

# **DETERMINING SASOLBURG RESIDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF TOURIST SAFETY AND SECURITY IN SOUTH AFRICA**

Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree  
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in the Faculty of Human Sciences

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**Opinions expressed and conclusions arrived at are those of the author and are  
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## DECLARATION

Except in aspects duly acknowledged, the thesis entitled, ***“Determining Sasolburg residents’ perceptions of tourist safety and security in South Africa”*** is my own work. It is submitted for the Magister Technologiae: Tourism and Hospitality Management degree in the Faculty of Human Sciences at Vaal University of Technology. It has not been submitted for any other degree to any other university.

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**MJ RAMOLIKI**

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**DATE**

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## ABSTRACT

The birth of new governance in South Africa in 1994 positioned the country worldwide as a tourism destination with large numbers of tourists visiting South African shores. It is, however, not only international visitors that frequent the tourism products; the local residents also started to travel more with almost 50% of the population that participated in travel-related activities. At the same time South Africa gained a reputation of being an unsafe place to visit, which influenced the tourism growth percentage negatively. It was then realised that the notion of being an unsafe place to go on holiday to would impact negatively on a host country such as South Africa. Perceptions of safety and security in South Africa have been measured, but only for international visitors. Even though the domestic market should be the backbone of the tourism industry their perceptions regarding the safety of South Africa as a tourism destination has not been analysed. This could, however, be a factor inhibiting them from travelling locally.

The purpose of this study is to determine the perceptions of residents of Sasolburg regarding tourists' safety and security in South Africa, to obtain insight into the current perspectives of residents and advise on strategies regarding the improvement of these perceptions. Questionnaires were distributed to residents of Sasolburg and a total of 380 questionnaires were suitable for analyses. The questionnaire was divided into three sections, namely demographic information, travel preferences and perceptions of crime. The data resulting from the questionnaires was captured and analysed by means of descriptive analyses in SPSS. Descriptive statistics were used focusing on the graphical display of frequency tables and figures providing information on the demographic profile and travel behaviour of the respondents. Factor analyses were used to identify specific safety experience factors as well as specific travel motivation factors. Spearman Rank order correlations were used to determine the factors influencing safety experience factors with reference to age, frequency of holidaying, average duration of the holiday, number of weekend trips and travel motivations. An independent *t*-test was conducted to explore the influence of gender, being a previous victim of crime and marital status on respondents' assessment of safety experience factors and travel motivation factors. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the effect of home language and occupation on the safety experience factors and travel motivation factors of Sasolburg residents.

From the analyses it became clear that the respondents go on holiday once a year but do tend to go on more weekend trips per year. They travel mostly by car and stay with relatives, in hotels and guesthouses. Respondents were most concerned about crime whilst travelling and their biggest concerns were theft, robbery and rape. In everyday life respondents were more concerned about crime than when travelling. Respondents indicated that higher and more intense levels of policing would make South Africa a safer tourism destination. Regarding respondents' previous holiday, it was found that they had felt safe when dining out, staying at their accommodation establishments and whilst driving during the day. Respondents did feel unsafe at night.

The factor analysis on the safety experiences of respondents revealed three factors, namely day-time activities, night-time experiences and infrastructure with night-time activities considered to be the most unsafe activities. The factor analysis on travel motivations revealed the following factors, namely exploration, learning, social group activities and relaxation. The latter was identified as the most important travel motivator for the respondents. The factors that influence residents' perceptions of crime included age, length of stay, number of weekend trips, previously being a victim of crime, marital status and occupation. The high correlations between the three safety experience factors revealed that if residents felt unsafe during the day they will probably also feel unsafe at night or while using infrastructure.

The study contributes to the existing body of knowledge of understanding the influence of perceptions of safety and security on the tourism industry in South Africa. In the light of the findings, it is therefore recommended that the tourism industry, law enforcement agencies and other tourism stakeholders co-ordinate efforts to improve crime prevention measures in South Africa. Travelling of local residents is as important as international visitors to South Africa and it is thus important to create a safe environment to travel.

**Keywords:** *crime, safety, security, visitors, residents, host population, perceptions, tourist and tourism*

## DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my lovely mum, Mannoko Ramoliki, who hardly say a word to me but I know that in her silence there are so many wise words spoken. It is my wish that all mothers and women of South Africa ensure that every child go to school and come back to make a difference in the lives of their families, those who are disadvantaged and to that of their own.

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# **CHAPTER 1**

## **INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

The post-apartheid era in South Africa has seen this country become a popular tourist destination for both national and international visitors and is considered to be Africa's top destination which attracts one in every four visitors to the continent (George 2003:576; Minnaar 2007:13; van Niekerk & Oelofse 2007:1). South Africa as a tourism destination offers unique experiences to tourists, but needs to be globally competitive in order to foster tourism growth. 'Peace, safety and security are primary requirements for growth, attractiveness and competitiveness of tourism destinations' (Donaldson & Ferreira 2009:15). Thus, tourism can be undermined by one fatal factor, which needs to be addressed, namely the safety and security situation in South Africa.

Mthembu (2008:1) stated that since tourism is a development-based industry it has to protect and support the tourist that is visiting any particular destination. Negative impressions will be developed if the tourist feels unsafe or threatened at a holiday destination. He or she might decide not to visit again or inform various other prospective visitors about these negative experiences. This can be very damaging to the destination's tourism industry and can result in the decline of tourism to the area (George 2003:577; Pizam & Mansfeld 2006:10). Nevertheless, some tourists are willing to visit countries where security risk is higher than in their home country (Korstanje & Clayton, 2012:8).

Unfortunately South Africa has developed a reputation of being an unsafe place to visit (George 2003:576; Minnaar 2007:13; van Niekerk & Oelofse 2007:1). Horn and Breetzke (2009:20) highlight that in 1994, South Africa was ranked by Interpol as the second most dangerous country in the world to reside in and therefore crime affects residents and tourists. Perceptions of safety and security and daunting levels of crime, particularly in South Africa, are serious constraints on the ability of the

country and the region to reach its full tourism potential (Kruger-Cloete 2006:24; Tichaawa 2008:3).

South Africa, however, is no exception when it comes to the negative effects of crime and violence-related incidents (Letwaba 2008:4). Many major world cities continually experience high levels of crime and violence, often caused by unfavourable social conditions and political problems (Bloom, 1994:93), such as; the United States of America. Tourism is viewed by many as a discretionary activity and is incredibly vulnerable to political instability, crime and violence. Safety and security are vital to providing a quality experience in tourism. Hence providing quality tourism experiences that incorporate principles of safety and security are becoming an overriding objective of tourism destinations (Lawton 1997:403). Milman and Bach (1999:384) stated that tourists' previous exposure to criminally related activities influence their overall sense of security and that certain security devices, such as improved lighting and employing hotel security staff, provided visitors with a greater sense of security. A common finding is that safety and security of tourists is a prerequisite for a prosperous tourist destination (George 2003:578) and that crime incidents occurring at tourist destinations will have some degree of negative effect on affected areas and their tourism industry (George 2010:807).

Safety and security issues are significant because tourists and tourist areas possess a range of characteristics that make them vulnerable to crime (Barker & Page 2002:275). Tourists exhibit various visible elements which make them targets and the combination of this with behavioural traits lead to tourists, specifically aged 15-24 years, becoming the victims of crime on holiday (Page & Connell 2009:586). Tourists often carry large sums of money or valuable items such as cameras and jewellery on them which can easily be sold by criminals.

Furthermore, tourists occasionally engage in activities which may increase their risk of victimization, such as frequenting night clubs and bars at late hours, or accidentally venturing into unknown parts of the community which residents consider unsafe. Some tourists also engage in activities they would not consider engaging in at home, such as buying drugs or picking up a stranger (Allen 1999:2). These tourists may be exposed to crimes such as motor vehicle theft and burglary, pickpocketing but domicile burglary with wilful bodily harm are very rare (Michalkó 2003:165). Pickpocketing happens rather often in crowded areas where tourists are

careless and absent-minded. Michalkó (2003:166) also stated that when visitors are familiar with the environment, and speak the native language, they are more resistant to crime.

Five major risk factors are associated with tourism when considering safety and security including war and political instability, health concerns, crime, terrorism and natural disasters. It has been found that tourism demand decreases as the perception of risks associated with the destination increases (Floyd, Gibson, Pennington, Gray & Thapa 2003:23). It is thus evident that crime has been identified as an important consideration in the travel decision-making process (Tasci & Boylu 2010:179). The risk of visiting a high-crime area might be an overriding factor in the decision-making process. Safer options will be chosen if tourists are given the choice between two destinations offering the same activities and benefits (Sönmez & Graefe 1998:114).

Crime-related incidents can be in the form of: larceny, theft, robbery, rape, murder, piracy and kidnapping (Pizam & Mansfeld 2006:4). In order to limit the offences against visitors it is important to provide financial support for the police. Warnings should be communicated to tourists, pamphlets with the necessary information can be printed and handed to tourists, patrolling police can create a calming effect and a 24-hour complaints centre that can assist when tourists are in trouble (Michalkó 2003:170-171). Mansfeld and Pizam (2006:21) stated that after a series of security incidents some destinations want to compensate for the resultant decline in tourist arrivals which might include strategies such as reducing labour costs, decreasing prices for services and goods, developing new marketing campaigns and strategies, developing new products or postponing major expenditures.

Page and Connell (2009:586) indicated that the scope of tourist-related crime is largely not documented in many destinations despite the media attention it receives in many cases. A few studies have been done in South Africa related to safety and security of tourists (George 2003; 2010; Tichaawa 2008). However, these studies mainly focused on visitors to the country and not the residents of South Africa and a major focus on the security situation during the FIFA Soccer World Cup in 2010. In a research note written by Harper (2001:1055) it was stated that safety and security experiences of residents were higher in number than those of tourists. The County Visitor and Convention Bureau conducted a major field survey on tourism safety and



security (Tarlow 2004) which reported that domestic tourists considered safety and security to be the most important factor in selecting a tourism destination. If the crime experience increases for locals it also tends to increase for visitors. This highlights the importance of understanding residents' perceptions regarding tourists' safety and security in South Africa. A developing domestic tourism sector also encourages international travel.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

With South Africa growing as a tourism destination it is important to have measures in place that can ensure the safety of all tourists. Demombynes and Ozler (2005:265), Bob, Swart and Turco (2006:193) and Perry, Chunderduth and Potgieter (2012:123) assert that safety and security issues and specific crime levels in South Africa, which are among the highest in the world, are some of the most difficult challenges facing South Africa.

South African Tourism conducted a market segmentation study in 2005 which showed that over a five-year period a 54 percent decrease in inbound tourists was evident due to negative perceptions. Negative publicity contributed to the latter. This percentage would have accounted for 4.5 million visitors per year that did not consider South Africa due to concerns about safety (SATSA 2013). It is therefore imperative to determine the perceptions of domestic tourists in South Africa on safety as these are not known, change constantly and influence the views of international visitors as well.

Various studies (Barker & Page 2002; George 2003; 2010; Rezende-Parker, Morrison & Ismail 2003) have been undertaken and books have been published (Hall, Timothy & Duval 2003; WTO 1996; Mansfeld & Pizam 2006; Wilks & Pendergast & Leggat 2006) regarding safety and security in the tourism industry, especially after the 9/11 attack in the United States of America. However, this type of study has not been undertaken for residents in South Africa. The question therefore remains: What are residents' perceptions regarding tourists' safety and security in South Africa? Since safety and security are globally important phenomena, this study can add value to understanding perceptions concerning safety and security and planning for the tourism industry to improve the image of South Africa and create more awareness regarding this issue.

### **1.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

The purpose of this study is to determine the perceptions of residents of Sasolburg regarding tourist safety and security in South Africa to obtain insight into the current perspectives of residents and advise on strategies regarding the improvement of these perceptions.

The objectives are to:

- analyse the theoretical framework of safety and security and the influence thereof on the tourism industry.
- determine the perceptions of residents concerning the safety and security of South Africa as a tourism destination.
- determine the factors influencing residents' perceptions of safety and its relationship with travel motivation.
- make recommendations regarding the betterment and improvement of safety and security of visitors in South Africa when travelling.

### **1.4 IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY**

The study will be of importance in respect of the following:

- It will provide a foundation for the sustainable development of the existing tourism support facilities.
- It will lead to the development of guidelines for South Africa to improve the safety and security of local visitors.
- It will assist tourism planners and marketers in planning for the required levels of safety and security.

### **1.5 DEMARCATION OF THE FIELD OF STUDY**

The study will be conducted among residents in Sasolburg (part of the Fezile Dabi District Municipality) with a population of 460,289 (Statistics SA 2001).

### **1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

An analytical survey method will be applied for this study, based on a two-pronged approach – literature review and a quantitative study. <sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> This methodology will be described in detail in chapter 4.

### **1.6.1 Literature review**

An extensive study of a specific literature was conducted regarding the safety and security in the tourism industry in particular, and South Africa in general. During the gathering, classification and analysis of literature, the safety and security issues were outlined and dealt with in a broader perspective. Databases used during this study included: South African periodicals; dissertations, multimedia; Social science indexes; Humanities indexes. EBSCO-Host, Internet and governmental materials such as the Tourism White Paper.

Keywords in the literature search included: *crime, safety, security, visitors, residents, host population, perceptions, tourist and tourism*

### **1.6.2 Quantitative study**

Quantitative research involves larger representative samples, and structured data collection methods are applied. Descriptive as well as causal research can be conducted by means of a quantitative study, which is the reason for selecting it for this study.

#### **1.6.1.1 Sampling and description of sampling**

Probability sampling, namely stratified random sampling, was used for the sample frame. The sampling procedure was based on guidelines set by Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608) for general research activities, which indicated that the recommended sample size (S) for a population (N) of 1000 000 is 384. The selected population, however, totals 460,289 residents (Statistics SA 2001). Stratification was based on the residential areas.

Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608) further indicated that as the population increases, the sample size increases at a diminishing rate and remains relatively constant at slightly more than 380 cases. It was therefore decided to distribute 450 questionnaires among the strata. In each stratum participants were chosen at regular intervals after a random start (Tustin, Ligthelm, Martins & van Wyk 2005:352). Therefore the starting point was randomly selected in the strata after which every third house was visited for filling in a questionnaire.

### **1.6.1.2 Pilot study**

A pilot study was done among national and international visitors to the Soccer World Cup in 2010. These visitors were requested to complete the questionnaire in order to determine whether respondents understood the questions so that changes could be made where necessary. The results from this pilot study were not included in the main survey but directed the finalisation of the questionnaire.

### **1.6.1.3 Data collection methods**

The questionnaire was developed, based on a similar study done by Donaldson and Ferreira (2007). Due to the differences in the sample type, some questions were redrafted and rephrased according to the needs of this study and the literature analyses. Questions were posed pertaining to demographics, geographics and safety and security perceptions. The questionnaire consists of open and closed-ended questions as well as Likert scale type questions. The dependent variables (safety and security) can be influenced by various independent variables (for example gender, previous travelling experiences, travel motivations and so forth). These as well as other independent variables were explored by means of the questionnaire.

### **1.6.1.4 Statistical analysis**

The data was collected and captured by the researcher, processed by a statistician of North West-University and interpreted by the researcher. Descriptive statistics were used focusing on the graphical display of frequency tables and figures. The internal consistency of the scale used in the measuring instrument was determined by the Cronbach Alpha coefficient and therefore indicates the reliability of the instrument.

Factor analyses were used to identify specific safety experience factors as well as specific travel motivation factors. Spearman Rank order correlations were used to determine the factors influencing safety experience factors with reference to age, frequency of holidaying, average duration of the holiday, number of weekend trips and travel motivations. An independent *t*-test was conducted to explore the influence of gender, being a previous victim of crime and marital status on respondents' assessment of safety experience factors and travel motivation factors. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the effect of home

language and occupation on the safety experience factors and travel motivation factors of Sasolburg residents.

## **1.7 OUTCOMES OF THE STUDY**

The study led to the following outcomes:

- A report was written to the local municipality indicating the current safety and security perceptions of residents.
- New knowledge has been added to the current literature framework of safety and security and its relationship with and influence thereof on the tourism industry.
- Reasons were determined as to how and why residents perceive the current safety and security situation in South Africa the way they do.

## **1.8 CHAPTER LAYOUT**

### **Chapter 1: Introduction and problem statement**

Chapter 1 provides an overview of how the research of the study is organised. A brief overview of the literature is provided, followed by the problem statement that initiated this study. The objectives of the study were addressed in this chapter, followed by a description of the method of research and the clarification of concepts relevant to this study.

### **Chapter 2: The South African tourism industry and travel patterns**

Chapter 2 comprises a thorough analysis of the South African tourism industry, focusing on understanding the industry and the challenges facing it. The travel patterns of domestic tourists in South Africa are analysed as well as the factors influencing the travel decision-making process.

### **Chapter 3: Safety and security and the influence thereof on the tourism industry**

Chapter 3 focuses on conceptualising and understanding safety and security in the tourism context. Attention is given to safety issues related to the industry and how it can be improved. Attention is also given to the South African context in this regard.

#### **Chapter 4: Research methodology**

Chapter 4 focuses on the empirical study designed to address the research problem. The quantitative research methodology to be followed will be discussed, followed by a description of the research design, data collection method and the data analysis process.

#### **Chapter 5: Results and discussion**

In Chapter 5 the results of the empirical study are described. The purpose of this chapter is thus to present the analyses and discussion of the survey. The socio-demographic results, travel behaviour and respondents' perceptions of crime are discussed by means of graphs and tables. The safety experience and travel motivations of respondents are factor analysed which allows for more in-depth analyses. This is followed by an analysis of the factors influencing respondents' perceptions of crime and its relationship with travel motivations.

#### **Chapter 6: Conclusions and recommendations**

In this chapter the main findings are summarised and the limitations of the study highlighted. Recommendations are made regarding the management of and planning for the improvement of safety and security and the creation of a more favourable image of South Africa as a tourism destination.

### **1.9 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS**

The following main concepts form part of the study and therefore require clarification.

#### **1.9.1 Resident**

Local residents are people that give the community its human content. The residents operate the services and facilities necessary for tourists to have an experience. Local residents feature prominently in the community's delivery of a hosting experience (Blank 1989:59).

For purposes of domestic tourism a person is considered to be a resident in a place if he/she (a) has lived there for most of the past year (12 months) or (b) has lived there for a shorter period and plans to return within 12 months to the intended place (Dictionary of Travel, Tourism and Hospitality 2003:142).

### **1.9.2 Safety**

The definition of tourist safety is broad, as the term means a condition free of cheating, fraudulence, misguiding, more serious issues such as stealing, harassing physically, attempting to loot belongings and so forth. Safety is often defined as protecting people against unintended consequences of an involuntary nature (Tarlow 2009:468).

Safety concern is a component of emotion, referring to a set of subjective and objective factors, mediated by neural and hormonal stimuli that provoke affective experience and are more intense in nature than moods (Bigne & Andreu 2004).

### **1.9.3 Security**

Security is often used to mean the protection of a person, place or reputation from an intended harm (Tarlow 2009:468). Wilks (2006:4) defined security as freedom from danger, risk or doubt.

### **1.9.4 Perceptions**

Kotler, Bowen and Makens (1999:776) describe perceptions as the process by which a person selects, organises and interprets information inputs to create a meaningful picture of the world. Samovar and Porter (2000:147) stated that perception is defined as the internal process by which one selects, evaluates and organises stimuli from the external environment.

# **CHAPTER 2**

## **ANALYSING THE TOURISM INDUSTRY AND TOURIST BEHAVIOUR**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

Generally, tourism is perceived to be one of the largest and fastest growing industries in the world (Lanza, Markandya & Francesco 2005:1) and needs to be managed in a sustainable manner, enabling future generations to enjoy the product offer. This industry plays an important role in the growth of the global economy and contributes positively towards the global growth of the economy by creating job opportunities (whether direct or indirect) in the mainstream of the economy. The positive and negative impacts of this industry are well researched but still continue to influence visitor and host behaviour.

There are a number of aspects that can negatively affect this industry, thus influencing the decisions and the behaviour of visitors such as safety and security at the destination. The general norm is that tourists will not visit a destination which is not secure and is threatened by criminal activities. Security is thus one of the main aspects which tourists always consider before making a decision to visit a particular destination. Most tourists often rely on information and experiences from other tourists that had previously visited the concerned destination or draw from their own positive or negative experiences.

It is important to understand how tourists make decisions and what influences these decisions. The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of the development of the tourism industry and the importance of tourists in growing the industry through the decisions they make. Attention will also be given to the travel patterns of domestic tourists as this study focuses on their perceptions regarding safety and security (crime).



## 2.2 UNDERSTANDING THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

Page and Connell (2006:346) indicated that there are a number of characteristics put together to distinguish tourism from other industries, goods and services.

- *Tourism is an invincible export industry* – tourism products cannot be seen with the naked eye and consumers often purchase before seeing the real product.
- *Tourists require supporting goods and services* – there is a greater need for the expansion of the existing infrastructure or creation of new ones.
- *Tourism is a fragmented product* – it is formed in terms of number of aspects, accommodation, transport, landscape and cultural resources.
- *Tourism is a highly priced and income-elastic product* – tourism products are not consistent when it comes to financial aspects and are also seasonal.
- *Tourism is a perishable product* – if a hotel room is not booked for one night, then that income is lost.
- *Tourism is subject to unpredictable external influence* – political unrests, tourists' motivators to travel and tourists' tastes form part of the external influences.

In order to understand the tourism industry, it is also important to contextualise the term tourism and briefly describe the historical development of this industry.

