveller motives

As shown in table 18, novelty was found to be an important motive in long-haul travel decisions. For example, the majority (87.1 per cent) of respondents stated that 'to go somewhere new' was the most important motive during long-haul holiday decision-making. Further results show that over three-quarters of respondents (77.5 per cent) reported that 'to learn about new places', and 'to meet new people' (73.3 per cent) were important or very important motives for going on a long-haul holiday. These novelty factors might well be attributed to the lack of long-haul destination experience of respondents. Findings indicate that VFR (visiting friends and relatives) was the least important (very unimportant or unimportant) motive for going on a long-haul holiday (as reported by 49.4 per cent of respondents).

Table 18. Importance of respondents' motives in long-haul travel decisions

Long-haul travellers' motives								
	N	**Very important (1)**	**Important (2)**	**Neither/ Nor (3)**	**Un-important (4)**	**Very un-important (5)**	**%**	**Mean $\bar{x}$**
Go somewhere new	548	40.0	47.1	18.1	5.1	1.5	100	1.92
Learn about places	548	31.9	45.6	16.6	5.1	0.7	100	1.97
Meet new people	548	20.3	43.1	30.1	5.3	1.3	100	2.24
Have fun	548	16.1	43.4	27.6	7.1	2.2	100	2.32
Relax	548	18.2	43.4	27.9	7.8	2.6	100	2.33
Get away from UK	548	18.2	35.2	28.8	10.0	5.3	100	2.46
VFR	548	15.5	5.5	29.6	17.3	32.1	100	3.45
Other	20	5.7	1.8	–	–	–	100	1.24

6. Results of the dimension analyses

Results of the dimension analyses include the reliability and factor analyses to test reliability of the variables and the association between items in the variables.

6.1 Reliability analysis

Cronbach's alpha coefficients tested reliability of the scales developed to measure the independent variables and dependent variables. Results of the test (shown in table 19) illustrate that all variables were greater than 0.70. Those greater than 0.70 are reliable (Nunnally, 1978). In particular, the crime-safety precautions variable was found to be the most reliable (Cronbach's α=0.81), followed by travel-safety information search (Cronbach's α=0.79), and crime-risk perception level (Cronbach's α=0.78).

Table 19. Cronbach's alpha reliability scores of independent variables and dependent variables

Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	*N*	Items
Independent variables			
Long-haul holiday experience	0.76	548	4
Crime-risk perception level	0.78	547	20
Dependent variables			
Information search	0.72	547	9
Travel-safety information search	0.79	548	6
Crime-safety precautions	0.81	548	7

6.2 Factor analysis of dependent variables

A factor analysis was conducted on the dependent variables to identify the association between the scored items in each of the variables and to confirm the use of the various items to measure the underlying constructs.

Factor analysis I was conducted to identify long-haul travel information sources most often used by respondents. The factor analysis of the 8-item Likert-type information source scale produced two factors explaining 42.9% of the variance (see table 20).

Table 20. Factor analysis I: Information sources

Factor name	Factor Loading	Mean[a] $\bar{x}$	Eigenvalue	Explained variance (%)
Unstructured information sources			2.36	26.2
Newspapers	0.67	2.61		
Tourism boards	0.64	3.48		
Travel guidebooks	0.63	2.40		
Internet sites	0.60	3.15		
TV programmes	0.53	2.78		
Ceefax/teletext	0.45	4.00		
Directed information sources			1.50	16.7
Travel agencies	0.79	2.88		
Tour operators	0.76	2.58		
Total variance explained				*42.9*

Note: $N = 548$. a. On a scale ranging from 1 = always use to 5 = never use

The results of the analysis appear to suggest reasonable clusters of items and corresponding scores (i.e. Internet sites, tour operators, tourism boards, etc.) within long-haul travel information search. Two sub-scores of long-haul travel information search sources were therefore identified and subsequently labeled 'unstructured' and 'directed' information sources. Unstructured information sources (i.e., newspapers, tourism boards, travel guidebooks, Internet sites, TV programmes, Ceefax/teletext) explained 26.2% of the variance, while directed sources (i.e., travel agencies, tour operators) explained the remaining 16.7% of the variance. Results of the rotated factor loadings and rotated communalities for travel information search suggest that Internet sites, newspapers, TV programmes, tourism boards and travel guidebooks are strongly associated with the 'unstructured' dimension. Travel information sources, namely tour operators and travel

agents, were found to be strongly associated with the 'directed' dimension. There was minor communality between the two factors for word-of-mouth. As such this was rejected from the multiple regression analysis.

Factor analysis II was conducted on the travel-safety research variable. The analysis revealed that scored items (i.e. government travel advisories, travel agency, travel guidebooks, etc.) were coherent and strongly related in terms of travel-safety research. The items for this variable will therefore all be treated as being of one type.

Factor analysis III was carried out to examine the type of crime-safety precautions most often used by long-haul travellers. The results of the factor analysis of the 7-item Likert-type crime-safety precautions scale produced two factors explaining 63.4% of the variation between items (see table 21).

Table 21. Factor analysis III: Crime-safety precautions

Factor name	Factor Loading	Mean[a] $\bar{x}$	Eigenvalue	Explained variance (%)
Avoidance crime-safety precautions			3.28	47.0
Avoid going out at night	0.85	3.46		
Avoid going out alone	0.78	2.75		
Avoid using public transport	0.78	3.57		
Avoid going to certain areas	0.74	2.50		
Reduction crime-safety precautions			1.14	16.4
Reduce wearing expensive jewellery	0.82	1.98		
Reduce carrying large amounts of cash	0.77	1.77		
Tried not to look like a tourist	0.62	2.82		
Total variance explained				*63.4*

Note: $N = 548$. a. On a scale ranging from 1 = always use to 5 = never use

The analysis shows two constructs of items and that corresponding scores are strongly related in terms of crime-safety precautions used by respondents and these were therefore labeled 'avoidance' and 'reduction' precautions. Avoidance crime-safety precautions (i.e., avoiding going out at night, avoiding going out alone, avoiding going to certain areas,

avoiding using public transport) explained 47.0% of the variance, while reduction precautions (i.e., reduce wearing expensive jewellery, reduce carrying large amounts of cash, tried not to look like a tourist) explained the remaining 16.4% of variance.

The rotated factor loadings analysis found that all four 'avoid' crime-safety precautions are closely associated with the 'avoidance' dimension (>0.70) and that the two crime-safety precautions (reduce carrying cash, reduce wearing jewellery) are strongly associated with 'reductions' dimension, as shown in table 21.

7. Multiple regression analysis

Five hypotheses were tested to analyse the impact of personal and situational factors on long-haul holiday decision-making in the context of crime-risk. Multiple regression models were devised to identify statistical relationships between the independent variables: long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level and past holiday-crime encounters; and the dependent variables: extent of unstructured information search, extent of directed information search, degree of travel-safety information research, use of avoidance crime-safety precautions, and use of reduction crime-safety precautions. Results of the multiple regression analysis for each hypothesis are presented in tables 22, 23, 24, 25 and 26.

7.1 Hypotheses testing

To test the hypotheses and gain a better understanding of the factors that might explain variations in respondents' involvement in stages of the long-haul travel decision-making process in relation to crime-risk, a forward regression analysis was performed. The use of this procedure is widely used by researchers when there are a large number of independent variables relative to the number of cases. Results of the multiple regression analyses of the independent variables revealed several significant statistical relationships at the $p = 0.05$ level.

H_1: The extent of *unstructured information search* during long-haul travel decision-making is associated directly with long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday crime encounters, age, gender and education.

For the first analysis, the three independent variables (long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception levels, age) in the model ($F = 80.12$, $p < 0.00$) explained 47% of variance ($R^2 = 0.47$) in the extent of unstructured information search (table 22). An adjusted R^2 of 0.46 indicated that the three independent variables explained 46% of the variation in respondents' extent of unstructured information search. As the difference between the values of the adjusted R^2 and multiple R^2 are not significant, it can be concluded that the independent variables in the model are sufficient to account for significant variations in model (Gurjarati, 1998).

Table 22. Forward regression model for the **extent of unstructured information search**

***N* = 548** **Independent variables**	**Standardised Coefficient Beta**	**R^2-square Change**
Age	0.52***	0.26
Long-haul travel experience	0.38***	0.19
Crime-risk perception level	0.06*	0.02
Total R^2 Change		*0.47*

Note: Dependent variable = extent of unstructured information search.
Overall model: R=.68, R^2=.47, adjusted R^2=.46, $F(6,541) = 80.12$, $p < 0.00$.
Significance levels: ***p< .001, **p< .01, *p< .05

Similar to t-values, the standardised estimates (beta coefficients) of each variable indicate its relative importance in explaining the extent of unstructured information search. In this model, 'age' was identified as the most statistically significant predictor related to the extent of unstructured information search. The standardized Beta ($\beta = 0.52$) shows a positive statistical association between age and unstructured information search. Thus, older respondents conducted more extensive unstructured information search than younger

respondents during long-haul decision-making. Long-haul travel experience (β = 0.38) was found to be the next most significant factor for respondents' use of unstructured information during long-haul travel decision-making. In essence, the more frequent respondents travelled to long-haul destinations over the last five years, the more extensive their use of unstructured information sources (i.e. the Internet, travel guidebooks) during travel decision-making. The results supported the hypothesised associations (H_1).

H_2: The extent of *directed information search* during long-haul travel decision-making is associated directly with long-haul travel experience, crime- risk perception level, past holiday crime encounters, age, gender and education.