### 2.2.1 Contextualising tourism

Glensor and Peak (2004:2) define tourism as an interactive relationship among tourists, local businesses, host governments and communities. Nickerson (2004:2) defines tourism as the action and activities of people taking trips to places which are not their own for any reason except daily commuting to and from work. The term tourism includes business travel as well as travel for pleasure.

According to Bennett, Jooste and Strydom (2005:4), tourism is deemed as to include any activity with the temporary short-term movement of people to destinations outside the place where they normally live and work, and activities during their stay at these destinations. George (2007:20) points out that tourism is defined by the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) as the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not longer than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes.

Bennett *et al.* (2005:4) summarised these definitions by indicating that tourism involves the following elements:

- Activities concerned solely with aspects of daily life outside the normal routines of work and social commitments;
- Travel and transportation to and from the destination;
- Activities engaged in during the stay at the destination;
- Facilities provided to cater for the needs of tourists.

It is also clear that in most cases tourism is a choice and therefore decisions to travel to certain destinations are made by the potential visitor. If the potential visitor perceives the destination to be unsafe and unsecure, he/she will probably choose a different option for future travel. These decisions thus have a direct impact on the growth of the tourism industry – also in South Africa.

### **2.2.2 The historical development of tourism**

During prehistoric times of early man, people travelled for essential reasons of seeking food, escaping from enemies, obtaining relief from the pressures of overpopulation, achieving territorial expansion, engaging in bartering type of trade and perhaps, even then, satisfying curiosity about unknown lands. Early migrations of people seem to have taken place in all the habitable continents and regions, including successively over long distances, such as from North Asia to the Americas (Inskeep 1991:3).

It is further said that not all early travel was for trading, administrative, or military purposes. In Greece, people travelled to the Olympic Games, organised in 776 B.C., the first of the major international sports events currently still popular. In Asia Minor, Turkey, after being conquered and democratized by Alexander the Great, became a major trading centre that also attracted many pleasure travellers to enjoy the city's varied features (Inskeep 1991:4).

Reflecting the hardships of travel during the middle ages, the origin of the English word 'travel' is the Old French word *travallier* from which is derived travail, meaning to labour hard. Although religiously based, pilgrimages were also social and recreational events. To serve the pilgrims, a network of charitable hospices was established and commercial inns developed. Packaged tours were organised from Venice to the Holy Land, which included the cost of passage, meals, wine,

accommodation, donkey rides, and bribe money to prevent confiscation of baggage, bureaucratic delays, or mischief from camel drivers (Inskip 1985). Even if people did not travel on an organised tour, they tended to travel together in groups for safety reasons. It is thus clear that safety was already important during the early days of travelling. By the fifteenth century, Rome had more than a thousand hostelries, and tour guide books were available in various languages.

Inskip (1991:6) stated that during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the famous Grand Tour developed. This initially involved young English aristocrats, being educated for government administrative and diplomatic services and future political leadership, travelling two to three years on the Continent. The main destination was still Italy to appreciate culture, but as the Grand Tour evolved, it typically also included Germany, France, sometimes Vienna, and, later on Switzerland and the Low Countries. For the very wealthy, travel was often done in considerable style with an entourage of tutors, valets, coachmen, footmen, and painters to copy monuments, statues, and landscapes. These people travelled by ship or stagecoach, and on horseback. The Grand Tour became very popular and at its peak in the eighteenth century, many British citizens were travelling on the Continent, as well as a few Americans, including Thomas Jefferson. Being on the journey to Italy and the Alps became the foundation for Switzerland's development of tourism and of nature tourism in general.

Nickerson (1996:9) states that the history is as old as the human race itself. The author reiterates that some of the people travelled because they needed to find themselves food. It is further said that, in the Roman Empire, those who were wealthy would easily travel using horses while those with low social status stayed in not more than one location. Trade boosted the travel industry and many people became interested in travelling to new and unknown places. It is only in the last few years that travel has expanded to everyone that has the ability and wants to travel.

According to Nickerson (1996:9), it is important when one travels to a particular country to ensure that the political system of such country is totally stable. If the country is not politically stable, there are possibilities for a decline in terms of the number of tourists travelling to that particular country and neighbouring countries. In countries where constant military conflicts prevail, travel tends to decline and then increase in other areas which are free of conflicts and political unrests. This could

somehow affect the economy of the host country if these unrests are persistent. This highlights the importance of safety and security in a travel environment.

According to Nickerson (1996:9-10), air travel changed relationships of people internationally, many people manage to experience other people's cultures, share ways of life in their different countries and (good or bad) become similar. In addition to the life and cultural experiences, the economy also can be either negatively or positively affected. It is said that economics is a key word in the tourism industry and this is more visible during recessions, when people are less likely to purchase certain products such as holiday homes, recreational vehicles or book trips to other countries. It is further said that, domestic travel tends to be more prevalent during recession because tourists tend to travel to places not too far from their homes, which is specifically evident for domestic tourists.

Growth in tourism, however, has also led to increased opportunities for incidents of crime. A long-established relationship exists between increases in crime and tourism; major economic crimes (for example robbery, burglary) in some highly popular tourism destinations. This is due to the fact that tourists are lucrative targets, they are more likely to be relaxed and off guard and sometimes careless while on vacation. And finally, tourists are often less likely to report crimes or to testify against suspects, wishing to avoid problems of a return trip (Glensor & Peak 2004:2). The growth of tourism is evident but this has not happened without negative impacts. The following section discusses the classification of tourism.

### **2.2.3 Classification of tourism**

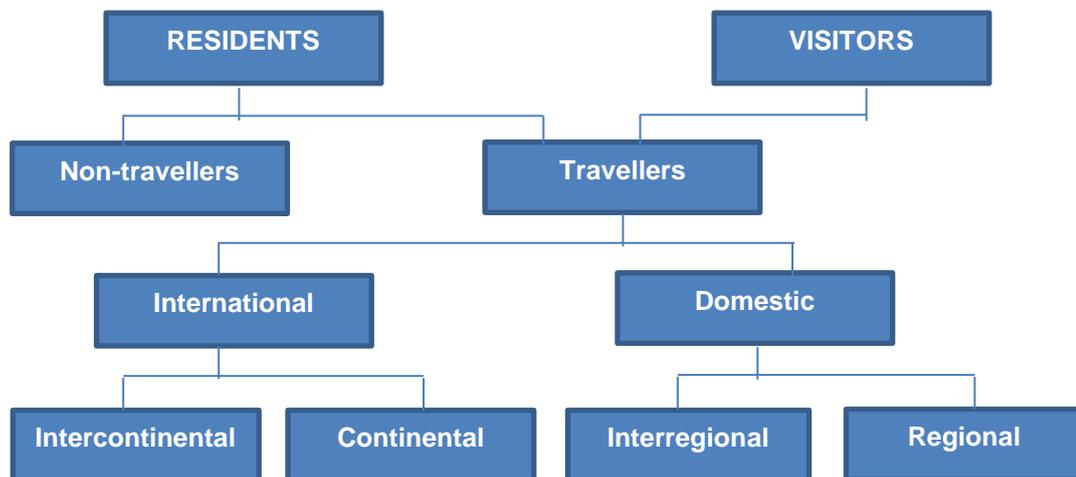
Tourism is a composite of activities – services and industries that deliver a travel experience, namely transportation, accommodation, restaurants, shops, entertainment, activity facilities and other hospitality-related services available to individuals or groups that are travelling away from home. It comprises all the activities relating to travel, hotels, transportation and all other components including promotion that serves the needs and wants of travellers. In conclusion, it is thus the total of tourist expenditures and experiences within the geographical boundaries of a nation or a political sub-division or transportation-centred economic area of continuous states or nations (Raina & Agarwal 2004:10).

Raina and Agarwal (2004:9) and Lumsdon (1997:6) classified tourism as follows:

- Domestic Tourism: involving residents (visiting) of a country visiting their own country.
- Inbound Tourism: Involving 'non-residents' visiting a country other than their own.
- Outbound Tourism: Involving 'residents of a country visiting other countries.

These three basic forms of tourism can in turn be combined to derive the following categories of tourism:

- *Internal Tourism*: This comprises domestic tourism and outbound tourism.
- *National Tourism*: This comprises domestic tourism and outbound tourism.
- *International Tourism*: This comprises inbound and outbound tourism.



**Figure 2.1: Classification of tourists**

Source: Adapted from Chadwick (1994)

It is clear from Figure 2.1 that residents form an important part of the tourism industry and can travel inter-regionally or regionally. Domestic tourists can contribute to the growth and expansion of the tourism industry and it is thus important that they feel safe to travel.

### **2.3 UNDERSTANDING TOURIST BEHAVIOUR**

Page (2007:78-79) stated that consumer (tourist) behaviour concerns the way tourists as purchasers of products and services behave in terms of spending and their attitudes and values towards what they buy. Hough and Hassanien (2010:55) see travel behaviour as a special form of consumption in that consumers pay for intangible products that are consumed at the production site. Minghui (2007:16)

states that travel behaviour includes the travel process, factors influencing the travel demand, planning, motivation, perceptions concerning the destination of choice, expectations and satisfaction and the overall travel expenditure.

Pearce (2005:6) emphasises that tourist behaviour matters to tourists and the people making decisions about tourists. Firstly, tourists' behaviour tends to matter to tourists. People are concerned with their life experience and they should understand themselves what they do. These tourists want to maximise their own experience, be it a brief regional visit or an extended international holiday. Secondly, tourist behaviour matters to those that are making decisions about tourists. There are a number of such decision makers such as public employees, tourism product owners and tour operators, for example.

It is important to understand why and how consumers make decisions. It is also important to understand the process consumers go through when they decide to buy a tourism offering. Cronin, Brady and Hult (2000:193) as well as Tian-Cole, Crompton and Willson (2002:1) have identified quality, perceived value and satisfaction as antecedents of tourist travel behaviour.

Lo Pez-bonilla and Lo Pez-bonilla (2009:68) stated that tourist behaviour has significantly changed in recent years. There is a tendency towards individualism due to the development of new technology. Travel behaviour is thus a complex process and tourists can affect, or be affected by, internal and environmental factors which influence travel behaviour.

Tourist behaviour and decision making is unique and differs from traditional product purchasing (George 2008:187). Firstly, the tourist is not able to physically evaluate and inspect his/her purchase prior to buying the experience. It is therefore more important that these potential visitors search for information to ease the decision. Secondly, holiday expenditure is substantial, which highlights the importance of making the right decisions. Thirdly, these purchases are planned well in advance. Fourthly, the product is utilised on-site (George 2008:188) and one cannot give the product back if the experience was poor. It is thus clear that the potential visitor has to make sure that the product fits his/her/their needs. The travel decision-making process will be discussed in the next section.

### 2.3.1 Travel decision-making

Decrop and Snelders (2005:123) describe tourist decision making as a mental orientation characterising a consumer's approach to making choices, and they consider it a basic aspect of the consumer's personality. Smallman and Moore (2010:3) state that the decision-making process experienced by a tourist involves many sub-decisions, and these usually take place prior to deciding "where to go" through to "what to do and beyond".

Bennett *et al.* (2005:64) noted that before motives of tourists for purchasing specific offering can be evaluated, certain aspects of behaviour should be taken into account. This process is more complicated than when purchasing fast-moving goods. These complexities are outlined as follows:

- High involvement in purchase and high consumer commitment

The nature of tourism products/service compels consumers to be fully committed and involved when purchasing a tourism product. It is also common that before any purchase is made consumers will somehow apply different approaches and have few options before taking the actual decision on the product to be purchased.

- High levels of insecurity linked to intangibility

When it comes to intangible products in the tourism industry and other business industries, most consumers tend to be hesitant during the purchase processes. Consumers often apply different approaches to satisfy themselves by involving as many agencies including word-of-mouth as reassurance of the product to be purchased. To many consumers in all economic sectors, value for money means fulfilment of physical, psychological and emotional needs.

- Considerable emotional significance

Consumers often make decisions to indulge in short and long holidays in their local amenities, regional attractions, national key points and international destinations for some emotional purposes. Tourists always express themselves as being at the particular destination just to be in a different atmosphere and to be away from everyday routine. It is also important that when a decision is made for a holiday destination, family members need to be consulted to ensure that nothing will affect them emotionally when visiting a particular destination.

- Strongly influenced by other people

Family, friends and other people are likely to influence individuals during the decision-making process. Due to their previous experiences, some people may make negative remarks regarding a particular holiday destination.

- Long-term decision

Most holidaymakers often make travel decisions well in advance. This will somehow lead the consumer to have mixed feelings between making the purchase and actually taking the trip.

- High level of information search

It is up to the consumer to do an extensive information search from individuals, groups and media reports before the final decision is made. This will assist the consumer in considering the emotional significance of a tourism experience.

According to Johnson and Thomas (1993:16), the actual process of decision making encompasses a behavioural process whereby travellers only have little knowledge to acquire or achieve a positive outcome to meet their needs and wants. This process differs from the one used to measure economic dynamics where the decision maker actually knows precisely what the outcome will be.

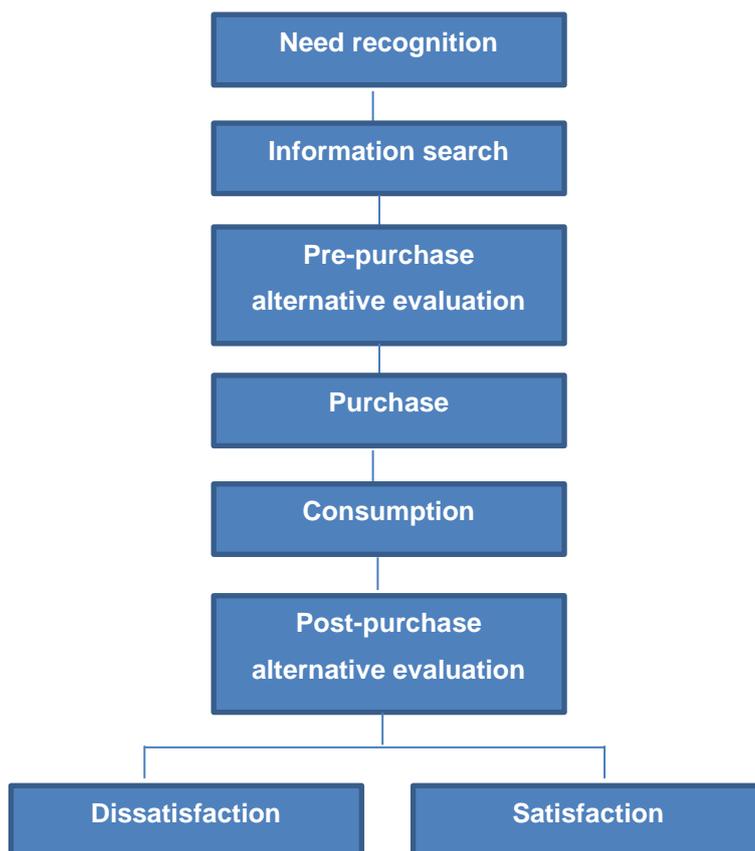
### **2.3.1.1 Travel decision-making process by George**

The travel decision-making process as presented by George (2008:199) (see Figure 2.2) consists of seven stages. It is based on the assumption that consumers move through a process before and after purchasing a tourism product.

#### ***Stage 1: Need recognition***

During stage one the consumer becomes aware of a desire for a holiday and it is then evaluated against aspects such as time and money. George (2008:199) also calls this the dream phase as the consumer is excited about the possibility of a break. The consumer might become aware of the need by him/herself or be motivated and reminded by marketing material. Information searches are starting, word-of-mouth recommendations are heard and travel sites are reviewed, to mention only a few.





**Figure 2.2: Tourist decision-making process**

Source: George (2008:199)

**Stage 2: Information search**

The consumer now searches for information in a more formal manner. This is normally a lengthy process as there are many options available to serve the same needs but at a different price. This might include the sources mentioned above as well as travel agents, travel channels, guide books and other Internet sources. There is also a trend towards online-bookings. With the information gathered the consumer assesses the options and the benefits to make the decision.

**Stage 3: Pre-purchase evaluation of alternatives**

During stage three the collected information is evaluated against the costs of alternative trips. Consumers take into account aspects such as price, convenience, travel distance, the weather, season, health and safety issues.

**Stage 4: Purchase**

The choice is made and the mode of transport, type of accommodation and activities are selected. The bookings are made; this is usually done well in advance.

### ***Stage 5: Consumption***

The consumer is now visiting the destination and experiencing the anticipated holiday. At this stage the consumer will also book additional activities and amenities as required.

### ***Stage 6: Post-purchase evaluation of alternatives***

This is a very important stage in the travel decision-making process since the consumers use the information from the experience and evaluate it against the information received. George (2008:202) stated that this stage is many a time underestimated.

### ***Stage 7: Holiday satisfaction or dissatisfaction***

The consumers will spread positive word-of-mouth messages if their experiences were good and satisfying. However, if the experience did not meet the consumer's expectations the probability of a repeat purchase will be low. The first-time consumer consumes on a trial basis and if satisfied he/she might return.

The importance of safety and security is already noted in stage three of this travel decision-making process which highlights the importance of providing a stable and secure environment to potential visitors.

## **2.3.1.2 Travel decision-making process by Mynhardt (2005)**

Mynhardt (2005:94) stated that the travel decision-making process involves six steps and these steps will now be dealt with below:

### ***Step 1: Awareness and need recognition***

The first step in this process is awareness of a need. The consumer wants to buy a specific product to satisfy a specific need. Marketers need to stimulate need recognition in order to increase sales in this competitive environment. Since the world is now on everyone's doorstep, technology plays an important role in stimulating need recognition. What one sees might create a desire to visit, especially as the consumer becomes exposed to more information.

**Step 2: Information gathering**

The consumer will gather more information as interest and awareness are created. The information is processed by the consumer and should focus on benefits and what the destination offers.

**Step 3: Evaluation**

In step three it is important to evaluate the attributes and benefits of alternatives. The criteria might be product based including aspects such as cost, quality, aesthetic qualities or psychological based including satisfaction and social needs, satisfaction of ego needs and image of the product/country.

**Step 4: Decision-making**

Decision making is a mental process and difficult to measure. Holiday decisions are difficult to make and choices regarding payment, value for money and so on are at stake. After the final decision the actual purchase follows.

**Step 5: Post-purchase evaluation**

Step 5 is very important for future marketing sales potential. A feeling of dissatisfaction is experienced when an individual perceives a great negative difference between the desired and anticipated state of affairs and the actual state of affairs. The satisfied consumer might be a good ambassador for the organisation and is likely to return (Mynhardt 2005:96).

**2.3.1.3 The consumer decision-making process by Morgan (1996 cited by Middleton, Fyall & Mogan 2009)**

One of the most widely used models for the consumer-decision process forms the acronym PIECE: problem recognition, information search, evaluation of alternatives, choice of purchase and evaluation of post-purchase experience.

**Stage 1: Problem recognition**

In this stage the consumer become aware that a holiday is the best solution for tensions; therefore a desire is created.

**Stage 2: Information search**

Once the need is recognised the consumer gathers information through formal and informal sources. This might include family and friends or previous channels already used. Domestic tourists base their decisions on weekend press or magazines. Information regarding safety and security incidents will also become known to consumers and it might influence their travel choices.

**Stage 3: Evaluation of alternatives**

Once the information is gathered the consumer evaluates the alternatives. The features of the holiday are analysed against a mental list of attributes. The customer needs to have confidence in the product and what it offers. If the customer does not have confidence in a new product he/she might choose a more well-known brand and product.

**Stage 4: Choice of purchase**

After the choice of purchase has been made it is important to remain the preferred choice by promptly providing required information or even providing additional information.

**Stage 5: Evaluation of post-purchase experience**

The actual experience of consumption will strongly affect future attitudes towards a product. The customer will associate the product with positive emotions if the expectations are exceeded. However, if the experience is disappointing, the opposite will occur and the customer might not buy the product again. It is important at this stage (Middleton et al. 2009:89) to create a relationship with the customer where the decision process is not leading to a once-off transaction but a more continuous process.

It can thus be concluded that travel decision making includes the following main elements:

- There is a dynamic, changing environment which influences individual needs, aspirations and desires;
- Motivation which emanates from these needs and desires is very important (to be discussed in the subsequent section);
- The decision-making process starts with the collection of information and concludes with the assessment of the travelling experience.

### 2.3.2 Motivation to travel

Motivations are referred to as the reasons why people become tourists, in other terms, those internal factors within an individual expressed as needs, wants and desires. Possibly the most important and difficult to understand is the questions of why people consume the things they do (McCabe 2009:94) and this directly relates to motives. Understanding tourist motivation is important for two main reasons:

- Planning considerations: destinations require some form of planning and management and control of negative impacts.
- Economic considerations: growth and development of the tourism industry are dependent on understanding consumer behaviour (Page & Connell 2009:75).

Motivation is described by George (2011:559) as something that prompts a person to take action and makes the person want to reach a goal. Bennett *et al.* (2005:68) defined motivation as “the psychological stimuli, which move or activate individuals to act in a particular way”. Bennett *et al.* (2005:68) noted that despite several difficulties, researchers have attempted to define and describe the motivation for travel and systematically link them to different patterns of travelling. There are three (3) dimensions of the concept in the context of travel:

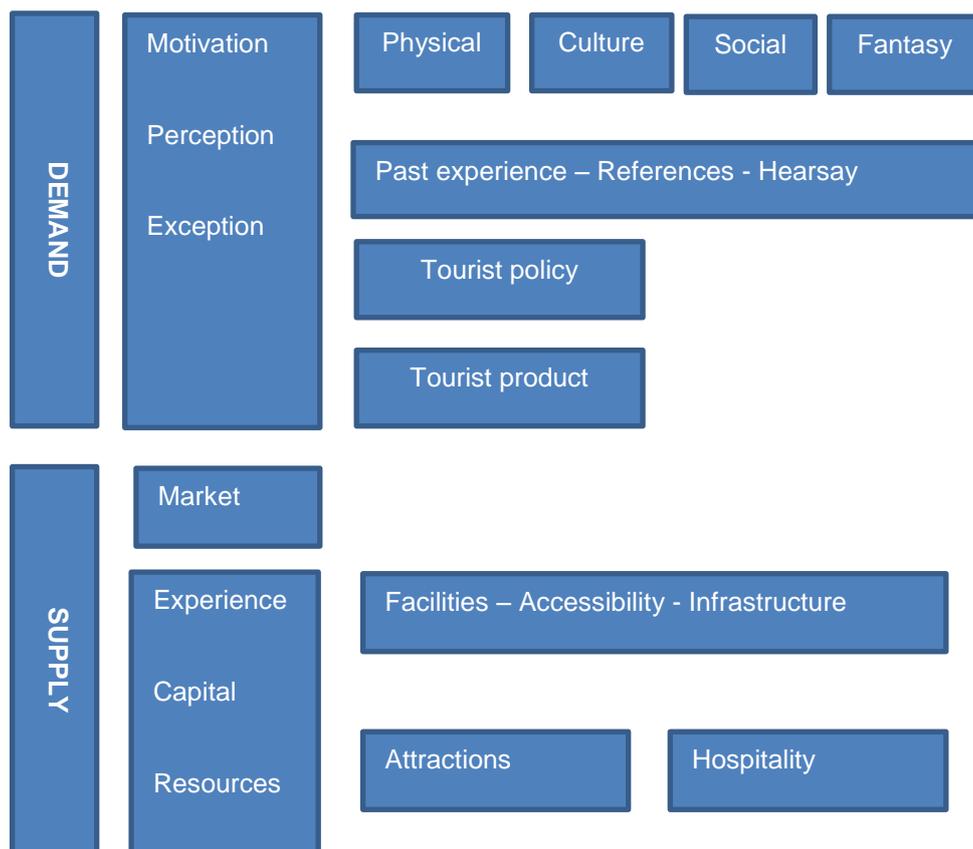
- Travel is need related; it acts as a motivational energiser of action.
- Motivation is grounded in sociological and psychological norms, attitudes, culture and perceptions.
- The image of a destination is created through several communication methods and channels which will influence motivation and subsequently affect the type of travel undertaken.

The behavioural characteristics of tourists (motivations, attitudes, needs and values) all come together in a complex way to influence travel decisions. The following are the main motivational categories according to Murphy (1989:10).

- Physical motivations: refers to the physical well-being of tourists themselves in terms of their health, refreshment, a particular sport preferred by tourists and pleasure desires of many travellers.
- Cultural motivations: refers to desire to know about other (foreign) people and new destinations and interest to take part in international events such as the famous Oktoberfest in Munich.

- Personal motivations: refers to a need to undertake long-haul trips with your partner for romance, to visit friends and relatives and to travel for spiritual experience and desire for change.
- Prestige and Status motivations: refers to class and categories of tourists in terms of what they most like and associate themselves with. These categories include hobbies such as flying or sailing, education and conferences (Murphy 1989:10).

The demand and supply factors in the tourism market are combined into a single model as illustrated graphically in Figure 2.3. This diagram indicates that travel motivators play a very important role in tourism since the two form the basis of tourism demand. It is also important to realise that there are several types of tourists as well as motives for travel. Each type has its own impact and places different demands on a destination.



**Figure 2.3: Components of the tourist market**

Source: Murphy (1989)

Some motives of travel include: culture/heritage, sport, events, food and wine, visiting friends and relatives, business travel, religious, health-related and educational (Page & Connell 2009:81). Maslow (1943) is acknowledged as the best known for work on motivation. He stated that individual needs fall into five broad categories, namely physiological needs, safety needs, belonging and love, esteem needs and self-actualization needs. Lower order needs have to be satisfied in order to proceed to higher order needs.

Dann (1977) developed the push and pull factors where the satisfaction of these needs may ultimately lead to the purchase of a holiday. Push factors are those that propel the desire to travel and pull factors are those that influence which destination is selected. Various studies have been conducted with regard to push and pull factors in the tourism environment. Travel motivation, however, changes over time and tourists may have several motivations to travel.

Thus, Pearce (2005) developed the travel career ladder where individuals start out at different levels and are likely to change levels as they progress through different lifecycle stages. The travel career pattern concept can be explained as three layers of travel motivation:

- The core motives: these are the most important ones such as pursuit of novelty, escape and relaxation.
- A layer surrounding the core: moderate travel motivations exist at this level such as self-actualization.
- An outer layer refers to the less stable motives which are less important, such as nostalgia and the pursuit of isolation (Page & Connell 2009:85).

### **2.3.3 Factors influencing travel decisions**

Various factors need to be considered when a person is motivated to take a holiday or travel to a desired destination. Factors such as where, who, when, what and how are considered when making a decision to visit a certain desired destination. It is important, before a tourist makes a decision, to know where exactly his/her desired destination is and who wants to travel with him/her. Date and time is also an important factor to be considered before making a decision; this is to avoid disappointments of unavailability of accommodation, transport and unfavourable weather patterns. As a person arrives at the destination, what are the activities suitable at that particular destination? Finally, how to get there should also be

considered, taking into account financial implications and availability of transport and the correct mode of transport to reach the desired destination.

Following are the factors that have an effect on individual and/or group motivation and travel decision making:

- **Influence of age**

Bennett *et al.* (2005:71) argues that, in most cases age is one of the factors that influences all activities in which tourists participate in, with George (2008:189) stating that age is a powerful factor influencing behaviour in tourism. Young tourists will most of the time resort to adventurous activities and visit completely new places. Other travellers prefer quiet and reserved places with fewer activities. Page and Connell (2009:87) stated that there are many inequalities in terms of age and tourism. Income inhibits young and older people to participate in tourism. In some cases it is the younger tourists that fall victim to crime due to the intake of too much alcohol.

- **Influence of culture and race**

These are factors shared by a particular society from generation to generation, normally classified as norms, values, beliefs behaviour and attitude of a particular tribe or group (Bennett *et al.* 2005:70). According to Kim and Prideaux (2005:348), cultural background of tourists has an excessive impact on the motivations behind tourist behaviour. It is further said that cultural factors can be segmented into two levels, namely national level and individual level. The national level consists of shared values such as belief in politics and the national economic system (for example socialism or capitalism) which are not necessarily relevant to neither the ethnic groups nor the religious groups of a nation. This can somehow be confusing when tourism agencies are targeting international tourists without knowledge of their background (Bennett *et al.* 2005:70).

- **Influence of family lifecycle**

The family lifecycle groups people by selected demographic characteristics. The stages of the family lifecycle have been changed and more recently a European/North American model outlined eight stages as can be seen in Table 2.1 below.



**Table 2.1: The family lifecycle**

STAGE	CHARACTERISTICS	TOURISM BEHAVIOUR
<b>Early childhood</b>	Entirely dependent on parent or guardian. Classic sea and sand holidays	Seeking seaside or inland resort with entertainment facilities for children
<b>Early teenager</b>	More influence on decision-making process but still dependent on parent	Resort-based holidays with nightlife. Group-based holidays
<b>Young person</b>	Young, single, not living at home	Holiday-taking dependent on time and resources; therefore wide ranging
<b>Partnership stage</b>	Couples living together with busier lifestyles	Wide ranging, more short breaks to fit in with dual careers
<b>Family stage – early</b>	Includes single parent or separated partners. Financial and school constraints are key factors	Key interest in main holidays or visiting friends and family
<b>Family stage – late</b>	Still major constraints regarding educations. Holiday-taking patterns breaking up	Mix of holidays and children seeking semi-independence
<b>Empty nest</b>	Children leave home and parent or parents have increased freedom and spending power	Wide-ranging but higher prosperity to take more expensive explorer holidays
<b>Retired</b>	One person or partners retired, income fixed but time available	Continued search for quality but as age increases seeking more passive holidays

*Source: Lumsdon (1997)*

The family life cycle is thus one of the contributing factors when travel decisions are made. As soon as a family expands through an additional member, travel patterns are likely to change as the focus will now be diverted to the newly born. The financial aspects of the family will also take another direction and trips taken by family will be minimised. These authors further state that couples without children are always in possession of disposable income and travel frequently. As soon as the

children grow and move out of their parents' home, such parents begin to have more income available and are able to afford expensive travel products. While older people prefer group tours due to security concerns and they feel more comfortable in the company of other people (Bennett *et al.* 2005:71; Page & Connell 2009:88-89).

- **Influence of gender**

According to Page and Connell (2009:89), no significant number of studies exists on gender to determine its influence on travel decision making. However, it has been found that women are more delicate and seek more security when travelling (Minghui 2007:42). Women travellers are thus more concerned about security issues. Pearce (2005:37) stated that many of the security and safety concerns apply to both genders. Men as business travellers prefer their privacy to be treated with respect.

- **Influence of personality and self-image**

An individual's personality influences his/her travel behaviour. The individual might be sociable, or a loner or maybe adventurous and this will affect the type of holiday chosen. Backpacking hostels are sociable environments since youth travellers enjoy such a sociable environment and this might influence their choice. This goes together with self-image where a person that perceives him/herself as an introvert will not book a group tour (George 2008:191).

- **Influence of education levels and occupation**

Bennett *et al.* (2005:72) pointed out that level of education tends to broaden tourists interests and therefore encourages people to travel. It is further said by the authors that the higher the school qualification the more pleasure trips are undertaken than by those with less qualifications. Education is also said to be closely related to income and occupation; thus the higher the level of education, the higher the income; therefore an increased demand for travel. For most educated citizens business travel seems to be their preferred activity as the majority of this market hold senior management positions.

- **Influence of income and social class**

Lumsdon (1997:42) indicated that social class can be considered to be one of the most important "factors assessed primarily by occupation and level of income".

According to Bennett *et al.* (2005:72), people in high social classes always embark on extensive travel more than people of lower social class levels with less income. George (2008:195) stated that consumers purchase products and services that can assist in expressing their status. A typical class structure entails an upper, middle and lower class.

- **Influence of reference groups**

A reference group is a group of people that influence an individual's buying behaviour and people make decisions based on these groups (George 2008:196). These are groups that convey information to consumers informally; they include family, friends and the groups of people with whom they interact at work and socially (Middleton & Clarke 2001:77).

- **Perceptions of safety and security**

George (2008:53) stated that South Africa has been labelled the crime capital of the world which has tarnished South Africa's image as a holiday destination. The media attention given to tourism-related crimes deter people from visiting that specific destination. Marketers should promote safety and security at their establishments without frightening customers. Crime is considered a constraint in the travel decision-making process (Donaldson & Ferreira 2007).

## **2.4 THE IMPORTANCE AND GROWTH OF THE DOMESTIC TOURISM MARKET IN SOUTH AFRICA**

### **2.4.1 Understanding the importance of the domestic market**

The domestic market in South Africa was also affected by the financial crisis with 48% of the South African adult population that travelled in 2009. Approximately 15 million domestic tourists took an average of 2.1 domestic trips in 2009, which means that more South Africans travelled, but took fewer trips (National Tourism Sector Strategy 2010:7). A total of 13,9 million South Africans took a domestic trip in 2011, 3% more than the 13,5 million that took a domestic trip in 2010. On average, 1.9 domestic trips were taken in 2011 resulting in a total of 26,4 million domestic trips, compared to the 29,7 million in 2010 (South African Tourism 2011:8).

Holiday trips accounted for 15% of all domestic trips in 2011, business trips 5%, religious trips 6% and medical trips 1%. While there was an overall decline in the

number of domestic trips in 2011, the share of holiday trips increased from 13% in 2010 to 15% in 2011 (South African Tourism 2011:8).

In most successful tourism destinations around the world the domestic market forms the backbone of the tourism industry. This should be developed in South Africa. The 2009 domestic tourism survey indicates that domestic tourism contributed R22.4 billion to the country's economy. Domestic tourism is very seasonal with most of the travel occurring during summer school holidays. Domestic tourists also visit more provinces than international tourists. Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal continue to be the main source markets for domestic tourism generating 59% of all domestic tourism trips taken in 2011. However, it is also true that most South Africans, mainly black Africans, do not have a travel culture due to the political history of the country, and South African Tourism's approach is to create a culture of travel, focusing on the young and upcoming residents (NTSS 2010:25).

Those that did not take a domestic tourism trip in 2011 cited economic constraints as the major barrier which has grown compared to previous years. No reason to travel was the second highest mention for people not travelling in 2011. Over 115 million nights were spent by domestic tourists in 2011, representing an 11.9% decrease from the 130,8 million recorded in 2010 (South African Tourism 2011:160). 49% of all trips were undertaken by people travelling alone. There was an increase in proportion of people travelling with family and friends in 2011. Domestic tourists engage mostly in unpaid activities, such as social activities associated with VFR (visiting friends and relatives) travel. Apart from shopping, a small number of domestic tourists engage in income-generating activities for the tourism sector.

Crime is highlighted in the NTSS (National Tourism Sector Strategy) as a strategy risk factor among international or national terrorism, natural disasters, political unrest, global economic downturn and global current exchange rates (NTSS 2010:48). The capacity or lack thereof to decrease crime levels may brand South Africa as an unsafe destination.

Minister Van Schalkwyk launched the new domestic tourism campaign during September 2013, which is directed at growing the number of domestic travellers in South Africa. *Nothing's More Fun than a Sho't Left* brings the fun back to travel. It reminds South Africans that taking a holiday, even for a night or two, gives benefits

that endure: great memories, quality time with loved ones, well-deserved escapes from dull routine, and a chance to experience new places, new people and new things (National Department of Tourism 2013).

The Domestic Tourism Survey conducted by Stats SA aimed at collecting statistics on the travel behaviour and expenditure of South African residents travelling in South Africa. The following results were found (STATS SA 2013):

- *Main destination visited for day trips:* Gauteng was the most frequently visited province on day trips with 23,9% in 2010 and 24,9% in 2011, whereas the Northern Cape was the least visited with 3,3% in 2010 and 2,4% in 2011.
- *Overnight trips:* KwaZulu-Natal had the highest proportion of overnight trips with 21,3% in 2010 and 20,3% in 2011, while the Northern Cape remained the least visited destination with 2,7% in 2010 and 2,3% in 2011.
- *Reasons for taking trips:* Visiting friends and family/relatives (VFR) was the main reason for taking day and overnight trips. Shopping for personal use on day trips (24,0%) in 2010 and 25,1% in 2011, and for overnight trips it was leisure/holidays (22,2%) in 2010 and 20,8% in 2011. Eating out at restaurants and cafes was a very popular activity on both day and overnight trips in 2010 and 2011.
- *Modes of transport:* The two most frequently used modes of transport for domestic tourism were cars and taxis; with the use of cars being more dominant – from 44,1% in 2010 to 45,2% in 2011. A slight decrease was observed in the overnight trips made by taxis from 38,9% in 2010 to 38,1% in 2011.

Tourism is regarded as a modern-day engine of growth and is one of the largest industries globally. Domestic tourism is also a crucial source of governmental revenue and contributing employment of the host community. Domestic tourism can also assist in combining most economic stakeholders for the betterment of the host community. Tourism has multiplier effects and this can significantly improve the lives of the host community due to the improved infrastructure, amenities, new tourist attractions and rebuild of historical sites and museums. The host community will also get to exchange cultural experiences and way of living with tourists.

## 2.4.2 The impacts of tourism on the host community

Tourism has three major impacts on the host community with reference to the socio-cultural impacts, the economic impacts and the environmental impacts. The tourism industry will always be influenced by impacts, be it negative or positive. These social impacts can emanate from the host community (potential domestic market) or tourists themselves and affect both the community and tourists.

- **Socio-cultural impacts**

The socio-cultural impact of tourism refers to the changes in value systems, norms, beliefs, perceptions, morals and the conduct or behaviour and any impacts that potentially have an impact on the quality of life of local residents (this can be positive or negative).

Tourism can have the following positive socio-cultural impacts:

- Maintenance of public facilities (Gursoy, Kim & Uysal 2004; Sheridan 2005)
- Increase the range of activities available (Kreag 2006)
- Lead to higher levels of participation in community activities (Dimmock & Tiyce 2001; Saayman 2000)
- Increase the pride of residents (Small *et al.* 2005)
- Provide opportunities to meet new people (Fredline & Faulkner 2000).

Tourism can have the following negative socio-cultural impacts:

- Lead to drinking and drug use (Gursoy *et al.* 2004)
- Crime (Fredline & Faulkner 2000)
- An increase in noise levels (Small *et al.* 2005)
- Disruption of the lives of local residents (Small *et al.* 2005)
- Locals work in the tourism industry in low-key positions (Mthembu 2008:56).

- **Economic impacts of tourism on the host community**

Economic impact also refers to the flow of money through the economy of the destination in terms of the quantity of money introduced and the directions in which it flows (Fredline *et al.* 2004:7). Page and Connell (2006:348) state that as tourism stimulates economic activity in a destination, it is likely that the overall economic status of a country will be enhanced.

According to Raina and Agarwal (2004:243), tourism has been traditionally viewed as a great influence to promote understanding within nations and the national boundaries, facilitating emotional boundaries. In contrast, the importance of economics of tourism is too diverse and integrated to be fully understood. The economic contribution of tourists is visible by identifying three most important components: (1) number of tourists, (2) length of stay and (3) average expenditure and how tourism expenditure changes over time. During the 20<sup>th</sup> century, tourism was accepted as an important instrument for economic development and growth. The economic impacts and benefits of tourism on regional, national and international economy are of far-reaching importance both in magnitude and direction due to the vertical and horizontal expansion of the market.

Tourism can have the following positive economic impacts:

- Export earnings (Raina & Agarwal 2004:244).
- Generation of tax revenues through levies (Raina & Agarwal 2004:264).
- Provide employment opportunities (Saayman 2007; Goeldner & Ritchie 2003; Raina & Agarwal 2004:257).
- Opportunities for local businesses (Goeldner & Ritchie 2003; Saayman 2007).
- Money spent by tourists stimulate the economy (Saayman 2007).
- Infrastructure investment and development (Small *et al.* 2005).

Tourism can have the following negative economic impacts:

- The overall cost of living is increasing (Goeldner & Ritchie 2003).
- The cost of construction is increasing (Goeldner & Ritchie 2003).
- Tourism development often creates inflationary effects on local economies (Page & Connell 2006:350).
- Opportunity costs relate to the time, efforts and money of developing tourism at the expense of other activities or areas of investment (Page & Connell 2006:350).
- Economic dependency on the tourism industry (Page & Connell 2006:350).
- Foreign exchange generated by tourism activity may not necessarily benefit the destination or the host country.

- **Environmental impacts of tourism**

Nickerson (1996:70) states that, in an attractive environment, whether natural, artificial, or a combination, there is a pull for tourism. Fuggle and Rabie (1996:84) see it as a concept which embraces a multitude of elements, including the following:

- Natural environment - which refers to the natural world in its pure state, specifically referring to renewable and non-renewable natural resources such as air, water, soil, plants and animals.
- Spatial environment - which is man-made and natural areas such as suburb, town, city, region, province, country, as well as certain specific landscapes, for instance mountains, wetlands, rivers, seashores and forests.

Raina and Agarwal (2004:342) assert that there are some imbalances in terms of interaction between tourism and environment. It is further said that the tourism industry contributes largely on the continuous impact of natural environment and little has been done to curb this damage to the environment. The distress is inevitable as some major parts of tourism depend on nature: water sports, forests, wildlife, deserts, beaches and mountains. The figure on the next page illustrates precisely the impacts of tourism on the natural environment.