In the second analysis (F = 27.16, p < 0.00), the variables of crime-risk perception level, age and education explained 23% of the variance in extent of directed information search (table 23). The analysis produced an adjusted R^2 of 0.22, indicating that the three independent variables explained 22% of the variation in respondents' extent of directed information search. Thus, the remainder of the variance of directed information search was explained by exogenous variations and only 22% by the variations in the equation. The model can be considered parsimonious since the difference between the values of adjusted R^2 and multiple R^2 is not large. As such, it can be concluded that the independent variables in the model are sufficient to account for significant error variation in the model.

Table 23. Forward regression model for the **extent of directed information search**

N = 548 **Independent variables**	**Standardised Coefficient Beta**	**R^2-square Change**
Crime-risk perception level	0.38***	0.13
Education	0.30***	0.08
Age	0.07*	0.02
Total R^2 Change		*0.23*

Note: Dependent variable = extent of directed information search.
Overall model: R=.48, R^2=.23, adjusted R^2=.22, $F(6,541)$ = 27.16, p < 0.00.
Significance levels: ***p< .001, **p< .01, *p< .05

The resulting regression coefficients indicated that respondent's crime-risk perception level had a positive statistical association with the dependent variable and was the most significant predictor (β = 0.38) of directed information search. For example, respondents with higher crime-risk perception levels made more use of directed 'personal' information sources, namely travel agents and tour operators during long-haul decision-making than those with lower crime-risk perception levels. Education (β = 0.30) was next most significant predictor of directed information search, followed by age (β = 0.07). The results partly supported the hypothesised relationship (H_2).

H_3: The degree of *travel safety research* during long-haul travel decision-making is associated directly with long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday crime encounters, age, gender and education.

For the third analysis, the regression model (F=32.88, p <0.00) the three independent variables of long-haul travel experience, gender and age explained 27% of the variation in the degree of travel-safety research (R^2=0.27). Further results of the regression produced an adjusted R^2 of 0.26, suggesting that the three independent variables explained 26% of the variation in respondents' degree of travel-safety research (table 24). Thus, the remainder of variance in the degree of travel-safety research is explained by exogenous variables and only 26% by the independent variables in the equation.

Table 24. Forward regression model for the **degree of travel-safety information research**

***N* = 548** **Independent variables**	**Standardised Coefficient Beta**	**R^2-square Change**
Long-haul travel experience	*0.49***	0.25
Age	0.07*	0.01
Gender	0.06	0.01
Total R^2 Change		*0.27*

Note: Dependent variable = degree of travel-safety research.
Overall model: R=.51, R^2=.27, adjusted R^2=.26, $F(6,541) = 32.88$, $p < 0.00$.
Significance levels: ***p< .001, **p< .01, *p< .05

The regression model identified long-haul travel experience as being the most statistically significant predictor (β = 0.49) of travel-safety research during long-haul decision-making. It can be assumed that the more frequent the respondent travelled to long-haul destinations within the last five years, the more extensive their use of travel-safety sources (i.e. government travel advisories, travel guidebooks, etc.). In general, only the hypothesised associations of long-haul travel experience and age (H_3) were supported by the results.

H_4: The use of a*voidance crime safety precautions* during long-haul travel decision-making is associated directly with long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday crime encounters, age, gender and education.

For the fourth analysis, the overall regression model ($F = 41.67$, $p < 0.00$) appears to be statistically significant in explaining respondents' use of avoidance crime-safety precautions (table 25).

Table 25. Forward regression model for the **use of avoidance crime- safety precautions**

***N* = 548** **Independent variables**	**Standardised Coefficient Beta**	**R^2-square Change**
Long-haul travel experience	-0.55***	0.28
Age	0.11**	0.01
Gender	0.10**	0.02
Education	0.07*	0.01
Total R^2 Change		*0.32*

Note: Dependent variable = use of avoidance crime-safety precautions.
Overall model: R=.56, R^2=.32, adjusted R^2=.30, $F(6,541) = 41.67$, $p < 0.00$.
Significance levels: ***p< .001, **p< .01, *p< .05

32% of the variance in the use of avoidance crime-safety precautions was explained by the independent variables (long-haul travel experience, gender, age, education). A further examination of the results of the analysis produced an adjusted R^2 of 0.30, indicating that the four independent variables explained 30% of the variation in respondents' use of

avoidance crime-safety precautions. The rest of the variance is explained by exogenous variables and only 30% by the variables in the equation. Since the difference between the values of adjusted R^2 and multiple R^2 is not significant, it can be concluded that the independent variables in the model are sufficient to account for variations in the model.

Long-haul travel experience had a negative statistical relationship with the dependent variable (avoidance of crime-safety precautions) and was the most significant predicator in the model (β = -0.55). As respondents' long-haul travel experience increased, their use of avoidance crime-safety precautions decreased. It can be assumed that those respondents who had frequently travelled on long-haul holidays were less likely to restrict their activities while on holiday (going out at night, using public transport, going out alone). In other words, as respondents' travel experience increased so too did their level of confidence in participating in activities while at the destination. In order of strength, age (β = 0.11), and education (β = 0.07) were significant predictors of avoidance crime-safety precautions. Female respondents made more use of avoidance crime-safety precautions than male respondents gender (β = +0.10). In general, the hypothesised relationships of long-haul travel experience, age and education (H_4) were supported by the results.

H_5: The use of *reduction crime safety precautions* during long-haul travel decision-making is associated directly with long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday crime encounters, age, gender and education.

For the fifth factor, the variables of long-haul travel experience and gender in the model (F = 26.94, $p < 0.00$) explained 23% of the variation in respondents' use of reduction crime-safety precautions (table 26).

An additional examination of the results of the regression analysis produced an adjusted R^2 of 0.22, indicating that the two independent variables explain 22% of the variation in use of reduction crime-safety precautions, the rest of the variance is explained by exogenous variables that were not tested in the model.

Table 26. Forward regression model for the **use of reduction crime-safety precautions**

N = 548 **Independent variables**	**Standardised Coefficient Beta**	**R^2-square Change**
Long-haul travel experience	*0.43***	0.19
Gender	*0.17***	0.04
Total R^2 Change		*0.23*

Note: Dependent variable = use of reduction crime-safety precautions.
Overall model: R=.48, R^2=.23, adjusted R^2=.22, $F(6,541) = 26.94$, $p < 0.00$.
Significance levels: ***p< .001, **p< .01, *p< .05

Long-haul travel experience of respondents had a positive statistical relationship with the dependent variable (use of reduction crime-safety precautions) and was by far the most significant predictor in the model (β = 0.43). Thus, the model suggests that the more frequent respondents travelled, the more extensive their use of reduction crime-safety precautions while on holiday. These results imply that frequent long-haul travellers made more use of reduction crime-safety precautions (tried not to look like a tourist, reduced wearing jewellery, reduce carrying cash) than less-travelled respondents during their last long-haul holiday. It can be assumed that experienced long-haul travellers are more cautious regarding their personal belongings, and as the previous analysis suggests (table 23) are less likely to restrict their activities while on holiday. Female respondents made more use of reduction crime-risk precautions than male respondents (β = +0.17). The results partly supported the hypothesised relationship (H_5).

Overall, results indicate that respondents' long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception levels, age and education are significant predictors of their involvement in the various stages of the long-haul travel decision-making process.

The model of long-haul holiday decision-making model influenced by crime-risk (figure 5) was revised to illustrate the results of the hypothesis tests. Figure 6 summarises the significant direct and indirect statistical relationships between variables in this study.