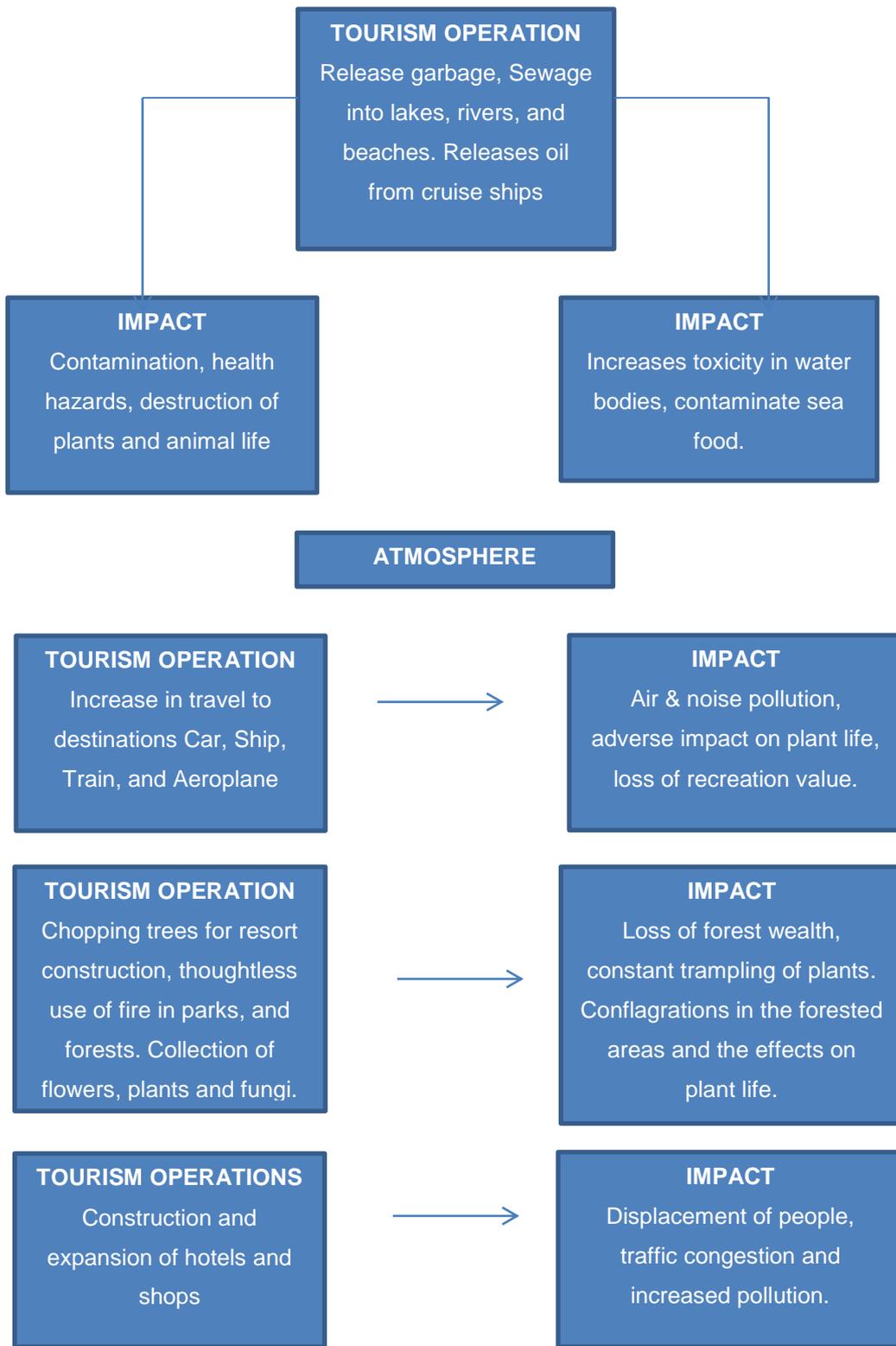
Tourism can have the following positive environmental impacts:

- Improvement of the appearance of the area (Saayman 2009).
- Conservation of redundant and/or historic buildings for alternative use.
- Protection of wildlife (Myburgh & Saayman 2002).

Tourism can have the following negative environmental impacts:

- Inappropriate development (Page & Connell 2006:379).
- Loss of natural habitat and effects on wildlife (Getz 2007).
- Pollution (Fredline *et al.* 2004).
- Overcrowding and traffic congestion (Gursoy *et al.* 2007).
- Sewage problems (Myburgh & Saayman 2002).





**Figure 2.4: The impacts of tourism on the environment**

Source: Raina and Agarwal (2004:342)

## 2.5 CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this chapter was to provide an overview of the development of the tourism industry and the importance of tourists in growing the industry through the decisions they make. This was firstly realised by discussing the tourism industry which is unique due to characteristics such as being fragmented and a highly price- and income-elastic product. It was clear that tourism is multifaceted and involves a number of stakeholders such as local businesses, tourists, host governments and host communities. The discussion on the historical development of tourism indicates that tourism is as old as mankind itself but that this industry has grown tremendously in the past decade. Tourism can be classified as domestic tourism, inbound tourism and outbound tourism, and residents form part of the domestic tourism market. It is important to understand tourist behaviour as that will further guide the development of the industry. Travel behaviour includes the travel process as well as the factors influencing the travel demand.

Various authors have developed a travel decision-making process and it was evident from these processes that potential tourists are influenced by a number of factors in their travel decisions. Since travel decisions are time and capital intensive it is important for the tourist to make the right decision and get value for money. Safety and security play a definite role in the travel decision-making process, and from the literature analyses it seems that very little research has been done on the direct influence of crime on travel decisions, especially for the South African domestic market. It was also evident that travel motivations play an important role in travel behaviour, and travel decisions and various perspectives were analysed in this regard. The factors that influence travel decisions include: age, culture and race, family lifecycle, gender, personality and self-image, education levels and occupation, income and social class, reference groups and perceptions of safety and security. Potential visitors are thus not influenced by one single factor but a combination of the above.

The domestic market in South Africa is attracting attention and the National Department of Tourism is creating opportunities for travel and awareness that would encourage South Africans to travel more. Between 48 and 50% of South Africans travel annually and this is due to lack of opportunities in the past and therefore a lack of travel culture. The growth of this market is in some cases down and where growth is experienced it is very small. However, initiatives such as Sho't Left create

awareness among South African residents. It was also evident that South Africans have not been surveyed regarding their perceptions of crime and its influence on their travel behaviour.

It was also evident that tourism holds various positive and negative impacts for the host community and it is thus important that these residents participate in this exciting industry – even on a small scale.

# **CHAPTER 3**

## **THE IMPORTANCE AND CONTEXT OF SAFETY & SECURITY IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

No one will visit a place which is perceived to be dangerous and the same applies concerning tourists (Jones *et al.* 1998:14). Tourists are concerned about their personal safety and the security of their possessions. Safety is regarded as important and it can influence a tourist's decision about which town, city, region or country to visit. Political events, military action, crime and terrorism always disrupt international travel. It is further said that if violence of some kind erupts in a particular country where tourists were planning to go, such tourists will most likely go somewhere else.

Pizam and Mansfeld (2006:46) stated that travellers and tourists, for the most part, will seek out places where there is a sense of security and safety. Although there is a small minority of travellers that seek out the dangerous locations, most visitors want to know what the industry is doing to protect them, and how well prepared a local industry is in case a security or safety issue should occur.

Tourism is thus irrevocably bound up with the concept *security*. Tourist behaviour and destinations are affected by perceptions of security and the management of safety, security and risk. The tourism industry is highly vulnerable to changes in the global security environment and many have a ripple effect to other areas. Providing quality tourism experiences which incorporate principles of safety and security is becoming an overriding objective of all tourism destinations (Donaldson & Ferreira 2009:3). It is therefore the purpose of this chapter to explain the importance and context of safety and security in the tourism industry. The first section focuses on a comprehension of safety and security, specifically in the tourism context.

### **3.2 UNDERSTANDING SAFETY AND SECURITY**

Traditionally, many tourism professionals have avoided addressing issues of tourism safety and security all together. Professionals felt that visitors will wonder whether too much security is visible as this might indicate that they should be afraid and that even speaking about these subjects will frighten customers. Thus, especially in the years prior to 2001, the industry often took the position that the less said about tourism safety and security the better (Tarlow 2001:2).

Security is often seen as protection against a person (site or reputation) that seeks to do harm (Tarlow 2001:3; Pizam & Mansfeld 2006:46). Safety can be defined as protecting people against unintended consequences of an involuntary nature. Arson is considered a security issue while a spontaneous fire at the accommodation establishment is a safety issue. It is evident that a safety and/or security mishap can destroy not only a vacation but also the industry (Tarlow 2001:3; Tarlow 2006:46). Sing and Vij (2006:70) stated that “safety and security in tourism refers to the protection of life, health and the physical, psychological and economic integrity of travellers, tourism staff and people constituting host communities, and includes the consideration of security interests of tourist sending and receiving states and their tourism entrepreneurs and establishment operators”.

It is for this reason that the two concepts have been combined by certain authors into the term “tourism surety”. Tourism surety is the link between safety, security, reputation, and economic viability (Tarlow 2001:3). “Surety” refers to a lowering of the probability that a negative event will occur. Surety does not promise perfection, but rather improvement and takes into account that to live is to risk (Tarlow 2006:46).

It is said that, tourists may unwittingly contribute to the problem of safety and security through excess and dangerous practices in sports and leisure activities, driving, gaming, and drinking – some of which is routine vacation behaviour. These types of behaviour may also contribute to victimization of tourists. Tourist products and attractions lead to crowds of people which provide opportunities for terrorists to commit acts against large numbers of people. Some tourist areas are also popular retirement areas, so the potential for crimes against the elderly increases

significantly (Glensor & Peak 2004:4). This is also evident in the fact that the travelling market is growing older.

Thus crime against tourists can severely impede tourism by damaging a destination or location's image. In order to be successful the tourism industry should portray an image and uphold a reputation of having crime under control and guarantee tourists safety. Furthermore, media coverage of crimes against tourists often tends to be out of proportion to the actual risk, having a profound effect on public perception of safety at particular locations. Although theft is the most common crime against tourists, they are vulnerable to other crimes as well, including physical and sexual assault, card fraud, and scams (for example, being sold "bargain basement" antiques or imitations of watches) (Glensor & Peak 2004:3) to be discussed later in this chapter. It is thus evident that safety and security is a reality and that the tourism industry must deal effectively with issues of safety and security. The so-called travel safety and security package (MacLaurin 2001) includes perception of absence of negative events, and absence of any product or service failure, as well as assurance of an effective solution in case of failure. The next section discusses the influence of poor safety and security levels on the tourism industry.

### **3.3 THE INFLUENCE OF POOR SAFETY AND SECURITY LEVELS ON THE TOURISM INDUSTRY**

The tourism industry depends on the caring and goodwill of tourists. Airlines, destinations, tourism products, all have a clear responsibility to take the necessary and adequate precautions to protect visitors. One of the lessons learned from the Tsunami disasters is how many nations had no idea where their nationals were, how to contact them or even whether they were alive. It is therefore noted that tourism security is as much about developing plans to deal with natural disasters as it is about developing plans to stop human-made disasters (Tarlow 2005:8).

A study done in South Africa showed that the intention of tourists to visit destinations such as Johannesburg and Cape Town is influenced by their perceptions and their knowledge of that destination. This refers to the information-seeking stage in the travel decision-making process. Thus risk perceptions, although situation specific, have an impact on travel behaviour (Roehl & Fesenmaier 1992). The risk associated by potential travellers with a destination can contribute to forming lasting images of that destination and they can also develop a negative impression of the destination.

Such negativity can be very damaging to the destination's tourism industry and can result in the decline of tourism to the area. It is also very difficult to correct a negative image and may take years (Donaldson & Ferreira 2009:4).

According to George (2003:577), this can happen in the following ways:

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

Santana (2003:305) as well as Tasci and Boylu (2010:179) state that peace, safety and security are seen as a priori for the attractiveness, growth and competitiveness of tourism destinations. Destinations cannot successfully compete for certain markets because potential tourists do not want to visit a place where they will feel unsafe. Tourists travel in order to experience travelling attributes and motivations such as relaxation, pleasure, peace, safety, tranquillity, enjoyment and comfort. Therefore, the challenge for every destination is to ensure that all the expectations of a tourist is fulfilled. In reality, however, the main problems are not only that tourists' logical base for feeling fear is often poor, but also, their perception of risk usually has little to do with logic whilst on holiday.

Singh and Vij (2006:70) state that safety and security is one of the major areas of concern of international tourism with the past facts of bad experiences such as kidnapping, rape, theft and terrorist activities at destinations all around the world disturbing international peace and understanding. It is further said that, for the tourism industry, being as sensitive as it is, safety and security at a destination largely affects the decision-making behaviour (Tasci & Boylu 2010:180) of tourists, which is one of the major-reasons for conducting this study. The lack of proper safety and security measures can therefore influence international decline to certain destinations (Alleyne & Boxill 2003:383; Tarlow 2000:139), as well as national decline.

Linked to the above, Gupta (2006:361) states that tourist perceptions play a significant role in the overall success of any tourism destination. While making a

holiday choice tourists have a number of criteria, which vary between purpose, distance, age group and other demographic characteristics (as discussed in Chapter 2) (George 2010:809). However, among all factors affecting the destination choice, safety and security is the leading factor. Even top international tourism organisations and products know that to increase arrivals and to sell more trips they must positively influence perceptions of their product and destinations' safety and security. It is an accepted fact that no matter how wonderful the country's trips, pricing or tourist attractions are, prospective travellers are going to assess their safety and security first. Sonmez (1998:120) reiterates in her research on terrorism and tourism, "the introduction of risk into tourist decision holds the potential of disrupting routine decision making".

According to Holcomb and Pizam (2006:107), tourists make a suitable target because of their look and the items they carry on them. Due to their limited knowledge of an area they roam in areas that residents would consider dangerous. Visitors are also viewed as the "haves" and residents view themselves as the "have-nots," which leads to victimisation. Holcomb and Pizam (2006:107-108) add that law enforcement agents are not always in place since many tourist destinations are not willing to admit that tourist crime is a problem. It is therefore more difficult to deter crime, which can have a negative influence on visitor numbers.

Gupta (2006:366) states that potential tourists and Outbound Tour Operators (OBTO) develop their perception about the safety of a destination, whether or not it is true, from three primary sources:

- What they have read, seen or heard in a newspaper, magazine, television or radio.
- What they have heard from a friend, family or associate.
- What they read or hear about the country, tour company or tourist log on website, in person or on the phone.

The tourist experience is a complex and diverse phenomenon, with a wide range of factors which can impact on the resulting perception and satisfaction of tourists. But it is certainly true that safety and the well-being of the visitor are core elements in the experience. Tourists' health and safety are essentially bound up in the wider tourist experience of the destination but few studies have explicitly discussed the roles and responsibilities of the visitors (to be discussed later in this chapter).



Therefore, those destinations which take tourist well-being seriously coordinate many of the issues and are able to deal with incidents quickly and efficiently. Positive notions of well-being at the destination can become a potential competitive advantage. A safe, well-looked after tourist that experienced a problem-free stay will communicate positive word-of-mouth messages to others (Page & Connell 2006:497-498).

The tourism industry has clearly been particularly bruised at a number of levels and poor safety and security measures can have a negative influence on tourism growth and destination image. Growing concerns around safety and security of destinations, and the process of getting to them, has thus caused tourists to rethink whether, where, when, how and what they travel. The next section focuses on the relationship between safety and security and the tourism industry by addressing various thoughts.

### **3.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SAFETY AND SECURITY AND THE TOURISM INDUSTRY**

It is clear from the previous discussions that safety and security influence the tourism industry. It is the purpose of the following discussion to focus in more depth on the relationship between these two topics.

#### **3.4.1 Safety and security as part of development plans**

It is argued that the concept *security* has become transformed from one of collective security and common defence to embrace notions of common and co-operatives security (Hall, Timothy & Duval 2003). It is further eluded that although such agendas are important for tourism, nevertheless, particularly at the micro-level, appropriate tourism development may serve as a means to ward off potential future conflict over resource and environmental security. Security is a concept that is at present central not just to tourism but also to the wider world, but tourism is irrevocably bound up with the concept of security. Tourist behaviour, and consequently destinations, are deeply affected by perceptions of security and management of safety, security and risk; therefore it should be included in the development plans of a destination or product.

Mthembu (2008:32) stated that the process of development is seen as a solution to crime, underpinning the belief that crime is caused by poverty. Development

strategies which aim at dealing with poverty will also serve as a means of preventing crime. However, development may in fact contribute to increased levels of crime in a particular area, for example the creation of a trade or shopping complex in a particular area as one component of a development plan may attract a larger criminal element into the area.

Since development can attract crime to an area (Bruce 1997) development plans which do not address issues of safety and security may in themselves make an area relatively 'criminal friendly'. Such development plans, if not properly conceived, may even contribute to what seems to be an increased propensity of some of the people living in that area to become involved in criminal activity. However, Barker and Page (2002:275) stated that tourism developments have the capacity to create visitor-friendly environments that are more effectively policed.

Magi (2001) stated that some of the reoccurring viewpoints and statements characterising the importance of crime, safety and security in tourism can be summarised as follows: the recognition that undeniably so tourism as an industry has to protect and support the tourist, which is "the goose that lays the golden egg" through getting some assurances relating to crime safety and security at all tourist destinations.

Mthembu (2008:33) stated that there can therefore be little doubt that issues of safety and security have to be addressed as an important component of any process of integrated local development. As cited in Magi (2001), one of the existing, overriding and persistent perspectives on tourism in the world is the recognition that crime, safety and security are important role players in the success or failure of the tourism industry.

It is said that although "tourism as a force of peace" has been a popular positive message relayed by industry, consultants and some academics in recent years, the reality is that tourism has very little influence on peace and security issues. At least at the micro-level and that tourism is far more dependent on peace than peace is dependent on tourism (Hall *et al.* 2003).

### **3.4.2 Security incidents in the tourism industry**

Mansfeld and Pizam (2006:6) mentioned that it is important to understand the geographical dimension of security incidents when handling security-related tourism crises. If in any way possible, host governments and the tourism industry should ensure that the security incident is confined to the location where it actually took place as a spill-over to another location can increase the effect and impact of the incident.

Mapping the relationship between location where the security incident occurred and the tourist destination may result in three main situations and these are:

- When the security location and the tourist destination overlap.
- When there is a geographical proximity between these two.
- When those two locations are far apart. It is assumed that the closer the two locations, the more severe the impact of the security incident on the tourism industry will be (Pizam & Mansfeld 2006:6).

### **3.4.3 Types of security incidents in the tourism industry**

Mansfeld and Pizam (2006:12) identified the following four tourism security-related incidents and situations:

- Crime-related incidents

This can take the form of larceny, theft, robbery, rape, murder, piracy and kidnapping. These crimes can be committed by local residents against tourists, committed by tourists against local residents, committed by tourists against other tourists and organised crime against tourism establishments.

- Terrorism

Terrorism is defined as any act of violence that countries may exchange (Chen & Noriega 2006:82). It takes the form of domestic terrorism, international terrorism and cross-border terrorism. This can happen in three possible scenarios: terrorism aimed at civil targets (including tourists), directed at economic targets related to tourism, terrorism that targets tourism and/or tourists since both are seen as 'soft targets'.

According to Tarlow (2006:45), terrorists tend to seek targets that offer at least three out of the following four possibilities and these all exist in the tourism industry:

- Potential for mass casualties.

- Potential for mass publicity.
- Potential to do great economic damage.
- Potential to destroy an icon.

In the presence of violence, hotels seek to compensate for foreign demand shortfalls by reducing local prices enough to appeal to additional local tourists, which again highlights the importance of the domestic market being the backbone of the tourism industry. However, it is difficult to counter terrorism's negative impact on for example hotel incomes (Fleischer & Buccola 2006:63).

- War.

Wars have a major negative impact on tourist demand for a long time. The following types of wars have an impact on tourism: cross-border wars, trans-border wars, wars of attrition and civil wars.

- Civil/political unrest.

Civil/political unrest can be in the form of violent demonstrations, uprising and riots.

The following observations have been made by Mansfeld and Pizam (2006:12-13):

“Crime incidents against tourists are enduring and more difficult to eradicate, while terror and war related situations tend to be more sporadic and shorter in duration. Wars are the most destructive medium to long term security incidents, which might destroy tourism infrastructure and natural tourism assets. The results of such security incidents on the tourism industry may lead to irreversible damage and highly expensive rehabilitation processes. Tourist attractions that accommodate large numbers of tourists tend to develop more enduring and chronic security problems, mostly in the way of crime. Single security incidents do not have the same negative impacts on tourism demand as multiple types of security incidents. The most destructive type of short-term security incident that impacts the tourism industry and destinations is international terrorism. The emergence of civil unrest can also cause major damage to the local, regional, or national tourism industry especially when the insurgent groups are part and parcel of the cultural tourism product (i.e., their culture is of interest to tourists and exposure of their culture is part of the national, regional, and/or local tourist product).

#### **3.4.4 Location of incidents**

Mansfeld and Pizam (2006:14) argued that the decline in tourist visitation following safety and security incidents is not restricted to the local community in which the

incident occurs. It usually spreads quickly to other regions within and outside the country affected. This spill-over effect is generated either by tourists' lack of geographical knowledge, which distorts their geographical image of the conflict area, or by a biased media coverage which does not supply detailed geographical information on the affected. In cases of very severe incidents there would be no significant difference in tourist arrivals between acts conducted on or off the premises of tourism enterprises. In cases of less severe security incidents, acts conducted on the premises of tourism businesses will have a greater effect on tourist visitation than those conducted off premises.

Crimes against tourists, as argued by Mansfeld and Pizam (2006:14), tend to occur more in geographical areas that have a higher level of conventional crimes. Tourist locations are more conducive to crime (hot spots) due to their inherent level of conventional crimes. Most crimes that occur in tourist destinations also tend to be on the perimeter and in areas with low pedestrian traffic and no apparent police presence. Countries and regions that possess a significant macro-economy acquire a tarnished image that creates an impression of an unsafe tourist destination.

#### **3.4.5 Targets and motives of security incidents**

To predict the impacts of security incidents on tourism it is important to understand the motives behind such incidents. The types of motives include:

- Political
- Religious
- Social
- Economic
- Hostility to tourists
- Publicity seeking
- Destruction of an area's economy.

The types of targets include:

- Tourists on the way to and from their travel destinations
- Tourists vacationing in a given travel destination
- Tourism and hospitality installations and facilities
- Strategic and non-strategic transportation facilities serving tourists and
- Public and private services and businesses also serving tourists (Pizam & Mansfeld 2006:5).

### **3.4.6 Impacts of security incidents**

Cavlek (2006:338) stated that tour operators in generating markets and tour operators in the receiving destination, both share common objectives of mitigating the almost inevitable damage resulting from a change in the security climate of a given destination. Since these stakeholders do not normally coordinate these reactions to security-oriented crises, each has to perform an individual assessment of the other side's actions taken to mitigate the damage.

Any negative or positive incidents taking place in the tourism industry may have a lasting impact on tourists in its presence or when reading about it in media publications. Most tourists are so afraid of being victims of any criminal activities even though some of them have never been exposed to such acts. Cavlek (2006:335) stated that peace, safety and security are the primary conditions for successful tourism development. Security incidents at tourist destinations result in diminishing tourist arrivals. Consequently affected destinations lose professional employees as well as entrepreneurs, who are essential for the successful operation of the tourism industry.