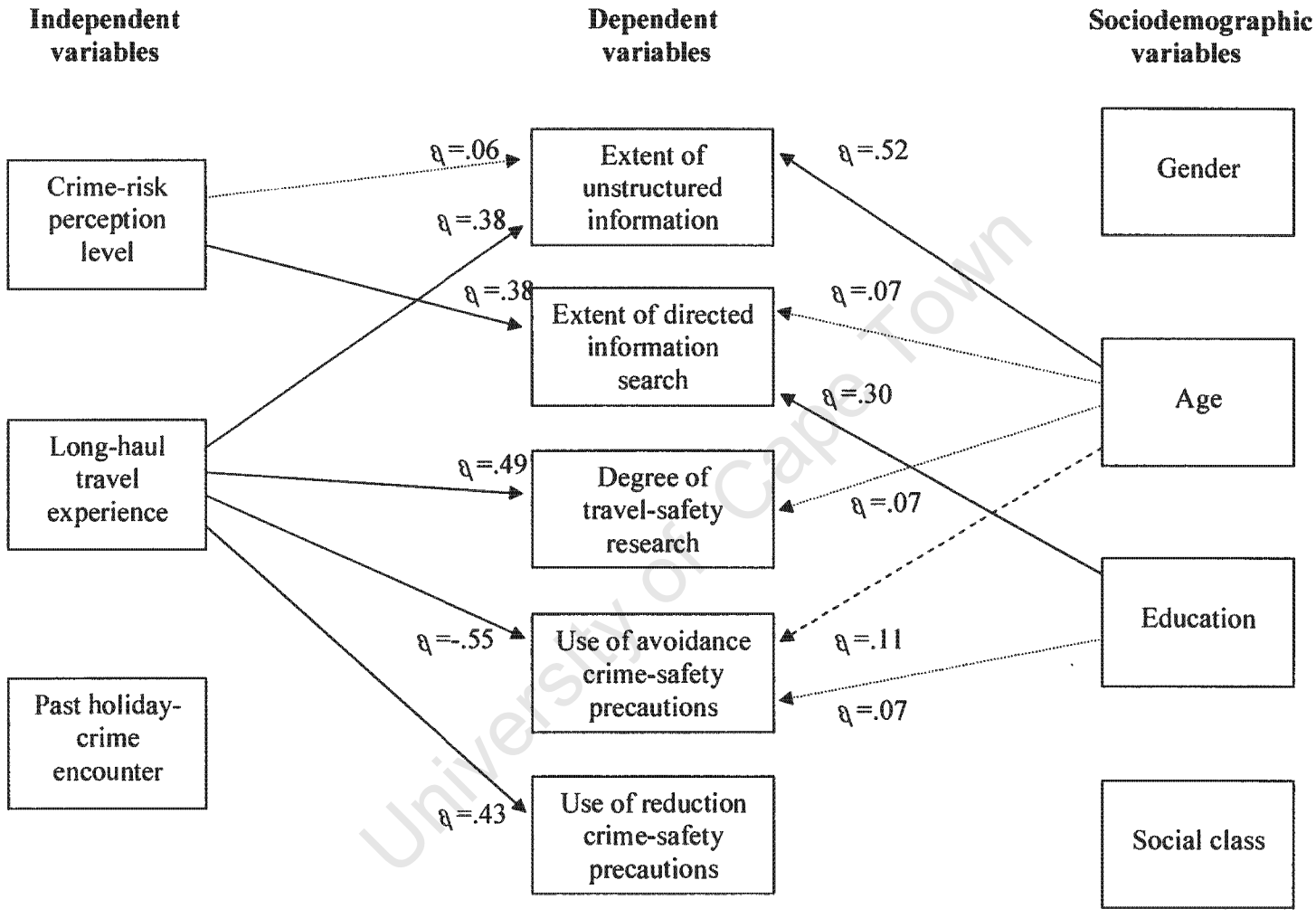


Figure 6. Revised model of long-haul travel decision-making model to show explanatory relationships of results of multiple regression analyses. Solid lines indicate direct relationships and broken lines indicate indirect relationships. Significance levels: $p < .001$ ⟶, $p < .01$ ⇢, $p < .05$ ⟶

7.2 Variations of dependent variables by social class

A one-way ANOVA analysis was conducted to test the amount of variation within the Social Class factor variable and dependent variables. The results show that there was an association between the social class factors and unstructured information search and directed information search. No significant differences were found between the social class factors and travel safety research, avoidance crime precautions and reduction crime safety precautions. Results indicated that the variation of unstructured information search was strongly related to the variation in social class groups ($p = 0.00$). The social class groups of professionals and managers conducted more structured information search than the retired/non-working group (table 27). A One-way ANOVA post-hoc test (Tukey HSD) was conducted and revealed significant statistical differences between the social class group means and extent of unstructured information search. The results confirm there were significant differences between respondents. For instance, retired/non-working respondents ($\bar{x} = 2.74$) used less unstructured information search than both managers ($\bar{x} = 3.05$) and professionals ($\bar{x} = 3.04$) during long-haul travel decision-making.

Table 27. One-way ANOVA of mean difference of unstructured information search by social class of respondents.

Social Class	Mean	Std. Dev.	#
Professionals	3.04	0.61	225
Managers	3.05	0.51	62
Supervisors	2.83	0.66	54
Skilled manual	2.88	0.56	40
Semi & unskilled	2.82	0.58	27
Retired/non-working	2.74	0.71	140

$F = 4.64$, $p = 0.00$. Mean scale based on a five-point scale, ranging from 1 = *never* to 5 = *always*.

The variation of directed information search was strongly associated to the variation in social class groups ($p < 0.05$). A One-way ANOVA post-hoc test (Tukey HSD) confirmed that several social class groups were found to be statistically significant. For example, social class groups of retired/non-working ($\bar{x} = 3.36$) and professionals ($\bar{x} = 3.26$)

conducted more directed information search than managers ($\bar{x}$ = 3.09), skilled ($\bar{x}$ = 3.08), and semi & unskilled ($\bar{x}$ = 3.01) groups during decision-making (table 28).

Table 28. One-way ANOVA of mean difference of directed information search by social class of respondents.

Social Class	Mean	Std. Dev.	#
Professionals	3.26	0.92	225
Managers	3.09	0.80	62
Supervisors	3.48	0.70	54
Skilled manual	3.08	0.97	40
Semi & unskilled	3.01	0.77	27
Retired/non-working	3.36	0.82	140

$F = 2.31$, $p = 0.04$. Mean scale based on a five-point scale, ranging from 1 = *never* to 5 = *always*.

7.3 Analysis of difference between male & female respondents

An independent sample *t*-test was carried out on gender as the grouping variable to determine whether significance difference existed between the mean scores assigned to the dependent variables by male versus female respondents. Table 29 shows that female respondents ($\bar{x}$ = 2.83) on average made more use of avoidance crime-safety precautions than male respondents ($\bar{x}$ = 2.62). In addition, female respondents ($\bar{x}$ = 4.09) significantly made more use of reduction crime-safety precautions than male respondents ($\bar{x}$ = 3.77).

Table 29. Mean differences between male and female long-haul travellers (*t*-test)

Dependent variables	Female ($\bar{x}$)	Male ($\bar{x}$)	Female Std. dev	Male Std.dev	*t*-value	df	2-Tail Sig.
Unstructured information	2.95	2.88	0.65	0.62	1.24	546	0.21
Directed information	3.30	3.20	0.91	0.79	1.25	546	0.20
Travel-safety research	2.33	2.23	0.60	0.58	1.92	546	0.05
Avoidance precautions	*2.83*	*2.62*	1.08	1.04	2.30	546	*0.02*
Reduction precautions	*4.09*	*3.77*	0.83	0.97	4.10	546	*0.00*

N.B. The criteria were based on a five-point scale, ranging from 1 = *never* to 5 = *always*.

7.4 Results of cross-tabulation analysis

Results of the cross-tabulation analysis revealed that those respondents who had previously visited a long-haul destination stated they were less likely to avoid it. Most notably, over three-quarters of respondents had been to the USA, yet only 2.7 per cent stated that they would avoid it as a holiday destination due to crime-safety concerns, as illustrated in table 30.

Table 30. Avoid travel to various long-haul destinations by past travel experience (in percentages)

	Avoid country	Visited region before		
Country	**Overall**	**Yes**	**No**	**Total % (*N*=548)**
Jamaica	25.0	10.1	89.9	100
South Africa	21.5	19.3	80.7	100
Brazil	10.8	9.1	90.9	100
Kenya	9.3	20.4	79.6	100
Egypt	7.8	31.2	68.8	100
Argentina	4.6	6.0	94.0	100
Thailand	3.8	32.4	67.6	100
Jordan	3.6	8.6	91.4	100
USA	2.7	75.5	24.5	100
Malaysia	2.6	20.8	79.2	100
Costa Rica	1.6	6.5	93.5	100
India	1.5	21.3	78.7	100
Barbados	0.4	18.0	82.0	100
China	0.4	19.3	80.7	100
UAE	0.2	9.7	90.3	100

In comparison, only 10 per cent of respondents had been to Jamaica, yet a quarter of respondents stated that they would avoid it for a holiday. Likewise, almost 20 per cent of respondents had been on a holiday to South Africa, yet little over the same proportion (21.5 per cent) stated that they would avoid it for a holiday. Indeed, all three of the long-haul countries which respondents stated that they would most likely avoid for a holiday because of crime-safety issues received lower levels of visitation. This finding suggests

that travellers' perceptions of holiday destinations during decision-making are influenced by their own personal experiences and what they read or hear in the media, and advice from friends, relatives and business associates. As the tourism literature proposes it is how prospective travellers perceive a destination or region that is crucial to a destination's success, regardless of whether it is dangerous or safe in reality (Edgell, 1990; Goodrich, 1978).

Findings from the cross-tabulation were then plotted on to a matrix (figure 7). Four cells were identified:

- Cell 1: High perceptions of crime-safety, low visitation;
- Cell 2: High perceptions of crime-safety, high visitation;
- Cell 3: Low visitation, low perceptions of crime-safety; and
- Cell 4: High visitation, low perceptions of crime-safety.

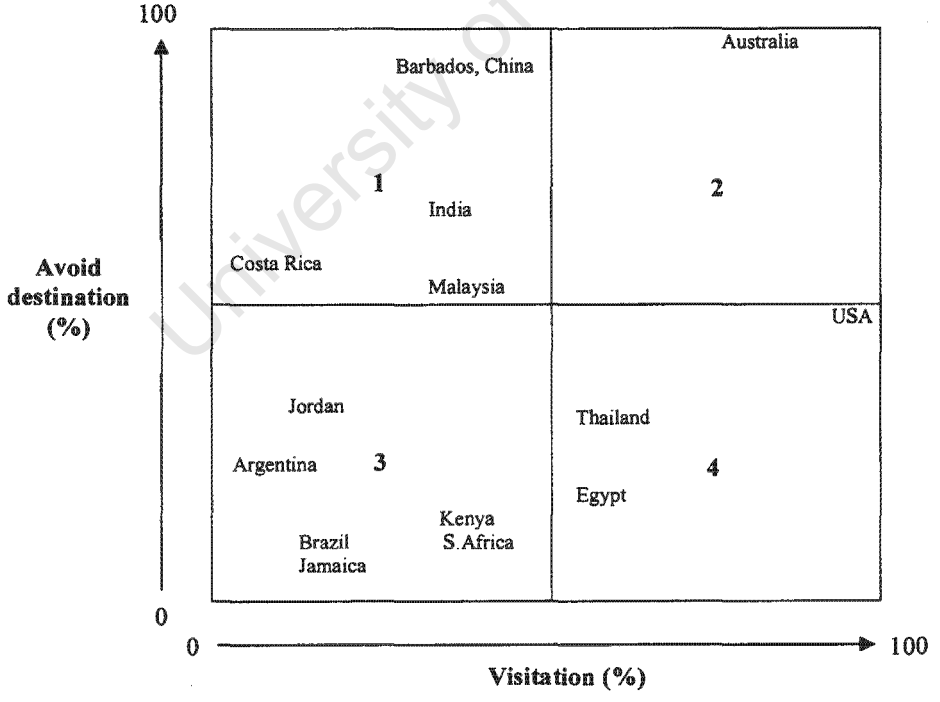


Figure 7. Long-haul holiday destination visitation vs. long-haul destination avoidance matrix