Mansfeld and Pizam (2006:16) point out that at destinations that have been affected by security incidents the quality of tourist installations and services may become degraded, since many employees are made redundant and funds for regular maintenance are not available, for example the situation of hotels in Zimbabwe. The long-term implication is a need to reinvest large sums of money on rehabilitation of the affected infrastructure and superstructures once the security situation is over. And it is further said that, following severe frequency of security incidents, many tourism companies in affected destinations have to restructure their human resources, which means making many employees redundant and operating their services on a very tight budget. This has a major bearing on the quality of service provided and on the level of satisfaction of those tourists willing to take the risk and visit these destinations.

- **Impact on tourists**

It is said that personal security is a major concern for tourists. Thus most tourists will seek safe and secure destinations and avoid those that have been plagued by all sorts of violent incidents (Mthembu 2008:51). The perceived risk of travelling to a

security-affected destination is shaped by the following: (1) the objective facts on the ground, (2) mass media, (3) the travel trade (e.g. travel agents and tour operators) and (4) personal information.

Perceptions about its severity and impact are more negative than facts or real circumstances. Leisure tourists are more prone to take risks while on vacation than local residents and less likely to observe safety precautions. This is due to a lack of understanding and awareness of local risks and a result of common beliefs that while on vacation nothing bad could happen to them (Mthembu 2008:51). Tourists present lucrative targets of criminals because:

- They carry much portable wealth
- They ignore normal precautions
- They are unfamiliar with the surroundings
- They are less likely to report crimes
- They cannot correctly identify their assailants and
- They do not return as witnesses to the trial.

Mthembu (2008:52) stated that, in most cases, the likelihood of prosecuting offenders that victimise tourists is relatively low because the victims and witnesses have returned home and unless they were seriously injured or experienced a large but recoverable loss, they are not likely to return to press charges. It is further stated that, many tourist robberies go unreported to the police because of guilt feelings and the embarrassment of having had a desire for illicit activities that led to victimisation. In pursuit of risk-free travel, potential tourists use a variety of security-related information services to facilitate their destination choice behaviour.

According to Holcomb and Pizam (2006:107), it is unfortunate that tourists and travellers have always been victims of both violent and nonviolent crimes. Violent crimes such as robbery, rape, assault, and murder have a more negative effect on tourists than do personal property crimes. It is further said that violent crimes are, at times, life altering and can be more devastating to a victim than nonviolent crimes such as thefts.

Tourists will react to security incidents in the following way:

- Actual cancellations;
- Actual bookings;

- Actual avoidance of unsafe destinations;
- Risk-taking tendency of various tourist segments;
- Change in use of risk-related travel information prior to destination choice.

- **Impacts on the destination**

It is said that all forms of security incidents that occur at a particular tourist destination, be it terrorism, political upheaval or crime, can negatively affect tourists' image and can cause a decline in tourist arrivals. This phenomenon is more evident in long-term trends and more specifically related to long lasting security situations. Declines in tourist arrivals lead to diminishing tourist receipts and may result in a full-fledged economic recession in destinations that specialise in tourism. The longer a security crisis lasts, the higher its aggregated negative impact on a tourist destination is (Pizam & Mansfeld 2006:14-15).

Mthembu (2008:50) stated that the decline in tourist arrivals following one or several security incidents can last anything from a few weeks to indefinitely. The factor that most significantly affects the duration of the decline in tourist arrivals is the frequency of the incidents rather than their severity. It is further said that the profitability of business that partially relies on tourism is negatively affected by security incidents. Thus, frequent security incidents may make them insolvent and hence negatively affect the quality of life for the entire host community.

The variables used to assess the impact of security incidents on a macro-level destination performance are:

- Tourist overall arrivals in a given period
- Tourist segmented arrivals in any given period
- Tourist overall receipts in any given period
- Tourist segmented receipts in any given period
- Duration of the impact (Pizam & Mansfeld 2006:7).

### **3.4.7 Recovery methods for security incidents**

Tourism security crises are for the most part unavoidable, since they are generated in many cases by exogenous factors that are beyond the control of the tourism industry of the tourist destination. However, improving tourist security by housing tourists in gated all-inclusive resorts has a negative effect on small tourism businesses, which feel shut out and reinforce the perception of inequality between



tourists and local residents. Tourist destinations that offer rewards for information leading to the arrest and conviction of those that commit serious crimes against tourists have better records of conviction, and in turn lead to lower rates of crimes committed against tourists. Tourist destinations that established a partnership between the leaders of the local community and the national and local government have been successful in the prevention/reduction of acts of riot and political unrest at tourist destinations than their counterparts (Pizam & Mansfeld 2006:19-20).

According to Mansfeld and Pizam (2006:20), there are a number of methods to be used by a destination affected by any sort of security incidents. One of these methods is that, in the aftermath of decline in tourist visitation caused by a security incident, most tourist enterprises will try to reduce their operational costs by laying off a proportion of their employees. Following terrorist incidents, the tourism industry-affected destination will seek to compensate for declines in leisure travel by appealing to local, regional, and national governments to promote and encourage government-related business travel. To recover from the decline in tourist visitations caused by a security incident, the private sector at the affected destination will in most cases reduce prices and offer a variety of incentives (e.g., package deals) to bring the tourists back to the destination. Destinations that employ a destination-specific marketing strategy, a tactic employed by a local destination to dissociate itself from a larger tourist destination that has an undesirable security image, are more successful in avoiding the decline in tourist arrivals caused by a series of security incidents such as repeated terrorist attacks or warfare than their counterparts.

### **3.5 THE ROLE OF TOURISM STAKEHOLDERS IN SECURITY**

This topic will represent the expected and actual efforts made by the various stakeholders in the tourism system in response to security incidents that either: might affect the tourist destination in the future, are currently affecting the tourist destinations causing a crisis situation or affected tourist destinations in the past. It is also said that for many tourist destinations around the world, security incidents and security crises are not unfortunate, a matter of a past episode, but rather a stage in perpetual cycle of crises and recoveries (Mthembu 2008:49).

### **3.5.1 The role of the destination**

When security incidents take place and the security situation in tourist destinations deteriorates, the result does not always lead to a long-term detrimental effect on the local tourism industry. However, when the situation involves global media coverage, the information it conveys creates a strong negative image among potential tourists. If this negative image is translated by would-be travellers into unacceptable risk levels, potential tourists would most likely cancel their bookings or choose to book alternative and more secure destinations (Pizam & Mansfeld 2006:10).

Mansfeld and Pizam (2006:10) stated that in times of security oriented tourism crises, affected destinations play a key role in fighting for their economic and social survival. It is further said that the key questions to be investigated when evaluating destinations' behaviour in times of security are: to what extent are destinations proactive or reactive as the crises emerges; and are destinations involved in a concerted multi-stakeholder effort and (the tourism industry, local community, and local or regional governments) efforts made to mitigate the consequences.

### **3.5.2 The role of the media**

The media also plays an important role when tourists choose their desired destination to visit (Holcomb & Pizam 2006:109). Positive and negative security factors also exist that can arise from the media and thus impact and influence the choice of tourists. Mansfeld and Pizam (2006:9) stated that security incidents are regarded by the media as important news generators. Thus, when they take place, the media becomes preoccupied with providing its customers with the most vivid and explicit information and analysis of these incidents. Potential tourists in the generating markets are saturated with up-to date and real life information which consciously and unconsciously establishes a perceived high risk image of the affected destination.

It is also common that media will portray a particular destination as crime ridden and not fully secured and not necessarily mention anything positive about that particular destination. The media always enjoy embellishing even small incidents of security and making them very serious and huge. Fiji positioned itself as – the world's one truly relaxing destination – in 2000, which was shortly before the 2000 coup. The images projected around the world of gunmen and looting were in contrast to the touristic images of a peaceful and friendly country. The negative media images were

detrimental to Fiji and they had to implement a recovery program which took years to succeed (King & Berno 2006:73-74).

### **3.5.3 The role of tourists**

According to Mthembu (2008:55), tourists often force themselves to discard many of the social norms which regulate their behaviour in their daily lives when they travel away from home. Some tourists tend to relax their dress codes; they manifest sexual morals or indulge in illegal drug consumption and heavy drinking. This behaviour may bring them into direct conflict with the host community, or it may undermine the local traditions or customs of the host country. This, in turn, leads to many of the other negative social impacts. This kind of behaviour should not be tolerated as it leads to higher incidences of crime.

### **3.5.4 The role information**

Mansfeld (2006:272) mentioned that since security situations and potential security hazards nowadays are not endemic to specific countries or specific regions around the world, this prerequisite has become more global. It is further said that in pursuit of risk-free travel, potential tourists are known to use information sources to facilitate their constructs of perceived travel risk, which they subsequently employ in their destination choice behaviour. However, the literature on the specific cross functional role of security information with regard to consumers' perception of risk, as well as risk management at affected tourist destinations, is still very limited and undeveloped. Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) found that the demand for safety information was most apparent among visitors most at risk and concerned about their safety whereby information search is related to perceptions of risk.

Tourists' dynamic risk assessment takes place in four basic stages of the travel behaviour sequence (Mansfeld 2006:282) and these are:

- ***Destination-choice process:*** which is caused by travel motivation and ends with a choice of the preferred travel alternative.
- ***In-between period:*** starts immediately after the tourist has acted upon the destination choice and booked the holiday, and ends when the actual trip is taken.
- ***On-site period:*** it is when tourists commence their holiday at the destination until they travel back home.

- **Pre-next trip period:** takes place when returning home and just before planning the next tourism experience.

Given the prominence of the occurrence of crime with regard to the tourism industry the following section discusses crime in more detail.

### **3.6 CRIME IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY**

Crime is evident in the global tourism industry and demands further discussion.

#### **3.6.1 Understanding crime**

According to Joubert (2010:100), there are a number of crimes against persons and those crimes violate the personal interests of individuals, their lives, their liberty, their dignity and their well-being, including their bodies and their personalities. It is further said that although all crimes are regarded as being committed against the community as a whole, offences against the person are specifically directed at the physical or psychological integrity of individuals. Besides being criminal offences, crimes against the person also constitute civil wrongs for which the victims may claim damages or compensation by means of civil actions. Thus, if one person assaults another, the former may not only be subject to punishment by the state for the crime of assault, but he/she may also be liable to pay compensation for the damage suffered by the victim, for instance, his/her medical costs.

Burger (2007:45) explains that it is not easy to define crime as it consists of many factors interacting at any time. These factors are referred to as risk factors and include root causes of crime, which clearly stipulates why they are referred to as the causes of crime. According to Tappan (cited by Burger 2007:45), crime is defined as “an intentional act in violation of the criminal law committed without defence or excuse and punishable by the state”. According to Snyman (as cited by Burger 2007:46), South African criminal law views crime as an unlawful, guilty act and which can be either a commission or an omission, and which is punishable by the authorities.

#### **3.6.2 Impacts of crimes**

The impacts of crimes can be viewed from two perspectives, macro and micro, as stated by Holcomb and Pizam (2006:106). The macro impacts of crime pertain to how crime affects society in general. This relates to the effects of crime on a

community or a tourist destination. The micro impacts relate to how crime affects a person or victim. It is further said that crime affects society on a macro level in many ways. Economically, crime costs consumers billions of dollars each year; the economic effects are passed on to the consumer in the form of higher prices.

The impacts of crime on societies as a whole can be devastating. It is also said that, societies can cease to function normally if crime becomes the overriding concern. For example, the sniper shooting of 2002 in the Washington, DC, area interrupted the function of normal life for the majority of citizens during that period. Fear spread throughout the area causing citizens to avoid gas stations, craft stores, and other places where previous shooting had occurred (Holcomb & Pizam 2006:106).

Holcomb and Pizam (2006:106) explain that micro impacts of crime involve its consequences on individuals. Fear of crime can have a major effect on an individual's life whether or not the fear is actually rational. It is further elaborated that fear of crime can cause people to remain in their home, curb activities, and even avoid travelling together. Fear of crime can place constraints on a person's lifestyle behaviour or promote defensive behaviour that encourages them to be more vigilant about crime (Barker & Page 2002:275; Holcomb & Pizam 2006:106). Victimization of individuals can also have various physical as well as psychological effects.

### **3.6.3 Types of crimes**

The following are the most commonly known criminal acts against tourists:

- Murder
- Assault
- Sexual offences
- Kidnapping
- Robbery
- Theft.

**Murder** is defined as the lawful and intentional causing of the death of another human being. The conduct required to constitute murder is causing the death of another human being. And this conduct comprises three elements that each have to be proved beyond reasonable doubt, namely causing the death, of another, and human being (Joubert 2010:101).

**Assault** is defined as the lawful and intentional application of force, directly or indirectly, to the person of another or inspiring a belief in another person that force is immediately to be applied to him/her. It is further explained that assault is usually committed by striking or kicking another person. However, for purposes of the law regarding assault, the least interference with the person of another may amount to an application of force (Joubert 2010:106-107).

**Sexual offences**, in terms of the Criminal Law (sexual offences and related matters), Amendment Act 32 of 2007 consolidated all sexually related crimes by statutorily creating various sexual offences and substituting the definitions of common law offences such as rape, indecent assault, incest and bestiality. Rape is more prevalent on tourists and is defined as: any person who unlawfully and intentionally commits an act of sexual penetration with a complainant without the latter's consent (Joubert 2010:113).

**Kidnapping** is the unlawful and intentional deprivation of a person's freedom of movement or, if that person is a child, the unlawful and intentional deprivation of a parent's control over that child. It is further explained that this deprivation of freedom of movement may involve force, or it may involve craft or cunning (Joubert 2010:128).

**Robbery** consists of the theft of property by intentionally using violence or threats of violence to induce submission to its taking. Though robbery is a distinct offence, it is also an aggravated theft, namely theft by violence. No conduct can constitute robbery unless it is also theft. If an accused's conduct does not comply with the requirements of theft, he/she is only guilty of assault (Joubert 2010:149). Victimisation may be partially explained by exposure to certain situations, personal characteristics of the victim and the victim's gender and age (Harper 2006:126).

**Theft** is the most prominent crime against tourists and can be described as the unlawful appropriation of movable corporeal property belonging to another with intent to deprive the owner permanently of the property. It is further explained that, dealing with the property with intent of permanently depriving the owner of that property, in instances where the control of the property was obtained without stealing it, can also constitute theft (Holcomb & Pizam 2006:111; Joubert 2010:135). A study done in the Caribbean showed that residents were more likely to be victims

of violent crime than were tourists. The latter were disproportionately victims of property crimes and robbery than were residents (Holcomb & Pizam 2006:113).

A high incidence of violent crimes such as murder, rape, assault or robbery affects tourist arrivals through negative publicity. It was also found that differences in ethnicity, age, accommodation choice and the number of travelling companions affected tourist perceptions and concerns regarding crime and safety (Barker & Page 2002:277).

#### **3.6.4 Crime against tourists**

Crime committed against tourists is not a new phenomenon (Tarlow & Muehsam 1996:12), yet researchers have been cautious to link tourist victimization directly to tourism demand. According to Breda and Costa (2006:192), crime against tourists may result in bad publicity for destinations and create a negative image in the minds of prospective visitors. Thus, most destinations endeavour to create a favourable picture to encourage tourists to visit (Holcomb & Pizam 2006:109).

It is further pointed out that crime directed at foreigners is becoming more frequent in major cities and at tourist sites, which attracts thieves and pickpockets. And one of the most notable trends is the dramatic increase in serious economic crimes; it appears that getting rich is becoming an obsession. This statement is affirmed by slogans such as “to get rich is glorious.” Materialism became the dominant ethos of the reform era.

In a study conducted by Harper (2000) in and around *Vieux Carre* (French Quarter) of New Orleans in between 2000 and 2001, Harper (2006:132) cited that in one out of five cases in that study victims “collaborated” in their own victimization, in a sense. This could mean that the opportunity for the victimization was largely created by the choices made by the victim. It is further mentioned that these victims most likely would not find themselves in the circumstances that led to their subsequent victimization on their home turf. It is therefore by these actions within the situational context of tourism that they place themselves at a triple disadvantage of being (1) a stranger, (2) being isolated in an unfamiliar area and (3) being there in search of some illicit action. And because of the nature of this context, it is reported to be likely that a larger number of incidents of this type go unreported to the police. Tarlow (2006:97) added to this by stating that visitors are vulnerable due to the following:

they often leave their common sense at home, it is easy to identify the visitors, tourists are often in a state of anomie (confused), visitors drop their inhibitions when travelling, to travel is to be stressed and closely related to stress is the issue of time.

This is because there are many external factors that are involved in the tourist's decision-making process. Some of these factors include economic considerations, accessibility, climate, changes in consumer trends, and the amount of push and pull by intermediaries and the effectiveness of marketing campaigns. Furthermore, tourism researchers have been hindered by lack of available data because most law-enforcing agencies do not distinguish between crime committed against tourists and crime committed against residents (George 2003:576).

Ensuing media attention has raised tourists' concerns about safety, and has 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 (George 2003:577). Pearce (1998:28) suggested that concern with personal security is a major factor in the decision-making process through which individuals make their travel choices. Several authors have suggested that residents and tourists stand an equal chance of becoming a victim of crime (Harper 2001:1055).

In a study analysing tourists' perceptions of crime in Washington, DC, Demos (1992:84) found that the number of previous visits by the tourists to the city and their demographic profile (such as gender, marital status and level of education) influenced their perceptions. A study on tourists' perceptions of safety in Orlando (Florida) revealed that travellers' previous exposure to crime influenced their sense of security (Milman & Bach 1999:384).

Inskeep (1991:374) indicates that the problem of drugs, alcoholism, crime, and prostitution may be exacerbated by tourism, although tourism is seldom the basic cause of such problems with respect to prostitution, as pointed out by Pearce (cited by Inskeep, 1999) in his review of the literature on this subject. With respect to the relationship between crime and tourism, Mathieson and Wall (as cited by Inskeep, 1982) in their review of the literature conclude that it appears that tourism contributes to crime, especially on a seasonal basis. This occurs through the generation of friction between the host population and tourists and the fact that the



target for criminals is expanded and a situation is created where gains from crime may be high and the likelihood of detection small.

McIntosh and Goeldner (as cited by Mthembu 2008:41) argued that, tourists themselves can be easy prey for criminals. Tourists do not know about the dangerous areas or local situations in which they might be very vulnerable to violent crimes. They become easily marked by robbers and other offenders because they are readily identified and are usually not very well equipped to ward off an attack. Sometimes popular tourist attractions such as parks or beaches are within walking distance from the hotel, which may bring tourists into a high-crime area lying directly in the path taken to reach this attraction.

Some tourist hotels in Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban warn their guests not to leave their hotels in the evening. This problem is not unique to South Africa. It is a worldwide trend. Many South African citizens travelling in African countries such as Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Zambia and others are easy hijack victims (Mthembu 2008:42). Tourists often carry large amounts of cash. They are also obliged to produce their vehicle registration papers at border posts making it very easy for criminals to acquire these papers when hijacking the vehicle. Tourists also are not allowed to bring firearms into some of these countries and are therefore unable to defend themselves. A popular scam involves illegal currency exchange by locals. These people prey on unsuspecting visitors, offering them “bargain” exchange rates. (McIntosh *et al.* as cited by Mthembu 2008:42).

McIntosh *et al.* (as cited by Mthembu 2008:42) stated that, if such big-crime areas exist, active efforts must be made to inform visitors and guests. Hotels and others that publish maps of walking tours should route such tours into safe areas only. Also, they should warn the guests of the danger that could arise if visitors undertake certain activities. Crime against tourists results in bad publicity and creates a negative image in the mind of prospective visitors.

Thus, tour companies tend to avoid destinations that have the reputation for crime against tourists. Eventually, no matter how much effort is applied to publicise the area’s benefits and visitors’ rewards, decreasing popularity will result in failure. Pizam, Reichel and Shieh (as cited by Mthembu 2008:42) found that tourism expenditures had a negligible effect on crime. However, they suggested that tourism

could be considered a potential determinant of crime, negatively affecting the quality of the environment. The tourism industry cannot be held responsible for the occurrence of crime. But one must be aware that tourists are potential targets of crime. Protecting them from offenders is essential to the survival and the growth of the industry (McIntosh *et al.* as cited by Mthembu 2008:43).

### **3.7 TOURIST SAFETY IN SOUTH AFRICA**

In South Africa, tourism is one of the fastest growing sectors of the economy. Its contribution to the country's gross domestic product (GDP) increased from 4,6 percent back in 1993 to 8,3 percent in 2006 (Department of Trade and Industry 2006). South Africa is rich in tourist attractions. These include, *inter alia*, accessible wildlife sanctuaries, unspoiled landscapes (beaches), wilderness areas and indigenous forests, diverse cultures, a generally sunny and mild to hot climate and well-developed infrastructure. These features attract not only local but also foreign tourists.

Mansfeld and Pizam (as cited by Ntuli & Potgieter 2001:63) stated that prior to the 1994-democratic election, South Africa was black-listed by many foreign countries as a result of discriminatory policies practiced by the former South African government during the "apartheid era". However, the transition to a democratic dispensation positively impacted on the tourism industry in South Africa. Even as an emerging tourist destination this country is becoming more competitive but the prevailing high crime rate creates challenges. Since the democratic political elections in 1994, South Africa has been plagued by a reputation for being one of the most dangerous countries in the world (George, 2003). Despite this negative image various tourists from overseas countries are still travelling to and visiting South Africa.