8. Discussion of results

An examination of the research data reveals that respondents emerged as seasoned long-haul travellers with over half having been on a long-haul holiday three times or more during the last five years. Respondents rated twenty long-haul destinations according to their perceptions of crime-safety. The study found that individuals had low perceptions of personal and property crime-safety of specific destinations, namely South Africa, Brazil and Jamaica. Other low-scoring countries included Kenya, Argentina and Egypt. Countries such as New Zealand, Canada and Australia scored highest for perceptions of personal and property crime-safety. The socio-economic gap between countries at the top and the bottom of the table is wide. Those at the bottom are primarily countries in the developing world possessing economic and political instability located in Africa and Latin America. This may be considered with the findings of Carter (1998) and Cossens & Gin (1994) who have shown that large areas of the developing world are generalised as risky locations. Countries at the top of the table included New Zealand, Canada and Australia, developed countries in the industrialised regions of the world. Notably, those countries that scored high in terms of perceptions of crime-safety, English is the major language, while those that scored low, English is predominately the second language. This supports Pinhey & Iverson's (1994) study that found a relationship between communication skills and perceptions of safety as well as Pizam, Tarlow & Bloom's (1997) study that noted that language differences may be viewed by some tourists as making them more vulnerable to crime. Most notably, Pinhey & Iverson reported that visitors to Guam who spoke the language of locals were more confident and had higher perceptions of safety than those who did not speak the local language (1994).

Research also found that long-haul travellers would most likely avoid holidaying in Jamaica, South Africa, and Brazil due to crime-safety concerns. This supports previous tourist-crime studies (e.g., Barker, 2000)[1] that reported South Africa, Argentina and Thailand as the crime-riskiest countries as well as data from the International Criminal Police Organisation (Interpol) that documented South Africa as having the highest violent

[1] Study did not include Brazil and Jamaica

crime rate in the world. According to Interpol, Colombia, Namibia and Jamaica were the next most dangerous countries (Masuku, 2001). Study respondents may have rated South Africa as a particularly risky destination and a country to be avoided due to several high-profile attacks involving British tourists holidaying in the province of Mpumalanga, which occurred at the time that the survey was administered (in November 2002). These incidents were reported in the British broadcast and printed media and may have contributed to negative perceptions. As the crime literature suggests, fear of crime is not based merely on risk and experience of crime, but also media presentations of crime, and the extent to which individuals feel reassured by law enforcement (Garofalo, 1979). As tourism researchers (Barker, Page & Meyer, 2003; Pizam, Tarlow & Bloom, 1997; Tarlow, 2000) reiterate, an increase in police presence at tourist destinations has an impact on a community's perceptions of safety.

Study results found travel information search to be an important stage of the long-haul travel decision-making process (figure 5 in chapter 3); travellers require extensive information before they travel to a long-haul destination. As Sheldon notes "The increasing complexity of the tourism industry and the increasing sophistication and diversity of travellers, makes access to this information both more important and more difficult, especially for long-haul destinations" (1993: 31). Respondents in this study spent time reading travel guidebooks, as well as consulting tour operators before deciding which long-haul holiday destination to go to. Long-haul travellers therefore made their travel decisions based on reading the accounts of travel writers' first-hand experiences or talking to experienced travel consultants. This is consistent with the literature, which suggests that for long-haul destinations which travellers are likely to know less about, travel agents are more important information sources and word-of-mouth communication is perhaps less important because fewer people experience long-haul destinations (Sheldon, 1993). Results also support the earlier studies by consumer researchers (Dowling & Staelin, 1994; Roehl & Fesemaier, 1992; Roselius, 1971) and tourism researchers (Um & Crompton, 1990; Witt & Moutinho, 1989) that information search is an important risk-reduction mechanism during decision-making. In general, findings indicate the importance of printed media

(especially travel guidebooks) as a source of both travel information and travel-safety research during long-haul travel decision-making.

Long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception levels, age, education and social class determined the amount and type (directed or unstructured) information respondents used during long-haul travel decision-making. For example, older, well-travelled, professional-working respondents conducted more information search than other respondents. It would appear older seasoned travellers have the time and enthusiasm to search for travel information, and the professional-working travellers possess the finance to purchase travel guidebooks. The findings revealed that experienced long-haul travellers made less use of directed information search (i.e. travel agents and tour operators) and more use of unstructured information sources (i.e. the Internet, newspapers, travel guidebooks) than inexperienced long-haul travellers. It can be assumed that well-travelled respondents are more independent and less likely to require the services of travel consultants and travel organisers than less experienced travellers. Respondent's level of education was also found to be associated with directed information search. For example, professional-working individuals conducted more directed information research than other respondents.

Data analysis found previous long-haul travel experience to be an influential situational factor affecting travellers' crime-safety perceptions. Not surprisingly, those respondents with extensive long-haul travel experience had lower crime-risk perception levels (higher perceptions of safety) than those with less-experienced travellers. This finding supports tourism-safety researchers (Pinhey & Iverson, 1994) who implied that previous travel experience increases perceptions of safety, as well as crime researchers (Hough & Mayhew, 1983) who suggested peoples' perceptions of crime-risk derive from their own experience and from the experience of their friends and relatives. Experienced long-haul travellers may be more confident and thus hold more positive perceptions and as such are less likely to avoid certain destinations because of crime-safety concerns. This also supports previous studies that highlighted the significance of a relationship between tourist confidence and subsequent perceptions of safety (Demos, 1992; Pinhey & Iverson, 1994). Travel experience was also found to be an important factor affecting travel destination

decision-making by researchers (Goodrich, 1978; Mazursky, 1989; Perdue, 1985), although research by Sonmez & Graefe (1998b) did not find an association between past travel experience and travel decision-making in terms of terrorism-risk. Nevertheless, Mazursky (1989) found travel experience to be more important than information acquisition during travel decision-making. It would appear, that while travellers use past travel experiences to guide their travel decisions, a significant number make decisions based on other people's travel experiences. Indeed, the extent of tourists' personal travel experience and other people's' experiences (namely travel writers) and perceptions of crime-safety were found to be important factors affecting long-haul travel decision-making in this study.

Another significant finding from the study was that destination visitation was associated with perceptions of crime-safety. Those individuals that had previously visited a particular long-haul destination had higher perceptions of crime-safety than those who had not previously visited the destination. It stands to reason that those travellers who are more familiar with a destination and have not been victims of crime, feel safer than first-time visitors unfamiliar with the surroundings. This finding suggests a relationship was found between visitation and crime-risk perception levels and is consistent with previous studies (e.g., Pinhey & Iverson, 1994, Sonmez & Graefe, 1998a). This is also consistent with Sonmez & Graefe's proposition that tourists who lack personal travel experience can easily avoid destinations they perceive as risky by choosing others that are safe (1998a).

Findings demonstrated that long-haul travel experience was the most significant predictor of travel-safety research. Experienced long-haul travellers made more use of travel-safety sources during long-haul decision-making than less-experienced travellers. Respondents spent time researching travel guidebooks, consulting friends and relatives, travel agents/tour operators and government travel advisories to assess the crime-safety situation at the long-haul destinations under consideration. It can be assumed that well-travelled respondents are experienced at knowing where to look for such travel-safety information.

Respondents' long-haul travel experience, gender, age and education related to their use of crime-safety precautions. Overall, respondents claimed that they were more concerned with securing their possessions than their personal safety to reduce the risk being a victim of crime. This finding is compatible with Barker's (2000) tourism-crime study, which found that travellers to New Zealand were more concerned about their valuables than their own physical safety. Along with the earlier findings in this study, which found that respondents perceived nearly all the long-haul destinations listed in the survey fractionally more risky in terms of property crime-risk than physical crime-risk, it can be assumed that tourists' perceptions of property and physical safety are interrelated. Indeed, the British Crime Survey (BCS) use the term 'fear of crime' to refer to 'any anxiety or fear about being a victim of either violent crimes or crimes against property' (Hough & Mayhew, 1983: 22). Tourists can feel deep anxiety about property crimes such as pick-pocketing at particular holiday destinations. In response, tourists may reduce their amount of 'portable-wealth' (i.e. cameras, jewellery, cash) in order to feel less vulnerable to physical victimisation (i.e. being mugged). The results found that experienced travellers made more use of the 'reduction' precautions and less use of 'avoidance' precautions (i.e. going to certain areas) than inexperienced travellers. This is consistent with earlier research (Pinhey & Iverson's 1994; George, 2003a) which noted that certain types of tourists limit their activities at a destination for fear of crime. Respondents' level of education was found to be associated to use of crime-safety precautions. For example, professional working individuals conducted more travel-safety research than other respondents. This finding is supported by Demos's (1992) and Pinhey & Iverson's (1994) earlier findings that tourists with higher educational levels are more concerned with safety than those tourists with lower educational levels. an association was also found between gender and use of crime-safety precautions. Female respondents made greater use of both avoidance and reduction crime-safety precautions. It is encouraging that female long-haul travellers in this study, possibly the most vulnerable of travellers, appeared to take additional crime-safety precautions to reduce crime-risk while on holiday.

9. Summary

This chapter has presented the findings of the data analysis including a profile of UK long-haul travellers, a crime-risk perception profile of respondents, a summary of the findings of respondents' involvement in various stages of the long-haul decision-making process, and results of the statistical tests of the hypotheses.

Study findings indicated that travellers had different perceptions of crime-safety of long-haul countries depending on the influence of personal and situational factors. Overall, results of the data analysis supported the proposed hypotheses. A summary of the hypotheses results is presented in table 31. A direct association was found between various personal and situational factors to explain various stages of the long-haul travel decision-making process. Five independent variables (crime-risk perception, long-haul travel experience, age and education) in the multiple regression models emerged as strong predictors of the five dependent variables (long-haul travel decision-making process: unstructured information search, directed information search, travel-safety research, avoidance crime-safety precautions, and reduction crime-safety precautions). In addition, social class in the one-way ANOVA test was statistically related to the two dependent variables: unstructured information and directed information search. Notably, professional working respondents significantly made more use of both types of information search than other respondents.

In general, findings suggest that more professional-working, experienced travellers with high crime-risk perception levels spent more time searching for travel information and conducting travel-safety research when planning long-haul holidays. In addition, experienced travellers utilised reduction-type precautions and were less likely to limit their activities while on holiday. Another significant finding was that female respondents made more use of both types of crime-safety precautions (avoidance and reduction) than male long-haul travellers. Study results also revealed that those respondents who had previously visited a destination perceived it as safer and less likely to be avoided than those who had

not previously visited the destination. The findings emphasised that the perceived crime-safety of the desired holiday destination is intrinsic to traveller's decision-making.

The following and final chapter will present the conclusions and recommendations drawn from these findings.

Table 31. Summary of hypothesis testing results

	Hypotheses	Overall model R^2	F	p-level
H_1	The extent of *unstructured information search* during long-haul travel decision-making is associated directly with long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday-crime encounters, age, gender and education.	0.47	80.12	0.00
H_2	The extent of *directed information search* during long-haul travel decision-making is associated directly with long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday-crime encounters, age, gender and education.	0.22	27.16	0.00
H_3	The degree of *travel-safety research* during long-haul travel decision-making is associated directly with long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday-crime encounters, age, gender and education.	0.27	32.88	0.00
H_4	The use of a*voidance crime-safety precautions* during long-haul travel decision-making is associated directly with long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday-crime encounters, age, gender and education.	0.32	41.67	0.00
H_5	The use of r*eduction crime-safety precautions* during long-haul travel decision-making is associated directly with long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday-crime encounters, age, gender and education.	0.23	26.94	0.00

6 Conclusion and Recommendations

Introduction

To date most tourism-crime research has focused either on the impact of crime on tourism demand or has examined tourist victimisation at specific destinations. This study, however, involved taking a sample of travellers and examining their perceptions of various long-haul tourist destinations in terms of crime-risk. Travel decision-making involving crime-risk entails a complicated process that has received little research attention.

The study of a sample of long-haul travellers would appear to demonstrate that travel decisions (information search, travel-safety research and crime-safety precautions) are influenced by an individual's personal factors (crime-risk perception levels, socio-demographics) as well as situational factors (previous long-haul holiday experience, past holiday-crime encounters). The findings emphasised that the perceived crime-safety of the desired holiday destination is detrimental to a long-haul traveller's decision-making.

This chapter consists of a summary of how the data for the study was collected and analysed, the results of statistical tests of the hypotheses, main conclusions, marketing implications and recommendations for further research.

1. Summary of study design process

1.1 Data collection

Five thousand questionnaires were mailed to a random sample of long-haul travellers on a UK tour operator's database during 2002. A total of 548 usable questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of approximately 11.0 per cent.

Questionnaires asked individuals about their previous long-haul travel experience, their perceptions of safety of 20 long-haul countries in terms of crime-risk, and their attitudes towards long-haul travel and crime-safety. The survey also asked respondents about their long-haul travel decisions including the extent of their information search, extent of travel-safety research, and their use of crime-risk precautions. Follow-up telephone interviews were conducted to counter the issue of non-response bias.

1.2 Data analysis

Data was numerically coded, entered and quantitatively analysed using Statistica software package. Differences between the survey respondents and non-respondents were examined. Descriptive statistics were used to present a profile of sociodemographic variables and dependent variables and independent variables (i.e. percentage, mean).

Several forward regression analysis models were devised to test hypothesised relationships between the seven independent variables and five dependent variables. The results of the hypotheses testing are illustrated in table 31 in chapter 5. A one-way ANOVA test was conducted to measure the social class variable and dependent variables. Relationships between variables were considered statistically significant at the .05 level.

2. Summary of the findings

This section includes a profile of the study respondents and a summary of the results of the hypotheses testing.

2.1 Profile of respondents

Study respondents were primarily female, older, well educated, in professional or higher management occupations. For instance, 61 per cent were females and 29 per

cent males. On average most respondents were in the 45 to 54 category. Twenty-five per cent of respondents possessed university degrees and 14 per cent had postgraduate degrees. Over 40 per cent of respondents were in professional or higher management occupations. Respondents were seasoned long-haul travellers with relatively recent long-haul travel experience, for example 50 per cent of respondents had been on a long-haul holiday during 2002.

2.2 Hypothesis testing

Five hypotheses were proposed to test the influence of personal and situational factors on long-haul travel decision-making in terms of crime-risk. Several hypotheses were accepted.

2.2.1 Hypothesis One

The extent of *unstructured information search* during long-haul travel decision-making is associated directly with long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday-crime encounters, age, gender and education.

Several personal and situational factors were examined as independent variables: age, education, gender and long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday-crime encounters. A statistical relationship was found between several of these variables and the extent of unstructured information search. The strongest predictor of extent of unstructured information search was age, followed by long-haul travel experience and crime perception level. These factors explained 47 per cent of the variance in the extent of unstructured information search. This hypothesis (H_1) received the strongest support from the multiple regression analysis.

2.2.2 Hypothesis Two

The extent of *directed information search* during long-haul travel decision-making is associated directly with long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday-crime encounters, age, gender and education.

The influence of personal (i.e. crime-risk perception level, age gender and education) and situational factors (previous holiday experience, past holiday-crime encounters) on long-haul travel decision-making were examined. Perceived crime-risk followed by education and the age were the strongest predictors of extent of directed information search. These three independent variables explained 22 per cent of the variation in respondents' extent of directed information search and supported the hypothesised associations (H_2).

2.2.3 Hypothesis Three

The degree of *travel-safety research* during long-haul travel decision-making is associated directly with long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday-crime encounters, age, gender and education.

Influences of the same personal and situational factors on the degree of travel-safety research were examined. Long-haul travel experience, age and gender collectively explained 27 per cent of the variance in the degree of travel-safety research. In the forward regression model, long-haul holiday experience emerged as by far the strongest predictor of the degree of travel-safety research. The results supported the hypothesised relationship (H_3).

2.2.4 Hypothesis Four

The use of a*voidance crime-safety precautions* during long-haul travel decision-making is associated directly with long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday-crime encounters, age, gender and education.

The relationship between the use of avoidance crime-safety precautions and the personal and situational factors were examined. Long-haul travel experience, age, gender and education explained 32 per cent of the variance in the use of avoidance of crime-safety precautions. Long-haul travel experience emerged as a negative and significant predictor of the use of avoidance crime-safety precautions. The hypothesised relationships of long-haul travel experience, age and education (H_4) were supported by the results.

2.2.5 Hypothesis Five

The use of *reduction crime-safety precautions* during long-haul travel decision-making is associated directly with long-haul travel experience, crime-risk perception level, past holiday-crime encounters, age, gender and education.

Influences of the personal and situational factors on the use of reduction crime-safety precautions were examined. The independent variables of long-haul travel experience and gender explained 23 per cent of the variance in the use of reduction crime-safety precautions. Long-haul travel experience was the strongest predictor of the dependent variable. In general only the hypothesised relationship of long-haul travel experience (H_5) was supported by the results.

3. Main conclusions

The tourist-decision-making process in the context of crime-risk has received little research attention. An examination of related literature reveals that potential travellers evaluate tourist destinations according to costs (e.g. monetary, crime-risk) and benefits (e.g. satisfaction, safety) through a process of information search. The perceived or real threat of crime results in prospective travellers altering their travel plans to select a safer alternative.

Based on the empirical nature of this study, it is anticipated the research findings makes a significant contribution to the understanding of tourist consumer behaviour in the

context of crime-risk. Travel decision-making in general or how tourists perceive crime or other threats to safety when choosing a holiday in particular has received scant research attention. More specifically, the influence of crime-risk has not been researched in the context of *long-haul* travel decision-making.

The study provides a step towards identifying a range of personal factors and their influence on key stages of the long-haul travel decision-making involving crime-risk. Earlier studies found that perceived risk influences evaluation of destination alternatives and information acquisition (Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Weber & Bottom, 1987) and in the context of terrorism and political-instability risk (Sonmez & Graefe 1998a). This study has also examined a number of areas which have received little or no research attention including travellers' perceptions of personal property crime-risk versus physical property crime-risk at specific tourist destinations; and travellers' use of crime-safety information and crime-safety research sources during long-haul decision-making.

This study is consistent with other empirical studies referred to in the literature which found that (a) previous travel experience affects travel decision-making (Goodrich, 1978; Mazursky, 1989; Perdue, 1985); (b) consumers use information search as a risk-reduction mechanism during the buying process (Dowling & Staelin, 1994; Roehl & Fesenmaier, 1992; Roselius, 1971); and (c) previous travel experience increases perceptions of safety (Pinhey & Iverson, 1994; Sonmez & Graefe 1998a). However, as mentioned before, the impacts of travellers' crime-risk perception levels, previous travel experience and past holiday-crime encounters have not been previously examined in the context of long-haul travel.