Although the number of tourists visiting South Africa has been increasing, serious concerns have been raised about the level of crime in the country (Moyo & Ziramba 2013:5). Perception of a high crime rate, mostly reported by the media, has discouraged both international and domestic tourists from visiting scenic-popular destinations (George 2002). The study done by Moyo and Ziramba (2013:4) in South Africa confirms the presence of a long-run relationship between tourist inflows and crime, as well as other variables such as income, travel cost and lagged tourism. The results suggest that crime as a whole is not a significant determinant of

inflows, but kidnappings, car hijackings, murder and sexual offences have a negative effect on tourist inflows to the country, both in the short and the long run.

In May 2002, the then Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, Valli Moosa, indicated that South Africa is regarded as one of the safest destinations in the world (Pretorius *et al.* 1999 as cited by Bloemhof 2008:2). This statement followed the September 11 2001 terrorist attack on the World Trade Centre in New York. In recent years, however, there has been a plethora of crime incidents at various tourist attractions in South Africa, which may have had a serious impact on tourists' perception of safety in South Africa. For instance, the rape and murder of a British tourist in Mpumalanga in 2002 created various questions concerning the safety of tourists in South Africa and the murder of Swedish honeymooner, Anni Dewani, in November 2010.

It is said that South Africa's second national victim survey, conducted by the Institute for Security Studies in 2003, suggests that crime did in fact stabilise between 1998 and 2003, but a sharp disparity exists between reality and the public's negative perception of crime in South Africa (South Africa Info Reporter 2004 as cited by Bloemhof 2008:2).

Safety and security was also a major issue in the bid to host the 2010 Federation International Football Association (FIFA) World Cup. The Inspection Group Report on the safety and security in South Africa stated that the general information indicated that South Africa showed a lack of security but as long as people attending the 2010 FIFA World Cup keep within certain boundaries, tourists should not encounter any trouble (SAFA 2004:70). With regard to organising security for a possible 2010 FIFA World Cup in the country, the FIFA Inspection Group rated a comprehensive work schedule as excellent drawn up by the top commanders of the national police, which covered stadiums, media centres and the main hotels (SAFA 2004:70). In May 2004, the national government signed a safety and security guarantee which tasks the government with developing and implementing a detailed security plan for the tournament. The South African Police Services deployed more than 44,000 new police officers (South African Government Information, 2010) and the South African government spent R1,3 billion on the 2010 World Cup safety and security (Mthetwa, 2010). At the time of the tournament South Africa was perceived as a fairly safe destination by both local and international visitors.

A study done by George and Swart (2014:212-213) during the 2010 World Cup regarding visitors' perceptions of crime in the country, it was found that 90% of the respondents were aware of high crime rates in South Africa and 19% had no concerns for crime-safety. Family and friends informed them about the crime (45%) whereas 50% stated that television and radio provided them the best source of information about crime.

According to South Africa Tourism Brand Tracker (DEAT 2005:29), 22-25 million potential travellers across eight key markets (the USA, the UK, Germany, France, the Netherlands, Australia, India and China) did not consider South Africa in January 2005 as a travel destination over the past five (5) years because they were concerned about safety. The persisting perception that South Africa is an unsafe destination, with an uncontrollable crime situation, can also influence the potential tourist's decision-making process (Minnaar 2007:13; van Niekerk & Oelofse 2007:1). And seen from a marketing perspective, it is important for destinations to realise that crime and, more importantly, media coverage of crime incidents can lead to a perception of an unsafe destination image that can take many years of great efforts to counter. Perceptions and fear of existing crime may require a different management and marketing approach. Crime rates in South Africa, which are among the highest in the world, are merely some of the many challenges facing South Africa in the post-apartheid era (Demombynes & Ozler 2005:288).

### **3.8 CONCLUSION**

It was the purpose of this chapter to analyse the importance and context of safety and security in the tourism industry. It was clear in this chapter that peace, safety and security are primary requirements for the attractiveness, growth and competitiveness of tourism destinations. The analysis of security and safety revealed that security is seen as protection against a person that seeks to do harm and safety is seen as protecting people against unintended consequences of an involuntary nature. Crime against tourists can impede tourism by damaging a destination or location's image severely and lead to a decline in visitor numbers. This can thus directly influence tourists' travel behaviour negatively.

Tourists themselves in some cases unwittingly contribute to the problem of security and safety through their vacation behaviour. Tourists are suitable targets due to their

appearance, the items they carry on them and their relaxed attitudes whilst on holiday. Well-planned safety and security measures should be put into place during the development of tourism products, and the development of third-world countries can assist in minimizing security incidents. Four tourism security-related incidents and situations have been identified: crime-related incidents, terrorism, war and civil/political unrest of which crime has the most significant effect on the tourism industry.

In the event of a security incident it is important to contain it to the specific area where it happened in order to minimize the impact thereof. Crimes against tourists tend to occur more in geographical areas that have a higher level of conventional crimes and higher density of people. Motives for these incidents may include those that are political, religious, social and economic in nature. Security incidents can have detrimental effects on the destination, including a decline in tourist arrivals, negative images and damage to facilities. It was also evident from the literature that tourists will choose a different destination in order to feel more safe and secure.

It was clear that destinations need to manage the image of the destination and recover affected images where possible. Destinations need to be proactive as well as reactive when a crisis emerges. The media has a significant impact on the image of a destination by establishing a high-risk image of the destination. Tourists specifically frequently are victims of crime and crime is seen as an intentional act in violation of the criminal law. Crime impacts society in two ways: macro impacts affect society in general and micro impacts relate to how crime affects a person or victim. Fear of crime can deter people from travelling, which will negatively impact on the tourism industry and destination. Crime refers to murder, assault, sexual offences, kidnapping, robbery and theft, of which theft is the most prominent crime against tourists.

It is evident that South Africa faces the challenge of a poor image with regard to crime and that this image can influence visitors' decisions to travel around South Africa or visit South Africa from other countries. Since it takes time to change a negative image, all efforts should be made to make South Africa a safe country in which to travel.

# CHAPTER 4

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter highlights the importance and significance of research and the methods used to conduct this study. The combination of analysis and interpretation of data cannot be set aside when discussing this chapter, especially since it serves as an introduction to the analyses of the data. Research is the process that includes sourcing scientific knowledge by using different objective methods and procedures. There are various phases to be followed when research is conducted, such as the research proposal, the literature review and the empirical phases (consisting of sampling, measurement, data analyses) (Welman Kruger & Mitchell 2005:2).

According to Kothari (2006:1), research refers to a search for knowledge. Research is the scientific and systematic search for pertinent information on a specific topic. It can also be differentiated from other human activities by its systematic nature. According to Magi (2005), it is explained that researchers have somehow agreed that the analysis of data does not mean answering research questions, but literally goes to an extend of providing reasonable answers to the research questions.

Braynard and Hanekom (2006:1) explain that the importance of research is more so intertwined with the search for knowledge and the understanding of phenomena. They further argue that research provides scientific knowledge that can be used to determine the relevancy of objectives as well as the optimum utilisation of resources.

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the research methodology used to address the research problem. It is important to describe the research design and methodology used for the implementation of the study that allowed for relevant conclusions and recommendations. This chapter provides more information on the data collection methods, sampling procedure and the questionnaire utilised to address the research problem.

## **4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN**

The research design is the plan and structure of investigation so conceived as to obtain answers to research questions. It expresses the structure of the research problem, and the plan of investigation used to obtain empirical evidence on relations to the problem (Blumberg, Cooper & Schindler 2005:195). There is no single best research design since different designs offer an array of choices, each with advantages and disadvantages (McDaniel & Gates 2002:63). However, the researcher's first task is to decide which design from the following list to follow.

### **4.2.1 Descriptive design**

These studies are conducted to answer who, what, when, where and how questions. Management already knows the underlying relationship among the variables and this type of study assists the researcher in selecting variables for a causal study (McDaniel & Gates 2002:64). Blumberg *et al.* (2005:207) stated that a descriptive study can be simple or complex and as demanding as a causal study. The objectives of descriptive studies are to describe a phenomenon or characteristics associated with the study population, to estimate the proportions of a population that has these characteristics and to discover associations among different variables.

### **4.2.2 Exploratory design**

This form of design is useful when researchers lack a clear idea of the problem they will meet during the study. This exploration enables the researcher to develop concepts more clearly as well as to establish priorities, develop operational definitions and improve the final research design. Exploration might save time and money since formal studies can be cancelled if the problem could not be identified (Blumberg *et al.* 2005:201). Struwig and Stead (2004) stated that this type of research involves gathering a great deal of information from a small sample. This could be done through a study of secondary sources of information, an analysis of selected cases and a survey of individuals who are likely to have opinions on the subject under investigation.

### **4.2.3 Causal design**

The essential element of causation is that A 'produces' B or A 'forces' B to occur. This can, however, not be done with certainty through research. Probabilistic statements based on observations and measurements are made. This allows the

researcher to build knowledge or presumed causes over time (Blumberg et al 2005:210). This includes a dependent variable which is a symbol or concept expected to be explained or affected by an independent variable. The independent variable is that which the market researcher can to some extent manipulate, change or alter (McDaniel & Gates 2002:64-65).

For purposes of this study, descriptive design was chosen to describe the perceptions of residents of Sasolburg regarding safety and security in the South African tourism industry and to provide insight into current perspectives of residents and advise on strategies regarding the improvement of these perceptions.

### **4.3 RESEARCH METHOD**

The research process often includes quantitative or qualitative methods or a combination of the two, as described below.

#### **4.3.1 Quantitative research**

Quantitative research is a form of conclusive research in which large representative samples and fairly structured data collection procedures are involved. This type of research examines constructs (variables) which are based on the information derived from the theory. The measurement of the constructs usually takes the form of a questionnaire and some form of structured observation (Struwig & Stead 2004:5). It was also stated by Denzin and Lincoln (1994:4, as cited by Welman *et al.* 2005:8) that the quantitative research method does not include the investigation of processes but emphasises the measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables within a value-free context.

Crowther and Lancaster (2009:75) stated that quantitative data is often thought of as being more objective and scientific than qualitative data and is therefore associated with more traditional scientific approaches to research as used in the physical sciences. It is in the form of numbers and analysed using standard statistical techniques, for example One Way Analyses of Variances (ANOVA). According to McDaniel and Gates (2002:122), managers feel comfortable with marketing research based on large samples and high levels of significance. However, one of the disadvantages of utilising quantitative research is that it de-contextualises human behaviour by removing it from its real-world settings (Anderson & Taylor 2009:25).



### **4.3.2 Qualitative research**

Crowther and Lancaster (2009:75) stated that qualitative data is associated with phenomena that are difficult to quantify. It does not describe a single research method since many research methods are associated with qualitative research (Struwig & Stead 2004:11). According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994:4, as cited by Welman *et al.* 2005:8), the aim of qualitative research method is to establish socially constructed nature of truth, to inculcate the relation between the researcher and the study and to essentially emphasise the value-load of the study.

Qualitative research is interested in understanding the issues being researched from the viewpoint of the research participants. The researcher analyses and interprets the research data in association with the participants (Struwig & Stead 2004:12). This type of research is relatively open and unstructured and not always reliant on theory to provide a framework for what to research. It is an inductive approach that establishes the nature of truth by being grounded in the real world (Jennings 2010:128).

The methods involved in qualitative research include: case study research, participant observation, interviews and focus groups. The results are given in a narrative form with the researcher writing in the first person and using the active voice (Jennings 2010:128).

The onus lies with the researcher to determine which of the two approaches would be more appropriate for the envisaged research project, or whether a combination of the two methodologies would not perhaps provide better insight into the research problem. In this study a quantitative approach was followed which involved an analytical survey method which included a literature review and an empirical survey.

## **4.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

The research methods followed in this study are described in this section.

### **4.4.1 Literature review**

A literature review is the documentation of a comprehensive review of the published work from secondary sources of empirical materials/data in areas of specific interest to the researcher (Jennings 2010:440). The literature review serves four purposes: it

should demonstrate a familiarity with the body of knowledge, it should show the path of priori research, it should integrate and summarise what is known and the researcher should learn from others and stimulate new ideas (Neuman 2006:111). The literature review is closely connected to a bibliographic index and e-technology gives easy access to relevant sources. Blumberg *et al.* (2005:109) stated that there is no best structure for a literature review. The literature review should mention the relevant theoretical ideas contributing to further exploration or explanation of the problem statement and it should summarize the previous studies addressing and investigating the current study's problem statement.

It is in this light that the importance of the literature review was realised as a means by which the researcher should assess and analyse previous research studies focusing on the current theme to thoroughly understand the issues, studies, findings and ideas on safety and security whilst travelling and to apply it to a resident perspective and to the South African context. Literature in the field of study was analysed with a view to address the latter. Information was obtained by searching electronic databases, namely, Emerald, EBSCOhost and Science Direct, Hospitality and Tourism Index on the websites of tertiary institutions such as Vaal University of Technology and North-West University. Articles, books and other study material from libraries were also utilised for purposes of this study. A Nexus search was also conducted to determine the existence of a previous or current similar study but it was not found.

The views and deliberations were then reflected upon in Chapters 2 and 3. It was clear that A Pizam and Y Mansfeld have contributed significantly to this field of study where theory is scarce and applications are many and therefore their sources have been used extensively. However, the lack of pertinent theory was recognised as a limitation in this study. Successful research depends on a well-planned and thorough review of the available and relevant literature. It is further said that such review should make provision for a variety of sources (Braynard & Hanekom 2006:38).

Keywords in the literature search included: *crime, safety, security, visitors, residents, host population, perceptions, tourist and tourism.*

#### **4.4.2 Quantitative study**

A positivist approach, also known as quantitative approach, underlies the natural scientific method in human behavioural research and thus limits research to only what can be observed and measured objectively. This is all about independency of the feelings and views of individuals. The descriptive design of the research is discussed in the following section.

##### **4.4.2.1 Target population**

According to Brynard and Hanekom (2006:55), it is said that “population“ is not about the population of a particular country, but refers to objects, subjects, cases, events and activities which the researcher intends to research in order to produce or extract new knowledge. Welman *et al.* (2005:53) agrees that the population is the study objects and consists of individuals, groups, organisations, human products and events or conditions to which they are exposed. They further explained that population encompasses the entire collection of objects or subjects of analysis about which the researcher wishes to make particular and specific conclusions.

The target population was defined as Sasolburg residents intending to or having travelled in South Africa for different reasons. This is the start of a bigger project where other residential areas in South Africa will also be measured to obtain an over-all view of the perspectives of South Africans on this topic. Sasolburg was chosen as the first residential area due to the convenience of the area to the researcher as well as financial advantages of distribution. It was thus by no means meant to be representative of South Africa but to provide insight into the selected population which will also in the future be tested in other populations. The selected population totals 460,289 Sasolburg residents (Statistics SA 2001).

##### **4.4.2.2 Sampling and description of sampling**

Sampling is perceived as a technique used to select a sizeable group with a view to determine the characteristics of the entire population from which the group is identified. It is said that the group must be selected in a representative manner in order to reflect the same characteristics or properties as the large group (Brynard & Hanekom 2006:54). Maree and Pietersen (2008:172) explain sampling as a technique to select a particular number of respondents in a study population, and to employ a suitable method to limit objects, groups, events and activities from which the research will be conducted. Blumberg *et al.* (2005:228) stated that sampling is

done due to lower cost of the research, greater accuracy of the results, greater speed of data collection and availability of population elements. The sample should represent the characteristics of the population it represents.

Welman *et al.* (2005:56), as well as various other researchers, identified the two types of samples as probability samples and non-probability samples. In terms of probability sampling it can be assumed that all members of the population can be included in the sample. One of the advantages of probability sampling is that it enables the researcher to spot any deviation from the corresponding population values of the sample results. Methods of probability sampling include: simple random samples, stratified random samples, systematic samples and cluster samples.

Contrary to probability sampling is non-probability sampling, where one cannot specify probability. Those elements that stand a chance of being included in a sample have probability that exceeds zero. Some elements stand no chance of being included in a sample. In some instances probability sampling is not possible or feasible and therefore non-probability sampling will best suit the needs of the research. Methods of non-probability include: convenience sampling, quota sampling, purposive sampling, snowball sampling and self-selection sampling.

For purposes of this study a probability sampling method was used to collect data from the identified respondents who reside in Sasolburg, more specifically stratified random sampling. This implies that the questionnaires were distributed among selected strata (residential areas in Sasolburg including Vaal park, Central, Zamdela, Snake park and Coalbrook). In each strata participants were chosen at regular intervals (every third house) after a random start (Tustin, Ligthelm, Martins & van Wyk 2005:352). If no one was home either the house on the left or the right was selected for participation. Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608) set out the sampling procedure to be used as a guideline for research activities and the recommended sample is ( $n$ ) of 384 for a population ( $N$ ) of 1000 000. It was therefore concluded and decided to target 450 respondents to complete questionnaires for the study for the period of data collection.

Data collection was done between the month of June and July 2013. The fieldworkers were trained regarding the purpose of the questionnaire and how to

deal with the questions of participants without leading them to a certain answer to any question. The questionnaire was not exclusive of any character of respondents and included any member of the population available during the period of data collection and that intended to travel or had travelled previously. The opinions of a few non-travellers were also ascertained. No one was forced to complete the questionnaire as all respondents seemed to be willing to participate in the process of data collection. Four hundred questionnaires were completed in full and used in the analyses. All fieldworkers were recruited in Sasolburg and were graduates of Sasolburg College and the ITC College.

#### **4.4.2.3 Data collection method**

A number of authors suggest that there are a few techniques to be used when collecting data and this is closely related to the research design and research method most suited to the research problem. Questionnaires and interviews are widely used by researchers to collect data from respondents. Weaver and Lawton (2006) also state that the actual data collection is inclusive of various types such as interviews or observation and bearing in mind the importance of the consistency in the application of the correct research methods and the collection of conclusive results in a brief time period is possible. These methods of collecting data are known to have advantages and disadvantages (Brynard & Hanekom 2005:46).

- **Interviews**

The advantage of this method is that the interviewer is in a position to explain and clarify any information or question to the interviewee. And it is also possible for an interviewer to observe the behaviour of the respondents as questions are asked. The disadvantage of this method is that respondents may be sceptical to answer some of the questions and may occasionally conceal some information due to the personal nature of this method. Struwig and Stead (2004:87) emphasised the importance of trained interviewers when conducting these interviews.

- **Questionnaire**

McDaniel and Gates (2002:352) indicated that this set of questions should be designed to generate data that will answer the research questions. The advantage of this method is that the respondents have ample time to reflect on and think carefully about any kind of question asked. As questionnaires are distributed over a

large geographical area, it is possible for the researcher to reach large numbers of respondents. The main disadvantage of this method is that the main researcher is not always available to explain and clarify any uncertainty and misunderstandings and this may lead to totally distorted information or biased answers by the participants.

The questionnaire should:

- Contain precise and clear instructions on how to answer the questions
- Be divided into logical sections by subject
- Start with the questions that are easy to answer
- Proceed from general to specific questions and
- Avoid technical jargon (Struwig & Stead 2004:89).

After careful consideration of the research question and problem as well as methods implemented in previous studies, it was decided to use a questionnaire to collect data for this study.

Welman *et al.* (2005:174) indicate that when the researcher decides to conduct a survey using a questionnaire, careful consideration of thought and discussion, involving consideration of all possible techniques, is necessary. It is further said that when designing a questionnaire, the researcher should acquire as much information on the previous research conducted or related topics as possible. A pilot study was done among national and international visitors to the Soccer World Cup in 2010. These visitors were requested to complete the questionnaire in order to determine whether respondents understood the questions so that alterations could be made where necessary. The results from this pilot study was not included in the main survey but directed the finalisation of the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was thus developed, based on a similar study done by Donaldson and Ferreira (2007). Due to the differences in the sample type, some questions were redrafted and rephrased according to the needs of this study and the literature analyses. Questions were posed pertaining to demographics, geographics and safety and security perceptions. The questionnaire consists of open and closed-ended questions as well as Likert Scale type questions.

An open-ended question is one in which the interviewer asks questions without any prompting pertaining to the order of answers expected. The advantage of this type of question is that the answer from the interviewee is as pure as it can be and it is not influenced by the interviewer and it can therefore provide substantial source-varied material which might have been disturbed by categories on a closed-ended question. The closed-ended question is one which grants the respondents a few possible answers to choose from, either verbally or from the show of a card. It is further said that in the event of a self-completing questionnaire, a range of answers is set out and the respondent is asked to tick only the appropriate box/es (Welman *et al.* 2005:174). It is the prerogative of the researcher, based on the desired results, to decide which types of questions to ask. The researcher can decide to use both open-ended and/or closed-ended and/or pre-coded questions. In this study, both open-ended questions and closed-ended question were used for the purpose of this study.

The dependent variables (safety, security, crime) can be influenced by various independent variables (for example gender, previous travelling experiences, travel motivations and so forth). These as well as other independent variables were explored by means of the questionnaire.

The structure of the questionnaire is as follows:

***Section A: Demographic information***

Section A consisted of gender, date of birth, home, marital status, occupation and home language. Most of the questions asked in Section A were closed-ended questions prompting quick answers.

***Section B: Travel preferences***

This section included questions on how often the respondents go on holiday, how many nights spent on holiday, how many weekend trips per year, type of accommodation used whilst on holiday and type of transport used to go on holiday. Again, closed-ended questions were used to obtain answers to this important part of the questionnaire.

***Section C: Perception of crime***

The last section dealt with perceptions of respondents regarding crime in South Africa whilst travelling and also in general. Questions in this section included, how

the respondents feel about crime when travelling in South Africa, whether they have been a victim of crime, what their level of exposure is when it comes to crimes such as assault, mugging, rape, robbery, theft and murder. This was prominent in literature as being the most important categories of crimes committed against tourists. Respondents were also asked why they travel in order to determine the relationship of travel motivations with respondents' experiences of safety. In the case of travel motivations and of safety experiences in South Africa, a 5-point Likert format question was used. The last question was an open-ended question where the respondents were asked to air their opinions on how to make South Africa a safer tourist destination (see Appendix 1).

#### **4.5 DATA ANALYSES**

A very important step in the analyses of the data refers to the cleaning of the data where the data should be inspected, cleaned, transformed and modelled in order to find the useful information, suggest solutions and support decision making (Adèr *et al.* 2008:54). Thus, after the completion of the data collection process, the data was captured on an Excel spread sheet by the researcher with the intention to facilitate the input of the data. The cleaning process was dealt with by the researcher which led to the 380 usable questionnaires. After the data was ready for analyses it was converted to the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (Version 21), processed by a statistician of the North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus) and interpreted by the researcher.

Descriptive statistics were used focusing on the graphical display of frequency tables and figures providing information on the demographic profile and travel behaviour of the respondents. The internal consistency of the scale used in the measuring instrument was determined by the Cronbach Alpha coefficient and therefore indicates the reliability of the instrument.

*Factor analyses* were used to identify specific safety experience factors as well as specific travel motivation factors. A factor analysis is a data-reduction technique whereby a large set of variables are reduced to a smaller set of factors (Pallant 2010:181). It determines the patterns in the variations of a number of variables and uses complex statistical calculations to determine the patterns.



*Spearman Rank order correlations* were used to determine the factors influencing safety experience factors with reference to age, frequency of holidaying, average duration of the holiday, number of weekend trips and travel motivations. Spearman Rank order correlations is a standardised measure of the strength of the relationship between two variables that do not rely on the assumptions of a parametric test (Field 2005:745). It can thus be used when the data have violated parametric assumptions such as non-normally distributed data.

An independent *t*-test was conducted to explore the influence of gender, being a previous victim of crime and marital status on respondents' assessment of safety experience factors and travel motivation factors. A *t*-test is used to compare the means score on some continuous variable for two different groups. The *t*-test indicates to the researcher where there is a statistically significant difference in the mean score of the two groups (Pallant 2010:240).

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the effect of home language and occupation on the safety experience factors and travel motivation factors of Sasolburg residents. The ANOVA is used to compare the mean scores of more than two groups. This involves one independent variable (referred to as a factor) which has a number of different levels. These levels correspond with the different groups of conditions. It compares the variance between the groups with the variability within each of these groups (Pallant 2010:249).

#### **4.6 CONCLUSION**

The purpose of this chapter was to describe the research methodology used to address the research problem. Attention was paid to the way in which the literature study was conducted and how it added value to the study. This research followed a descriptive research design, which was based on quantitative research. A well-structured plan was followed which was successfully executed. Three hundred and eighty questionnaires distributed in Sasolburg were part of the data analyses.

The analyses were done by frequency tables and figures, Factor analyses, Spearman rank order correlations, *t*-tests and ANOVAs. After the discussion of the research methodology the following chapter presents the results of this study.

# **CHAPTER 5**

## **EMPIRICAL RESULTS**

### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this study is to investigate the perceptions of Sasolburg residents regarding tourist safety and security in South Africa and to provide insight into current perspectives of residents and advise on strategies regarding the improvement of these perceptions. Concerns about safety and security in South Africa can hamper travel since tourism is irrevocably bound up with the concept of security. Tourism demand decreases as the perceptions of risks associated with a destination increase, as has been seen with America and the September 11<sup>th</sup> 2001 attack. The opinions of domestic tourists on how to make South Africa a safer tourism destination will also be considered since more and more South Africans can and want to travel. To analyse these aspects four hundred and fifty questionnaires were distributed among residents of Sasolburg as case study, of which 400 were completed in full and could be captured and analysed in SPSS (Version 21).

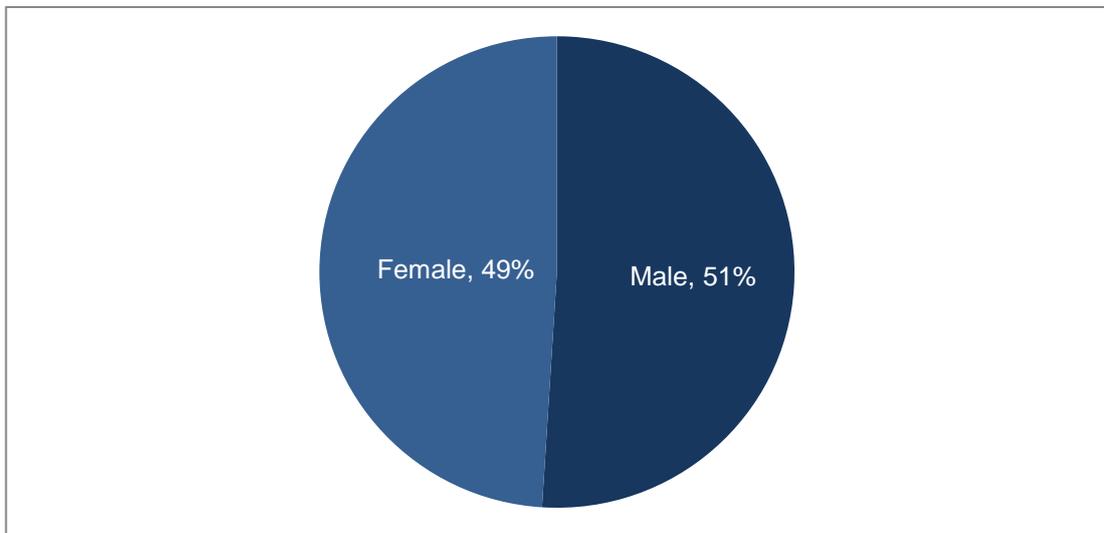
The main aim of this chapter is to present the analyses and discussion of the survey. This will be done by firstly discussing the profile of respondents by means of frequency figures and tables. This is then followed by presenting the descriptive results focusing on the factor analyses of the travel preferences and perceptions of crime factors, as well as one way ANOVA's and Spearman Rank Correlations.

### **5.2 DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS**

To enrich the understanding of the context and the reality of the participating respondents, a descriptive summary of the socio-demographic characteristics is presented in this section, and of their travel preferences.

## 5.2.1 Socio-demographic results

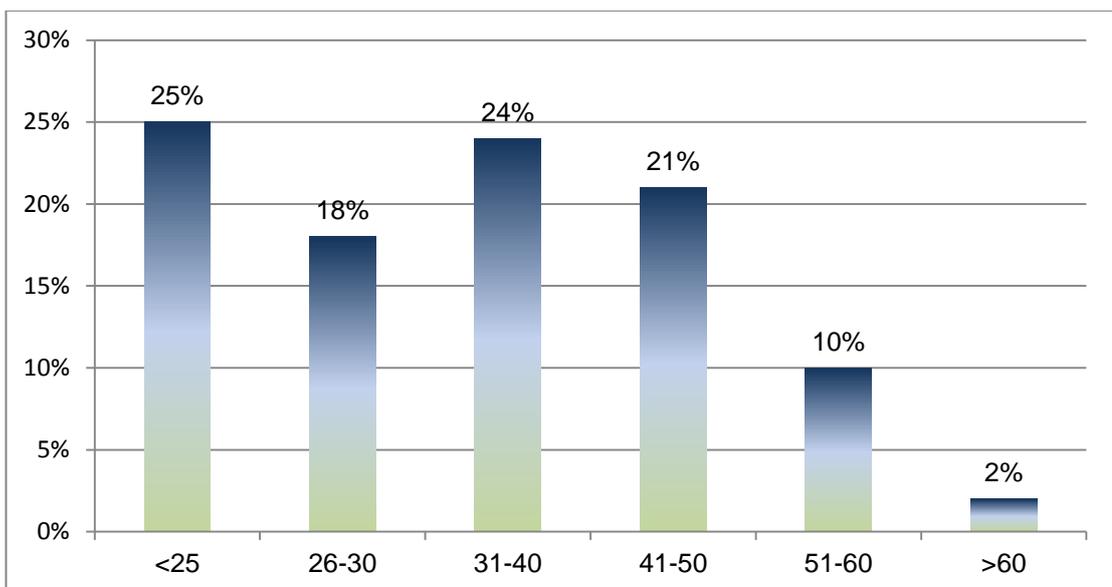
### 5.2.1.1 Gender



**Figure 5.1: Gender**

From Figure 5.1 it is evident that 51% of the respondents were male and 49% were female. This indicates a fairly even distribution of the gender groupings that participated and provides an even view of their perceptions of safety whilst travelling in South Africa.

### 5.2.1.2 Age distribution



**Figure 5.2: Age**

From Figure 5.2 it is evident that respondents younger than 25 years accounted for 25% of the respondents. Those between ages 26 and 30 years accounted for 24%, and respondents between ages 41 and 50 were represented at 21%. Respondents between 51 and 60 years of age accounted for 10% and respondents over the age of 60 were 2%. The average age of respondents that participated in this study is 36.83 years which also forms part of the major travelling market in South Africa.

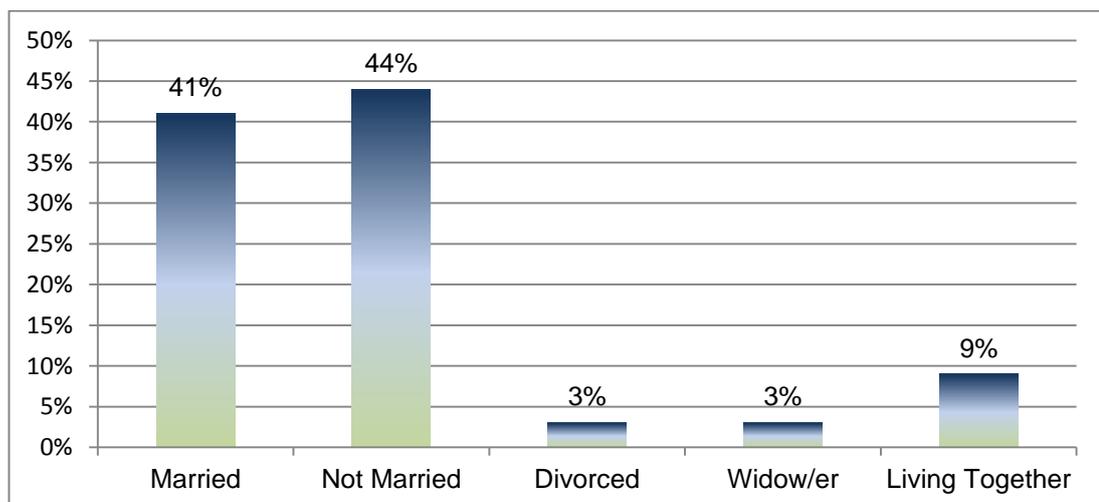
### 5.2.1.3 Occupation

**Table 5.1: Occupation**

OCCUPATION	PERCENTAGE	OCCUPATION	PERCENTAGE
Students	18%	Sales	6%
Professional	14%	Civil Service	6%
Other	9%	Unemployed	6%
Technical	8%	Self-employed	4%
Administrative	8%	Housewife	3%
Education	8%	Mining	2%
Management	6%	Pensioner	2%

Table 5.1 reveals that the largest group of respondents were students (18%), closely followed by respondents in professional occupations with 14%, and the 'other' category at 9% referring to occupations such as arts and crafts. Most of the major occupations were represented in the survey.

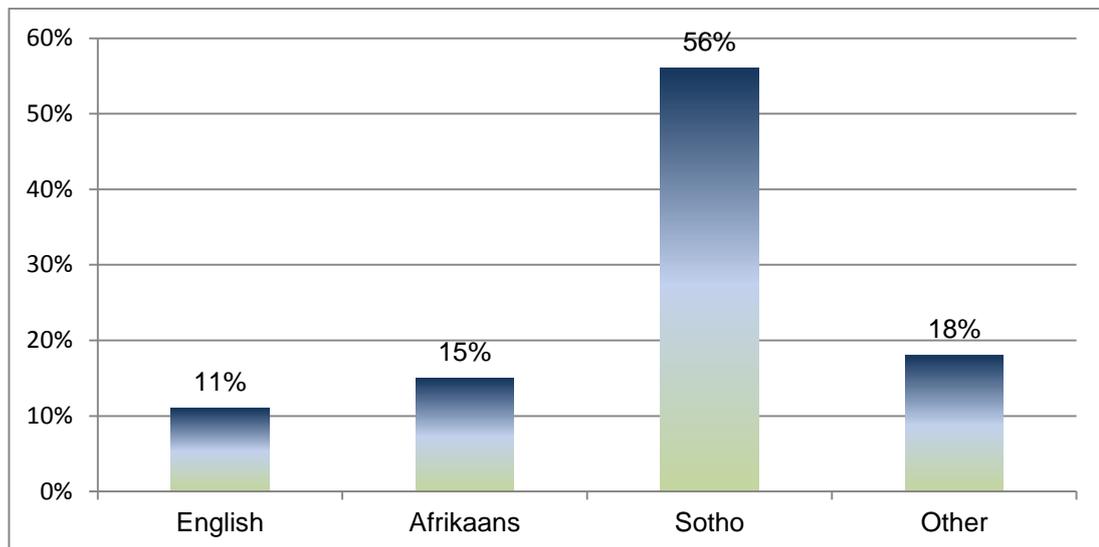
### 5.2.1.4 Marital Status



**Figure 5.3: Marital status**

From Figure 5.3 it is evident that unmarried respondents are represented with 44%, while married respondents are represented at 41% as the two main categories. This is also a fairly even spread between these two major categories.

### 5.2.1.5 Home Language



**Figure 5.4: Home language**

From Figure 5.4, it can be seen that there is a strong representation of Sotho-speaking people in the research area (56%). Fifteen percent of the sample was Afrikaans-speaking respondents, followed by English-speaking people at 11% and other languages at 18%. The black travelling market in South Africa is now expanding and thus their opinions are important regarding the safety whilst travelling in this country.

## 5.2.2 Travel preferences

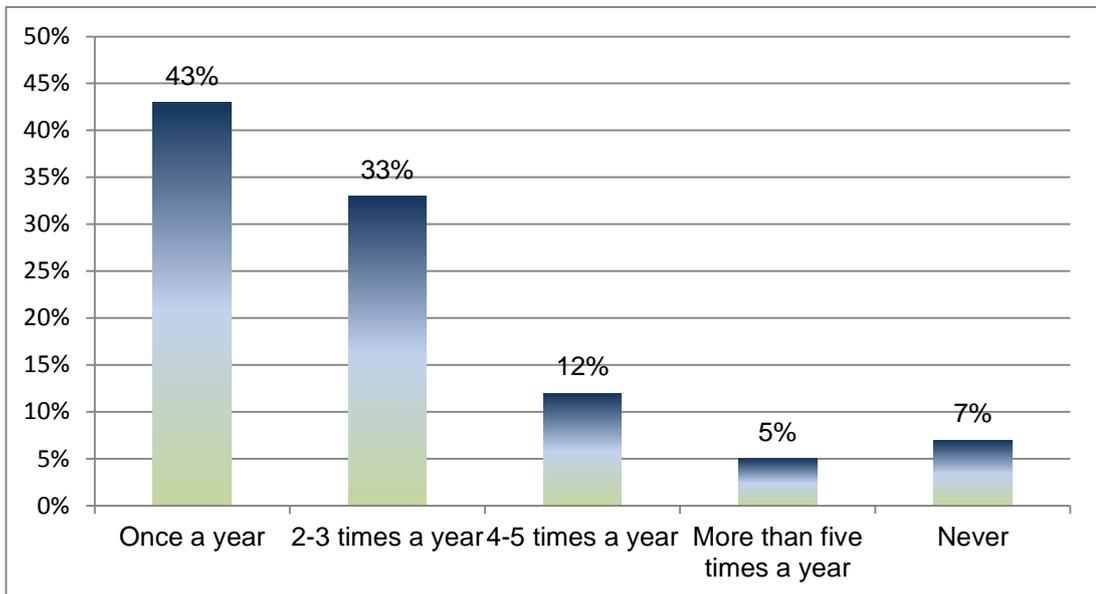
Since the research aims to establish the perceptions of visitors regarding the relationship between safety and security (crime) and travelling in the country the following section focuses on the travel preferences of the respondents.

### 5.2.2.1 Holidays

#### a. Frequency of holidays

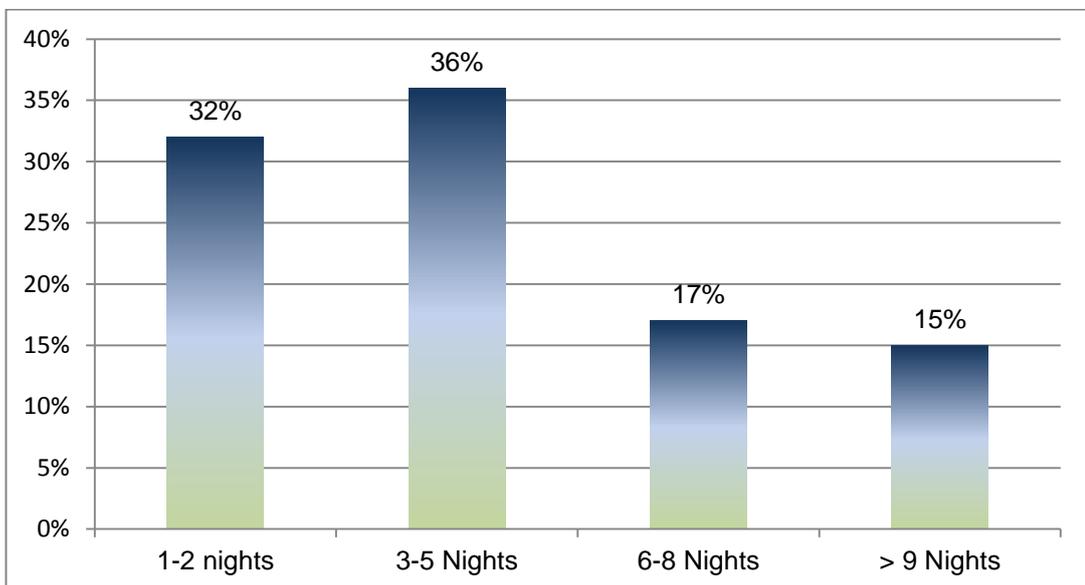
Figure 5.5 reflects that 43% of respondents go on holiday once a year, 33% of respondents go on holiday between 2 and 3 times a year, 12% of respondents are

travelling between 4 and 5 times a year while 5% is travelling more than 5 times a year. Seven percent of the respondents do not travel.



**Figure 5.5: Frequency of holidays**

**b. Duration of holiday trips**



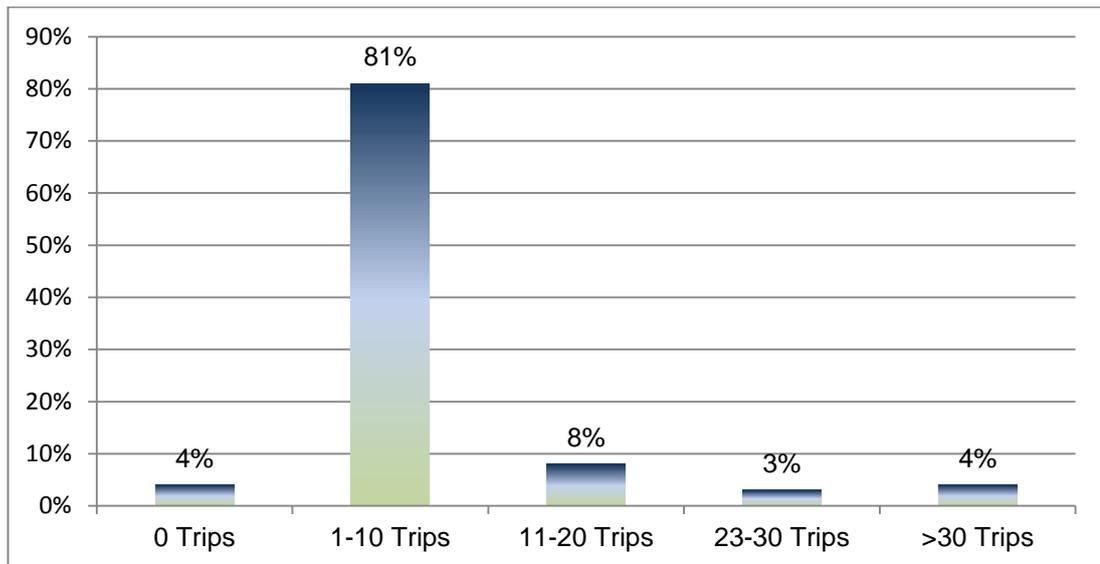
**Figure 5.6: Average duration of holiday trips**

Figure 5.6 indicates that 36% of respondents are spending an average of 3 to 5 nights whilst on holiday, 32% are spending between 1 and 2 nights, while 17% are

spending an average of 6 to 8 nights whilst on holiday. Fifteen percent of the respondents are spending more than 9 nights when on holiday.

### 5.2.2.2 Weekend trips

#### a. Frequency of weekend trips



**Figure 5.7: Number of weekend trips per year**

From Figure 5.7 it is clear that 81% of the respondents undertake 1 to 10 weekend trips per year while 8% of respondents take between 11 and 20 trips, 4% take more than 30 weekend trips per year whilst 4% take no weekend trips.

### 5.2.2.3 Amenities

#### a. Type of accommodation

From Table 5.2 it can be deduced that staying with relatives whilst on holiday is very popular among this sample (30%). However, this is a concern since it directly influences the sustainability of accommodation establishments. Paid accommodation accounted for hotels (21%), guest houses (20%) and holiday homes (15%). A variety of accommodation types are preferred by respondents.