As expected, tourists who had previously visited a particular destination showed low levels of concern for crime-safety (felt safer) than those who had not visited the destination. This finding is supported by Pinhey & Iverson (1994). However, contrary to our proposed hypotheses, previous experience of holiday-crime was not found to directly impact the stages of the long-haul travel decision–making process. The tourist decision-making literature also suggests that individuals who have encountered a previous holiday-crime incident are more likely to feel less safe (Milman & Bach, 1999; Sonmez & Graefe 1998a).

This study attempted to measure crime-risk perception levels at various tourist destinations according to the type of crime – property vs. physical. Barker (2000) suggested that travellers are more concerned with looking after their possessions than their personal crime-safety. Findings from this study support this contention.

The results of this study suggest that crime-risk perceptions influence long-haul traveller decision-making. In addition, the extent of an individual's long-haul travel experience determines his/her perceptions of crime-safety at various long-haul destinations and the extent of involvement in decision-making. Individuals with extensive travel experience had higher perceptions of crime-safety and conducted a more extensive information search and travel-safety research than less-experienced long-haul travellers. Respondents had low perceptions of crime-safety of specific destinations, namely South Africa, Brazil and Jamaica. Other low-scoring countries included Kenya, Argentina and Egypt. The countries that scored highest for perceptions of crime-safety included New Zealand, Canada and Australia. Empirical tourism-crime studies combined with official crime data suggest a positive relationship between low perceptions of crime-safety and tourist destinations possessing disproportionate amounts of crime.

The study findings are not sufficiently conclusive to suggest that long-haul destinations are more risky in terms of crime than short- or medium-haul holiday destinations. However, consumers who are seeking to travel to new, 'untouched' destinations further away from home, which they know less about, may heighten their perceived crime-risk levels during travel decision-making. Acquiring travel information during long-haul holiday planning thus becomes crucial. In this study, information searches and travel-safety research were found to be important for stages of the long-haul travel decision-making process. In particular, printed media played an important role as a source of information and travel-safety research affecting travellers' crime-risk perceptions and influencing travel decisions. Many of the study's respondents made their travel decisions based on reading the accounts of travel writers' first-hand travel experiences. It appears that travellers make use of a number of additional reference points in order to minimise crime-risk during travel decision-making. They use their previous travel experience, read about travel writers' experiences and advice, and discuss destination

travel options with friends and acquaintances. In addition, during travel decision-making, travellers use their perceptions of actual crime rates and police effectiveness at the destination under consideration. Furthermore, it may be that consumers would like to find out more about travel security but do not know where to look. In the near future, it is likely that government travel advisories as a travel-safety research source will play an important role in long-haul holiday planning as people increasingly book long-haul holidays spontaneously and as consumer vulnerability remains high.

Findings also indicated that individuals who had previously visited a particular long-haul destination had higher perceptions of crime-safety than those who had not visited the destination. As has been suggested in the literature, travellers' experience with a destination may transform crime-risk perceptions during travel decision-making. Indeed, previous travel experience enables travellers to compare their perceptions with reality. However, because fewer people have had experience with long-haul destinations, information search may play a more important role than experience itself during long-haul holiday decision-making. The study also concluded that very little difference was found between respondents' perceptions of property and physical crime-safety. This suggests that either perceptions of property and physical crime-safety are closely related or respondents had difficulty distinguishing between these two terms in the survey question.

In conclusion, factors such as communication (speaking the language of the destination community), familiarity with the destination (i.e. repeat visitation), previous long-haul travel experience, perceptions of crime-safety, and direct or indirect holiday crime experience (i.e. that of friends and acquaintances) appear to affect the long-haul traveller's involvement in the travel decision-making process.

4. Marketing implications

Study findings emphasised that long-haul traveller concerns for personal and property crime-safety are an important factor during travel decision-making. From a practical perspective, identifying such a factor might contribute to a better understanding of

destination image in terms of crime-risk safety. Conceivably, the perceived threat of crime victimisation at a long-haul holiday destination during travel decision-making will most likely convince travellers to either cancel or choose a safer alternative destination (perhaps a holiday destination closer to the tourist's home). Consequently the findings from this study have important implications for understanding tourist behaviour and destination marketing. Destination marketing organisations (DMOs) need to improve the image of a destination by decreasing the perception that crime-risk factors are present. Destination images based on safety and security are very important in today's marketplace. This has been proved by a number of safety and security issues ranging from SARS to terrorism attacks, which have received unprecedented media attention in recent times. The perception of risks associated with a destination can have severe economic consequences.

A safe and secure environment is important so that tourists can enjoy their holiday and forget as much as possible about personal safety and security during their stay. Indeed, the primary motive for most leisure travellers is to go on holiday to relax, and not to be preoccupied with the fear of being victimised. If tourist destinations are to remain prosperous, the issue of tourists' safety and security is paramount. Tourism industry stakeholders and law enforcement agencies need to co-ordinate efforts to help ensure the safety and security of visitors. Notwithstanding, it is acknowledged that many long-haul tourist destinations that are perceived as being unsafe are in the developing world and are plagued with socio-economic problems and also possess disproportionate amounts of crime. There is, however, a need to gain an understanding of travellers' decision-making so that DMOs can tailor promotional messages and law enforcement agencies can address traveller concerns. Although travellers ultimately determine at which destination they wish to take their holidays, destination marketers can exert a powerful influence through projecting images within advertising campaigns. Destination advertising should include messages which reflect the safety and security needs of particular types of travellers. Tourism planners need to be aware of which types of travellers are affected by crime-risk. This awareness also should be extended to destination marketing strategies.

It has been predicted that there will be an increase in Asian and other 'new' outbound middle-class travellers in the next decade. World Tourism Organisation data forecasts a

growing number of travellers from the Far East and Eastern Europe (WTO, 1998). These new outbound markets, while creating new opportunities for the industry, are generally inexperienced travellers and are therefore perhaps more vulnerable to crime-risk than experienced travellers from elsewhere. DMOs aiming to attract these growing markets will need to be sensitive to their safety and security needs. DMOs in conjunction with law enforcement agencies and tourism stakeholders could use the findings from this study to develop tourist-visitor literature. For example, when devising travel-safety pamphlets, illustrative information on those crime-safety-precautions (i.e. 'carry less valuables' or 'avoid leaving valuables where visible' and 'be more vigilant') commonly used by international travellers should be included. Furthermore, DMOs should co-ordinate with law enforcement agencies and tourism stakeholders to provide visitors with accurate information on which tourist 'hotspots' should be avoided due to potential crime victimisation while visiting a destination. This type of information should be included in travel-safety pamphlets and should include easy-to-read maps and multilingual text.

The study shows that several challenges exist for DMOs, tourism authorities and law enforcement agencies:

1) Achieving a balance between warning tourists about safety and security without deterring them from visiting or taking part in leisure activities at the destination. On arrival at a destination, visitors should be provided with accurate up-to-date travel-safety information. This information should be devised by a committee of private and public sector tourism participants and should be part of an overall National Tourism Safety and Security Plan (NTSSP).

2) Increasing expenditure on altering false or negative perceptions may increase tourist numbers, but will not improve actual safety and security measures at the destination. For instance, one or two negative tourist-crime incidents reported in the international media can substantially damage the reputation of a destination countering any marketing efforts, and ultimately impacting on visitor numbers.

3) Developing an NTSSP that includes communication and tourist-victim support strategies for dealing with high profile tourist-crimes that attract negative media

attention is required. The World Tourism Organisation recommends that every country develop a national policy on tourism safety consistent with the prevention of tourist risks (WTO, 1991). According to the WTO such a plan should address a number of areas (see Appendix C).

4) Local tourism authorities, in conjunction with law enforcement agencies, need to improve safety and security of tourists (as well as providing support for crime victims) without discriminating against the local community's rights to protection. Regular police force and general victim support structures already need to be in existence. The importance of international tourism as an economic activity in a community needs to be emphasised.

5) The collection of reliable research data on crimes against tourists at destinations is required. Such data will assist tourism authorities and law enforcement agencies in identifying types of crimes affecting tourists, the geographical location of tourist-crime incidents and improving response to safety and security problems. The difficulty of co-ordinating police personnel to separate local/visitor crime-victim statistics due to time and financial constraints as well as problems with law enforcement personnel communicating with foreign tourists is acknowledged. For those destinations that are unable to collect such data, tourist telephone help-lines where staff are trained to deal with tourist safety and security problems should record inquiries and report incidents in an effort to set up a database. Accurate, neutral and reliable data is important for improving the response of tourism authorities to safety and security problems (WTO, 2003). Furthermore, the availability of tourist-crime statistics would greatly assist tourism authorities to defend a country's reputation for safety.

6) At a community level, disadvantaged individuals need to be encouraged and trained to work in the tourism industry, so that they can witness and reap some of the economic benefits to be gained from tourism. Such an initiative should help to instil a sense of pride in the community, and thus to discourage individual community members from becoming involved in tourist-related criminal activities.

These implications lead to a number of recommendations for further research towards

an improved understanding of the relationship between safety and security and tourist consumer behaviour.

5. Recommendations for additional research

Additional research is needed to further the results of this study. Several areas need examining, including:

- One of the limitations of this research was that personal and situational factors measured in the study might not fully represent all of the influences on long-haul holiday travel decisions and their outcomes. For example, intensive marketing activity by a particular tour operator could overcome perceived high crime-risk levels. Research into the impacts of personal and situational factors on travel destination decision-making in terms of crime-risk requires further research.

- The influence of push and pull factors on various stages of the travel decision-making process in terms of crime-risk needs further investigation. For instance, how travellers' crime-risk perceptions are influenced by discussions with friends and family at the destination region (i.e. the VFR market). In addition, research into the influence of a potential tourist's dialogue with expatriates of various destination countries on traveller decision-making requires attention.

- The tourism literature suggests that fewer people have actually experienced long-haul destinations than domestic or medium-haul destinations. This study also found that travel intermediaries were an important influence on long-haul travel decision-making in terms of crime-risk (i.e. 49.5 per cent of respondents frequently used tour operators). Additional research into travel intermediaries' perceptions of particular long-haul tourism destinations in terms of crime-risk is required.

- The study results suggested that the reporting of crime in the media influences travellers' perceptions and ultimately decisions during holiday planning. Few countries monitor the reporting of crime against tourists. Research is required into

actual crime rates and perceived crime at various global destinations. Gathering data of this nature will assist towards increasing knowledge of the relationship between safety and security and tourist consumer behaviour. Research on directly linking knowledge about travellers and destinations is critical.

- Several problems are inherent in *ex post facto* research (Folkes, 1998). Although respondents were asked to report crime-risk perceptions of a fixed set of long-haul holiday destinations regardless of whether they had visited them, individuals may have used their perceptions of crime-risk in holidays in general as a template. Having rated the crime-risk of holidays in general they may have then rated the crime-risk associated with their visited destinations by using the holiday crime-risk scores and subtracting some amount may be useful to study individuals' risk attitudes in an experimental or quasi-experimental setting. This would help to clarify the relationship between crime-risk attitudes about holidays in general and crime-risk attitudes for a specific, visited destination.

- This study was limited to UK travellers. A number of studies have found significant differences among various nationalities in holiday preferences. For example, Ritter (1989) noted that Japanese travellers tend to travel in groups. Woodside & Lawrence (1985), in a study examining the benefits realised from travelling to Hawaii, noted a significant difference between the Canadian, American, and Japanese visitors. Similarly, You, O'Leary, Morrison, & Hong, (2000) found that the U.K. and Japanese long-haul travellers had different travel motives. Culture also affects risk perception (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2000). Different cultures have different levels of risk perception. (Goszczynska, Tyszka, & Slovic, 1991) suggested that it is the size of a country that most influences the degree of perceived risk and not its social, economic and cultural background. The results of UK traveller's crime-risk perceptions from this study should not be generalised to other cultures. A similar study to this one needs to be conducted using a sample of respondents from another country or culture.

- Study findings indicated that travel guidebooks were an important travel-safety source (frequently used by 41.3 per cent of respondents). The literature noted that

the Internet is an increasingly important information source for the future (Buhalis, 2000; Muller, 1998). Travellers are increasingly using the Internet, which consists of a combination of sources (i.e. extracts from travel guidebooks and newspaper travel supplements, snippets from travellers, Internet travel chat rooms, and government travel advisory websites). Further research is required into how these Internet travel sources affect travel decision-making in terms of safety and security concerns.

- While the terrorist attacks of 11 September 2001 in the United States, and the more recent bombings of tourist facilities in Bali, have resulted in world attention focussing on terrorism, certain tourist destinations (i.e. South Africa), which possess high crime rates, have since been viewed as 'safe'. Crime-safety is a long-term socio-economic issue for many tourist destinations. Travellers' perceptions of terrorism-risk measured against crime-risk and other health, safety and security issues need to be researched.

- The study found that those individuals who had previously visited a particular long-haul destination had low levels of concern for crime-safety than those individuals who had not previously visited the destination. More research is needed to examine if repeat visitors to specific destinations feel safer than first-time visitors. The duration of stay at the destination may also affect visitors' perceptions of crime-safety: the longer visitors stay at destination, the safer they may feel.

A longitudinal study is required to develop more robust models of the relationship between tourism and crime. These types of research studies would help to increase knowledge on the relationship between safety and security and tourist consumer behaviour. Such findings could assist Destination Marketing Organisations and law enforcement agencies to devise strategies for and crime prevention measures to work towards improving perceptions of safety for the growing long-haul international travel market.

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Appendix A

Long-haul Holiday Survey

Dear Holidaymaker,

We are very keen to learn about which factors influence your decision to go on holiday to a long-haul destination, and understand your attitudes towards travel. This is why we have teamed up with the University of Cape Town, to sponsor a PhD student in their final year thesis on the same subject.

If you have ever travelled long-haul (i.e. five hours flying time or more/outside of Europe), we would appreciate if you could please complete the attached questionnaire. All information is **completely confidential**, and your contact details will not be passed on to the University.

To thank you for fully completing and returning this questionnaire, a **complimentary voucher for £20 is enclosed**, redeemable against a future long-haul holiday*.

Please could you kindly complete and return this survey in the pre-paid envelope to us as soon as possible. The success of this study depends on you.

Yours faithfully,

Marketing Manager

University of Cape Town
School of Management Studies
Private Bag
Rondebosch 7701
South Africa

* Valid until 01 June 2003.

This questionnaire is divided into five sections, and should take you no longer than 15 minutes to complete (most questions simply require a ☑ to save you time). To ensure validity of this study, please answer every question.

A. LONG-HAUL TRAVEL PROFILE

The questions in this part of the survey are about your past long-haul holiday travel experience.

1. When did you last go on a long-haul holiday (i.e. a destination outside of Europe)? _____ (*year*)

2. Where did you go to? _____ /_____ (*city/country*)

3. Please indicate the amount of importance you associated with each of the following when you chose to visit this particular long-haul holiday destination. *(PLEASE ☑ ONLY ONE BOX FOR EACH ATTRIBUTE)*

	Very important	*Important*	*Neither/ Nor*	*Unimportant*	*Very unimportant*
Beautiful scenery/natural attractions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Good entertainment & nightlife	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Interesting & friendly local people	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Interesting culture/history	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Nice weather	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Personal safety & security	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Value for money	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other (specify) _____	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. Who did you travel with on this long-haul holiday? *(PLEASE ☑ ALL THOSE BOXES THAT APPLY)*

☐ By myself ☐ Friend(s) ☐ Children
☐ Spouse or partner ☐ Extended family ☐ Other_____

5. How many people (including yourself) were in your travel group? *(PLEASE ☑ ONE BOX ONLY)*

☐ Alone ☐ 3-5 people
☐ 2 people ☐ 6+

6. What were your main reasons for going on this particular long-haul holiday? *(PLEASE ☑ ONE BOX FOR EACH REASON ONLY)*

	Very important	*Important*	*Neither/ Nor*	*Unimportant*	*Very unimportant*
To get away from ordinary UK life	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To go somewhere I hadn't been before	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To have fun & excitement	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To just relax	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To learn about a places, people & things	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To meet new & different people	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
To visit friends & relatives	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other (specify) _____	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. How many times have you been on a long-haul holiday during the last 5 years? *(PLEASE ☑ ONE BOX ONLY)*

☐ None at all ☐ Twice
☐ Once ☐ Three times or more

8. How often did you make use of the following safety precautions while you were at the long-haul holiday destination? *(PLEASE ☑ ONE BOX FOR EACH ACTIVITY)*

	Always	*Often*	*Some-times*	*Rarely*	*Never*
Avoided going to certain streets/areas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Avoided going out alone	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Avoided going out at night	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Avoided using public transport	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Didn't carry large amounts of cash	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Reduced wearing expensive jewellery	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tried not to look like a tourist	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other (specify) _____	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

9. Do you usually take an all-inclusive tour/package (one with an all-in price covering airfares and accommodation) when going on a long-haul holiday? *(PLEASE ☑ ONE BOX ONLY)*

☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Sometimes

B. LONG-HAUL TRAVEL PERCEPTIONS

The purpose of this section is to find out about your perceptions of various holiday destinations around the world in terms of crime risk. Please note 'crime' for the purpose of this survey does not refer to terrorism/political instability.

1. Please indicate whether you have been on holiday (not in transit) to any of the countries listed below. In addition, indicate the level of crime risk (either *physical* or *property*) that you believe is involved with holidaying at the destinations regardless of whether you have been there. *(PLEASE☑ ONLY ONE BOX FOR EACH CRIME AND EACH COUNTRY)*

	Yes *visited*	**Physical** *(i.e. personal harm/threat to you)*					**Property** *(i.e. theft of belongings)*				
		Very safe	*Safe*	*Neither Nor*	*Unsafe*	*Very Unsafe*	*Very safe*	*Safe*	*Neither Nor*	*Unsafe*	*Very Unsafe*
	✓	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1. Argentina											
2. Australia											
3. Barbados											
4. Brazil											
5. Canada											
6. China											
7. Costa Rica											
8. Egypt											
9. Jamaica											
10. Jordan											
11. Kenya											
12. India											
13. Malaysia											
14. Mauritius											
15. New Zealand											
16. Seychelles											
17. South Africa											
18. Thailand											
19. UAE (Dubai)											
20. USA											

2. From which of the above countries would you be most likely to avoid for a holiday for fear of being a victim of crime? *(WRITE THE NUMBER OF THE COUNTRY ACCORDING TO GREATEST RISK)*

Riskiest country_____ 2nd riskiest country_____ 3rd riskiest country_____

3. Have you ever personally been the victim of any crime while on holiday at any of the countries listed above?

☐ Yes ➔ **continue** ☐ No ➔ **go to Q.4**

3a. If **yes**, in which countries? *(WRITE THE NUMBER OF THE COUNTRY)*

i) _____, ii) _____, iii) _____

4. Indicate your level of agreement/disagreement with each of the following statements. *(PLEASE☑ ONLY ONE BOX FOR EACH STATEMENT)*

	Strongly agree	*Agree*	*Neither/ Nor*	*Disagree*	*Strongly disagree*
a. I don't travel to certain long-haul places for fear of becoming a crime victim.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Other people's crime experiences influence my decision to travel overseas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. I'm just as likely to be a victim of crime in the UK as I am while on a long-haul holiday.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. If I read or hear about high crime rates at a long-haul destination I would avoid it for a holiday.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

C. LONG-HAUL TRAVEL INFORMATION SEARCH

The aim of this part of the survey is to help us find out how you usually obtain information when considering and planning which long-haul holiday destination to go to.

1. To what extent do you use the sources of information listed below when considering and planning a long-haul holiday? *(PLEASE ☑ ONE BOX FOR EACH INFORMATION SOURCE)*

	Always	*Often*	*Some-times*	*Rarely*	*Never*
Ceefax/Teletext	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Internet sites	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Newspaper travel supplements	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tourism Boards	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tour operator	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Travel agency	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Travel guidebooks	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
TV travel programmes	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Word-of-mouth communication	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2. To what extent do you purposely make use of research sources about the crime situation of the destination/country you are visiting? *(PLEASE ☑ ONE BOX FOR EACH RESEARCH SOURCE)*

	Always	*Often*	*Some-times*	*Rarely*	*Never*
Friends/relatives/business associates	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Government travel advisories*	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Internet sites	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tourism Boards	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Travel agency/tour operator	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Travel guidebooks	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

(*Foreign and Commonwealth Office website/call centre)

D. LONG-HAUL TRAVEL INTENTIONS

The following questions are about your future long-haul travel intentions.

1. In the next 12 months, how likely are you to go on a long-haul holiday (not for business)? *(PLEASE TICK ONE BOX ONLY)*

☐ Likely ➔ **answer Q.2** ☐ Undecided ➔ **Q. 3** ☐ Unlikely ➔ **Q 3**

PLEASE ANSWER EITHER Q2 OR Q3.

2. If you are **likely** to go on a long-haul holiday in the next 12 months, which destination(s) are you considering?

_____ (country), _____ (country), _____ (country)

3. If you are **undecided** or **unlikely** to go on a long-haul holiday in the next 12 months consider the reasons listed below. Indicate the amount of importance you associate for each reason. *(PLEASE ☑ ONLY ONE BOX FOR EACH STATEMENT)*

	Very important	*Important*	*Neither/ Nor*	*Unimportant*	*Very unimportant*
Fear of deep-vein thrombosis (DVT)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Fear of flying	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Hadn't considered it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Health risks (at the destination)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Not enough time	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Not interested	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Too dangerous (crime rates at destination)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Too expensive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Too far away	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other (specify) _____	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

E. PERSONAL INFORMATION

The questions in this section are about you personally and will help us to learn more about clients who travel long-haul. Please note the information that you provide will be treated with the utmost confidentiality.

1. What is your gender?

☐ Male ☐ Female

2. What is your age?

☐ 15-24 ☐ 35-44 ☐ 55-64
☐ 25-34 ☐ 45-54 ☐ 65+

3. Are you...? *(PLEASE ☑ ONE BOX ONLY)*

☐ Single ☐ Living with partner
☐ Married ☐ Other (*specify*)_____

4. Are you living...? *(PLEASE ☑ ALL THOSE BOXES THAT APPLY)*

☐ Alone ☐ With parents
☐ With partner ☐ With children
☐ With friends/relatives ☐ With tenants

5. What is your occupation? *(PLEASE ☑ ONE BOX ONLY)*

☐ Professional/managerial ☐ Retired
☐ Middle management ☐ Housekeeper
☐ Clerical/secretarial ☐ Student
☐ Self-employed ☐ Unemployed
☐ Trade/manual worker ☐ Other (*specify*)_____

6. What is the highest level of education you have received? *(PLEASE ☑ ONE BOX ONLY)*

☐ No formal qualification ☐ A-level(s)/trade or technical diploma (i.e. HND)
☐ GCSE/O-level(s) ☐ University degree
☐ Postgraduate degree ☐ Other (*specify*)_____

7. What is your country of citizenship?

☐ UK ☐ Other (*specify*)_____

If you have any additional comments that you would like to add or share with us regarding this subject, please use the space provided below...

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Thank you for completing this survey. Your responses will be a valuable contribution to what is presently known about UK tourist's long-haul holiday behaviour. Please now post it in the envelope that accompanied this survey (no stamp postage required).

Appendix B

Non-respondent Telephone Survey 2002 Survey of Long-haul Holiday Travellers

LONG-HAUL TRAVEL PROFILE

1. Why didn't you fill out the Solo's/University of Cape Town travel survey and return it?

☐ Not been on a long-haul holiday	☐ Time inappropriate	☐ Too busy
☐ Believed it be a sales pitch	☐ Misplaced survey	☐ Don't like surveys
☐ A waste of time	☐ Don't remember	☐ Other (*specify*)_____

2. When did you last go on a long-haul holiday (i.e. a destination outside of Europe)? _____

3. Where did you go to? _____

4. Who did you travel with on this long-haul holiday?

☐ By myself	☐ Friend(s)	☐ Children
☐ Spouse or partner	☐ Extended family	☐ Other (*specify*)_____

5. How many people (including yourself) were in your travel group?

☐ Alone	☐ 3-5 people
☐ 2 people	☐ 6+

6. How many times have you been on a long-haul holiday during the last 5 years?

☐ None at all	☐ Twice
☐ Once	☐ Three times or more

7. How often did you make use of the following safety precautions while you were at the long-haul holiday destination?

	Always	*Often*	*Some-times*	*Rarely*	*Never*
Avoided going to certain streets/areas	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Avoided going out alone	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Avoided going out at night	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Avoided using public transport	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Didn't carry large amounts of cash	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Reduced wearing expensive jewellery	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tried not to look like a tourist	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other (specify) _____	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. Do you usually take an all-inclusive tour/package (one with an all-in price covering airfares and accommodation) when going on a long-haul holiday?

☐ Yes	☐ No	☐ Sometimes

LONG-HAUL TRAVEL PERCEPTIONS

1. Indicate your level of agreement/disagreement with each of the following statements.

	Strongly agree	*Agree*	*Neither/ Nor*	*Disagree*	*Strongly disagree*
a. I don't travel to certain long-haul places for fear of becoming a crime victim.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Other people's crime experiences influence my decision to travel overseas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. I'm just as likely to be a victim of crime in the UK as I am while on a long-haul holiday.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. If I read or hear about high crime rates at a long-haul destination I would avoid it for a holiday.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

LONG-HAUL TRAVEL INFORMATION SEARCH

1. To what extent do you use the sources of information listed below when considering and planning a long-haul holiday?

	Always	*Often*	*Some-times*	*Rarely*	*Never*
Ceefax/Teletext	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Internet sites	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Newspaper travel supplements	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tourism Boards	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tour operator	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Travel agency	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Travel guidebooks	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
TV travel programmes	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Word-of-mouth communication	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

LONG-HAUL TRAVEL INTENTIONS

1. In the next 12 months, how likely are you to go on a long-haul holiday (not for business)?

☐ Likely ➔ **answer next Q.** ☐ Undecided ➔ **go to Q.3** ☐ Unlikely ➔ **go to Q.3**

2. If you are **likely** to go on a long-haul holiday in the next 12 months, which destination(s) are you considering?

_____ (country), _____ (country), _____ (country)

3. If you are **undecided** or **unlikely** to go on a long-haul holiday in the next 12 months consider the reasons listed below. Indicate the amount of importance you associate for each reason.

	Very important	*Important*	*Neither/ Nor*	*Unimportant*	*Very unimportant*
Fear of deep-vein thrombosis (DVT)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Fear of flying	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Hadn't considered it	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Health risks (at the destination)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Not enough time	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Not interested	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Too dangerous (crime rates at destination)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Too expensive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Too far away	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other (specify) _____	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Gender?

☐ Male ☐ Female

1. What is your age?

☐ <21 ☐ 35-44 ☐ 65-69
☐ 22-25 ☐ 45-54 ☐ 70-74
☐ 26-34 ☐ 55-64 ☐ 75+

3. What is the highest level of education you have received? *(PLEASE ☑ ONE BOX ONLY)*

☐ No formal qualification ☐ A-level(s)/trade or technical diploma (i.e. HND)
☐ GCSE/O-level(s) ☐ University degree
☐ Postgraduate degree ☐ Other (*specify*)_____

4. What is your country of citizenship?

☐ UK ☐ Other (*specify*) _____

THANK YOU FOR TAKING PART IN THIS TELEPHONE SURVEY.

Appendix C

National Tourism Safety and Security Plan

According to the WTO (2003) a National Tourism Safety and Security Plan should address the following main areas:

- Identification of potential tourist risks according to types of travel, affected tourism sectors, and locations;
- Detection and prevention of offences against tourists;
- Protection of tourists and residents from illicit drug trafficking;
- Protection of tourist sites and facilities against unlawful interference;
- Establishment of guidelines for operators of tourist facilities in the event of unlawful interference;
- Responsibilities for dealing with the press and other media, at home and abroad;
- Information to be provided to the international travel trade on safety and security issues;
- Organization of crisis management in the event of a natural disaster or other emergency;
- Adoption of safety standards and practices in tourist facilities and sites with reference to fire protection, theft, sanitary and health requirements;
- Development of liability rules in tourist establishments;
- Safety and security aspects of licensing for accommodation establishments, restaurants, taxi companies, and tour guides;
- Provision of appropriate documentation and information on tourist safety to the public, for both outgoing and incoming travellers;
- Development of national policies with regard to tourist health, including reporting systems on health problems of tourists;
- Development of tourist insurance and travel assistance insurance; and
- Promotion, collection and dissemination of reliable research statistics on crimes against travellers.