**Table 5.2: Types of accommodation**

TYPE OF ACCOMMODATION	PERCENTAGE <sup>2</sup>	TYPE OF ACCOMMODATION	PERCENTAGE
Relatives	30%	Chalet	11%
Hotel	21%	Camping	6%
Guest house	20%	Back packer	4%
Holiday home	15%	Other	1%

**b. Type of transport**

**Table 5.3: Types of transport**

TYPE OF TRANSPORT	PERCENTAGE <sup>3</sup>	TYPE OF TRANSPORT	PERCENTAGE
Car	68%	Motorcycle	1%
Bus	13%	Aeroplane	10%
Taxi	12%	Train	2%

Table 5.3 reveals that 68% of respondents use cars when going on holiday. Buses are used by 13% of the respondents, taxis are used by 12%, and aeroplanes are used by 10% while trains are only used by 2% of the respondents. These findings also link up with the general travel patterns of South Africans.

**5.2.2 Crime related to the tourism industry**

**a. Perceptions of crime whilst travelling**

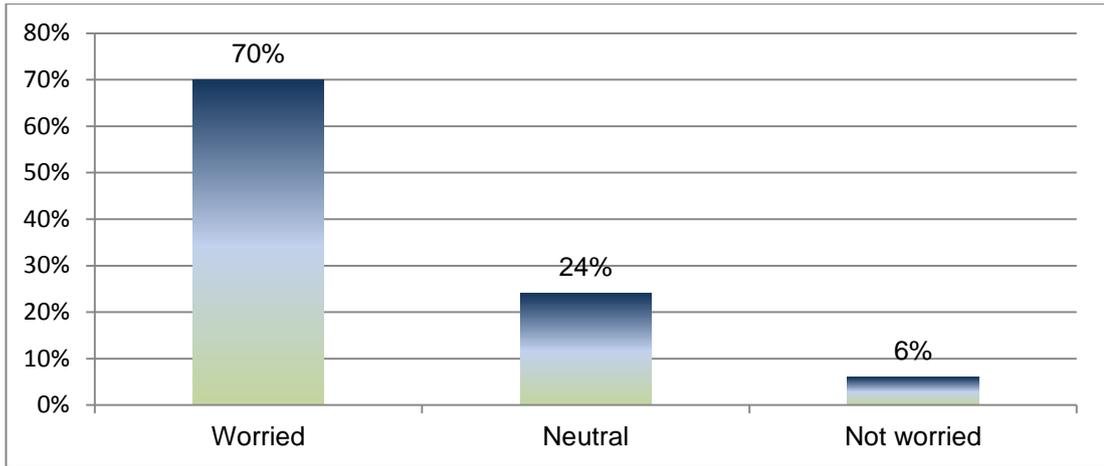
Figure 5.8 shows that 70% of the respondents are concerned about crime when travelling, with only 6% not concerned about crime. This should be of great concern to the tourism industry.

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<sup>2</sup> Respondents could choose more than one option and therefore the total does not calculate to 100%

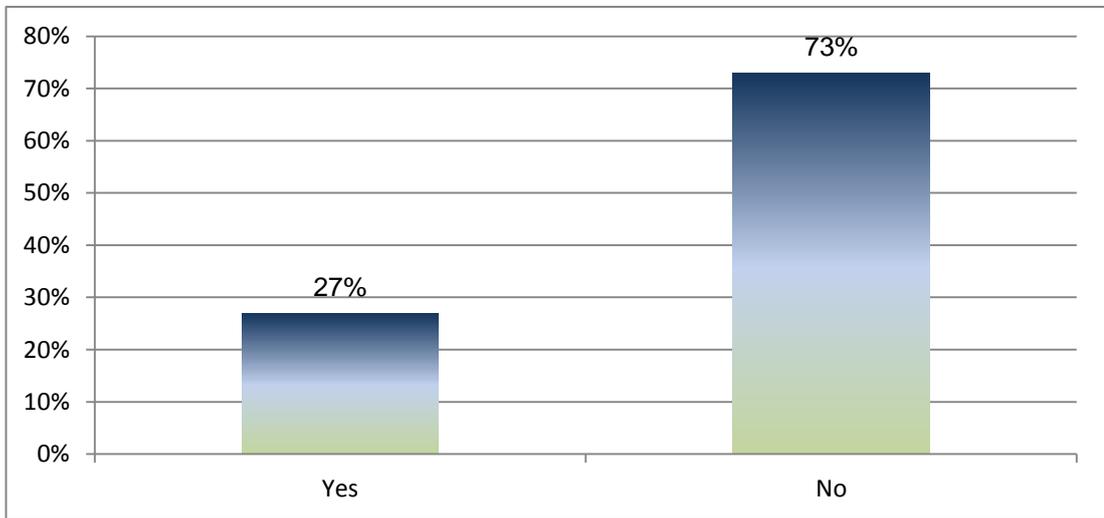
<sup>3</sup> Respondents could choose more than one option and therefore the total does not calculate to 100%





**Figure 5.8: Perceptions of crime**

**b. Previous victim of crime**



**Figure 5.9: Previous victim of crime**

Even though respondents are concerned about crime, only 27% of the respondents have been a victim of crime. From Figure 5.9 it is evident that 73% of respondents have not been victims of crime in their personal capacity.

**c. Level of safety concern while travelling**

**Assault:**

From Table 5.4 it is evident that 11% of respondents were *not at all concerned* regarding exposure to assault while travelling in South Africa, 13% of respondents were *not concerned* and 32% were *concerned* while **44%** were *very concerned* regarding exposure to assault when travelling in South Africa.

**Table 5.4: Level of safety concern while travelling**

	NOT AT ALL CONCERNED	NOT CONCERNED	CONCERNED	VERY CONCERNED
Assault	11%	13%	32%	<b>44%</b>
Mugging	7%	11%	35%	<b>47%</b>
Murder	7%	11%	25%	<b>57%</b>
Rape	10%	10%	21%	<b>59%</b>
Robbery	4%	5%	32%	<b>59%</b>
Theft	4%	6%	29%	<b>61%</b>

### **Mugging:**

It is also evident that 7% of respondents were *not at all concerned* about the possibility of being mugged, 11% were *not concerned* while 35% were *concerned* and **47%** of respondents were *very concerned about possibly being mugged*.

### **Murder:**

Table 5.4 indicates that 7% of respondents were *not at all concerned* about the possibility of murder when travelling, 11% were *not concerned* and 25% indicated that they *were concerned* while the majority (**57%**) were *very concerned* about the possibility of being murdered while travelling.

### **Rape:**

It is also evident that 10% of the respondents were *not at all concerned* regarding exposure to rape, 10% were also *not concerned*, 21% were *concerned* while **59%** were *very concerned* regarding exposure to rape when travelling in the country.

### **Robbery**

Table 5.4 indicates that 4% of respondents were *not at all concerned* regarding exposure to robbery when travelling in South Africa, 5% were *not concerned* when travelling, 32% were *concerned* while the remaining **59%** stated that they were *very concerned* regarding exposure to robbery when travelling in South Africa.

### **Theft**

It is evident that 4% of respondents were *not at all concerned* regarding exposure to theft when travelling in South Africa, 6% of respondents were *not concerned*, 29%

were *concerned* regarding theft while **61%** were *very concerned* regarding exposure to theft when travelling in South Africa.

It can be summarised that respondents were *concerned to very concerned* about exposure to the following crimes:

- **Robbery**                      **91%**
- **Theft**                              **90%**
- Mugging                          82%
- Murder                            82%
- Rape                                80%
- Assault                            76%

#### d. Level of safety concern in general

**Table 5.5: Level of safety concern in general**

	NOT AT ALL CONCERNED	NOT CONCERNED	CONCERNED	VERY CONCERNED
Assault	7%	13%	28%	<b>52%</b>
Mugging	6%	12%	30%	<b>52%</b>
Murder	6%	10%	21%	<b>63%</b>
Rape	7%	9%	19%	<b>65%</b>
Robbery	4%	6%	25%	<b>65%</b>
Theft	5%	6%	24%	<b>65%</b>

#### **Assault:**

It is evident from Table 5.5 that 7% of respondents were *not at all concerned* regarding exposure to assault in South Africa in general, 13% were *not concerned*, 28% were *concerned* while **52%** of respondents were *very concerned* about assault in South Africa in general.

#### **Mugging:**

Six percent of the respondents were *not at all concerned* about being mugged in South Africa, 12% were *not concerned* and 30% were *concerned* while the remaining **52%** were *very concerned* about being mugged in South Africa in general.

**Murder:**

It was found that 6% of respondents were *not at all concerned* regarding exposure to murder in South Africa, 10% were *not concerned*, 21% were *concerned* while **63%** were *very concerned* regarding exposure to murder in the country in general.

**Rape:**

According to Table 5.5, 7% of respondents were *not at all concerned* regarding exposure to rape in South Africa, 9% were *not concerned*, 19% of respondents were *concerned* while **65%** were *very concerned* regarding exposure to rape in the country.

**Robbery:**

From the figure above it is also evident that about 4% of respondents were *not at all concerned* regarding exposure to robbery, 6% were *not concerned* and 25% of respondents were *concerned* while the remaining 65% were *very concerned* when travelling in South Africa in general.

**Theft**

According to the above figure it is evident that approximately 5% of the respondents were *not at all concerned* regarding exposure to theft when travelling, about 6% were *not concerned* and 24% were *concerned* while the remaining 65% were *very concerned*.

It is evident from the above findings that respondents are in general very concerned about their safety in South African in general as well as when travelling.

**e. Suggestions for making South Africa a safer tourism destination**

Respondents made the following collective comments on the improvement of South Africa as a tourism destination:

- Installation of CCTV cameras at all tourist destinations;
- Policing:
  - Employment of more police officers;
  - More police visibility;
  - More security guards around tourist attractions;
  - More satellite police stations;
  - Constant police patrol in designated tourist attractions;

- Specialised tourism police officers;
- Visibility of traffic officers on the roads
- Provide security guards for tourist groups
- Education:
  - Educate South African citizens concerning the importance of tourism
  - Educate tourists concerning safety and security issues
  - Provide tourists with safety tips
- More crime prevention awareness programs
- Joint crime prevention programs by SANDF and SAPS
- Encourage all tourism stakeholders to take part in a fight against crime
- Strict migration laws
- Improved governance
- Encourage inter-governmental interventions
- Harsh sentences by the justice system.
- Improve neighbourhood watch patrols
- Encourage tourists to carry pepper sprays on them for self-defence.

**f. Sense of safety during previous holiday**

**Table 5.6: Sense of safety during the last holiday in SA**

	<b>VERY SAFE</b>	<b>SAFE</b>	<b>UNSAFE</b>	<b>VERY UNSAFE</b>	<b>NOT APPLICABLE</b>
<b>Using public transport</b>	9%	<b>38%</b>	30%	16%	7%
<b>Accommodation</b>	18%	<b>62%</b>	12%	7%	1%
<b>Driving during the day</b>	17%	<b>57%</b>	17%	7%	2%
<b>Driving at night while travelling</b>	6%	34%	<b>36%</b>	21%	3%
<b>Attending events</b>	8%	<b>54%</b>	27%	9%	2%
<b>Walking the streets in the day</b>	9%	<b>56%</b>	25%	9%	1%
<b>Walking the streets in the evening</b>	5%	15%	<b>46%</b>	32%	2%
<b>Visiting shopping malls</b>	14%	<b>56%</b>	22%	7%	1%
<b>Dining out when on</b>	11%	<b>63%</b>	19%	6%	1%

<b>holiday</b>					
<b>Visiting tourism attractions</b>	16%	<b>56%</b>	19%	7%	2%
<b>Travelling in SA in general</b>	10%	<b>44%</b>	29%	13%	4%

Table 5.15 highlights the sense of safety of the respondents during their last holiday in South Africa. It is eminent that 63% of the respondents felt it was safe when dining out, 62% thought that it was safe at the accommodation establishments and 57% indicated that they felt safe whilst driving during the day. Thirty six percent of the respondents indicated that they felt unsafe whilst driving at night and 46% regarded it unsafe to walk the streets in the evening.

Even though South Africans were in many cases concerned about their safety in general and whilst travelling, they do consider this country a safe destination in many instances.

#### **g. Travel motivations**

**Table: 5.7: Travel motivations**

	<b>NOT AT ALL IMPORTANT</b>	<b>LESS IMPORTANT</b>	<b>IMPORTANT</b>	<b>VERY IMPORTANT</b>	<b>EXTREMELY IMPORTANT</b>
<b>To be together as a group of friends</b>	3%	11%	30%	21%	<b>35%</b>
<b>To do exciting things</b>	2%	8%	31%	21%	<b>38%</b>
<b>To do something out of the ordinary</b>	6%	12%	26%	23%	<b>33%</b>
<b>To escape from a busy environment</b>	5%	11%	28%	20%	<b>36%</b>
<b>To experience different lifestyles</b>	2%	9%	28%	25%	<b>36%</b>
<b>To explore new</b>	2%	4%	28%	25%	<b>41%</b>

<b>destinations</b>					
<b>To get refreshed</b>	1%	4%	21%	26%	<b>48%</b>
<b>To get together as a family</b>	1%	3%	22%	18%	<b>56%</b>
<b>To have fun</b>	1%	6%	22%	24%	<b>47%</b>
<b>To learn more about my country</b>	3%	6%	22%	26%	<b>43%</b>
<b>To learn new things</b>	1%	5%	21%	31%	<b>42%</b>
<b>To meet people with similar interests</b>	5%	12%	30%	21%	<b>32%</b>
<b>To participate in entertainment</b>	3%	11%	31%	19%	<b>36%</b>
<b>To participate in recreation activities</b>	3%	16%	29%	21%	<b>31%</b>
<b>To relax</b>	2%	5%	25%	24%	<b>44%</b>
<b>To relax from daily tension</b>	2%	8%	22%	27%	<b>41%</b>
<b>To rest physically</b>	2%	5%	26%	21%	<b>46%</b>
<b>To share a familiar of unfamiliar place</b>	4%	7%	34%	20%	<b>35%</b>
<b>To spend time with friends</b>	3%	11%	30%	18%	<b>38%</b>
<b>To study</b>	16%	16%	20%	17%	<b>31%</b>

Respondents rated the following travel motivations as very to extremely important in their holiday decision making:

- To get refreshed: 74%
- To get together as a family: 74%
- To learn new things: 73%
- To have fun: 71%
- To learn more about the country: 69%
- To relax: 68%

- To relax from daily tension: 68%
- To rest physically: 67%

### 5.3 EXPLORATORY RESULTS

The following section focuses on in-depth analyses of the experience of safety, travel motivations and other related variables to better understand the respondents' perceptions of safety in South Africa whilst travelling.

#### 5.3.1 Experience of safety: Factor analysis

A factor analysis was conducted on the 11 safety experience items to identify the underlying dimensions in the experience of safety and to group the variables into factors. The extraction method utilised is the principal axis factoring and the rotation method followed is Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Following these methods, three factors were identified from the 11 items with eigenvalues greater than 1.0.

These factors explained 65% of the variance and were labelled: Factor 1: Day-time activities, Factor 2: Night-time experiences and Factor 3: Infrastructure. All variables had factor loadings of over 0.35. Reliability (Cronbach Alpha values) was computed to verify the internal consistency of aspects in each factor. All factors with a Cronbach Alpha above 0.65 were deemed acceptable for purposes of this study. The closer the Cronbach Alphas are to 1, the higher the internal reliability. Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) was 0.898, which is highly acceptable. The Kaiser-Meyer Olkin test (KMO) assesses the degree of relationship between the sets of the variables and compares the magnitude of the observed correlations to the magnitude of the partial correlation (Merkle, Layne, Loomberg & Zhang 1998:208).

**Table 5.8 Factor analysis for safety experience**

FACTOR LABEL	FACTOR 1: DAY-TIME ACTIVITIES	FACTOR 2: NIGHT-TIME EXPERIENCES	FACTOR 3: INFRA- STRUCTURE
Dinning out	.852		
Shopping malls	.841		
Visiting tourism attractions	.836		
Walking the street during the day	.610		
Attending events	.517		
Driving during the day while	.363		



travelling			
Driving during the night		.969	
Walking the street during the evening		.409	
Travelling in South Africa in general			.226
Accommodation			.281
Using public transport			.802
<b>Cronbach Alpha</b>	.865	.685	.655
<b>Mean value (Standard deviation)</b>	2.28 ( $\pm 0.64$ )	<b>2.98 (<math>\pm 0.79</math>)</b>	2.47 ( $\pm 0.74$ )

The most unsafe experiences for respondents were the night-time experience with a mean value of 2.98 (SD=  $\pm 0.79$ ). Activities such as driving at night and walking the streets at night were included in this factor.

### 5.3.2 Travel motivations: Factor analysis

In order to determine if whether a relationship exists between travel motivations and perceptions of safety it firstly was necessary to conduct a factor analysis on travel motivations. Thus, a factor analysis was conducted on the 20 travel motivation items to identify the underlying dimensions in travel motivation and to group the variables into factors. The extraction method utilised is principal axis factoring and the rotation method was Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Four factors were identified from the 20 items with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. These factors explained 70% of the variance and were labelled: Factor 1: Exploration, Factor 2: Learning, Factor: 3 Social group activities and Factor 4: Relaxation.

All variables had factor loadings of over 0.26. Reliability (Cronbach's) was computed to verify the internal consistency of aspects in each factor. All factors with a Cronbach Alpha above 0.72 were deemed acceptable for purposes of this study. The closer the Cronbach Alphas are to 1, the higher the internal reliability. Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) was .937, which is highly acceptable.

**Table 5.9: Travel motivations: Factor analysis**

FACTOR LABEL	FACTOR 1: EXPLORATION	FACTOR 2: LEARNING	FACTOR 3: SOCIAL GROUP ACTIVITIES	FACTOR 4: RELAXATION
To seek adventure	.833			
To explore new destinations	.702			
To share familiar & unfamiliar places	.701			
To experience different lifestyle	.587			
To meet people with similar interests	.547			
To learn more about my country		.653		
To learn new things		.577		
To study		.486		
To gather as group of friends			.818	
To spend time with friends			.799	
To participate in recreational activities			.625	
To participate in entertainment			.437	
To do something out of the ordinary			.376	
To get refreshed				.669
To rest physically				.589
To have fun				.478
To relax				.449
To get together as a family				.445
To relax from daily tension				.416
To escape from a busy environment				.261
<b>Cronbach Alpha</b>	.896	.722	.896	.901
<b>Mean values</b>	3.85 (± 0.88)	3.79 (±0.94)	3.71 (±0.95)	<b>4.12 (±0.82)</b>

Relaxation was considered to be the most important travel motivator (M=4.12) for the respondents and consisted of items such as getting refreshed, rest physically, to have fun and to relax. This also corresponds with other studies that indicated that South Africans mainly travel to relax and rest.

### **5.3.3 Factors influencing perceptions of safety experience and travel motivations**

#### **5.3.3.1 Spearman rank order correlations for safety experience and travel motivation factors with selected variables**

Spearman rank order correlations were used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables – in this case between the safety experience factors, the travel motivation factors and age, frequency of holidaying, average duration of holiday, number of weekend trips and feelings towards crime in South Africa. The purpose is to determine whether these variables influence one another in any respect. This will influence planning regarding the management of these perceptions in the future. A correlation of 0 indicates no relationship at all, a correlation of 1.0 indicates a perfect positive correlation and a value of -1.0 indicates a perfect negative correlation. The correlations were interpreted according to the guidelines of Cohen (1988) that suggested: small  $\rho = .10-.29$ , medium  $\rho = .30-.49$  and large  $\rho = .50-1.0$ .

**Table 5.10: Spearman rank order correlations**

		SAFETY EXPERIENCES			TRAVEL MOTIVATIONS			
		DAY-TIME ACTIVITIES	NIGHT-TIME ACTIVITIES	INFRA- STRUCTURE	EXPLORATION	LEARNING	SOCIAL GROUP ACTIVITIES	RELAXATION
<b>AGE</b>	Correlation Coefficient	<b>.131**</b>	.081	<b>.158**</b>	.033	.033	-.061	.036
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009	.104	.001	.505	.511	.226	.471
	N	400	400	400	400	400	400	400
<b>FREQUENCY OF HOLIDAYING</b>	Correlation Coefficient	.062	-.063	.109*	<b>.185**</b>	<b>.181**</b>	<b>.231**</b>	<b>.155**</b>
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.215	.206	.029	.000	.000	.000	.002
	N	400	400	400	400	400	400	400
<b>AVERAGE DURATION OF HOLIDAYS</b>	Correlation Coefficient	<b>-.176**</b>	<b>-.201**</b>	<b>-.200**</b>	<b>-.122*</b>	<b>-.102*</b>	-.096	<b>-.101*</b>
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.015	.042	.054	.044
	N	399	399	399	399	399	399	399
<b>NUMBER OF WEEKEND TRIPS</b>	Correlation Coefficient	<b>-.102*</b>	<b>-.101*</b>	<b>-.116*</b>	<b>-.148**</b>	-.059	<b>-.110*</b>	<b>-.136**</b>
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.042	.044	.021	.003	.240	.028	.007
	N	399	399	399	399	399	399	399

<b>DAY-TIME ACTIVITIES</b>	Correlation Coefficient	<b>1.000</b>	.524**	.587**	<b>.093</b>	<b>.080</b>	<b>.013</b>	<b>.065</b>
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.062	.112	.797	.196
	N	400	400	400	400	400	400	400
<b>NIGHT-TIME ACTIVITIES</b>	Correlation Coefficient	<b>.524**</b>	1.000	<b>.419**</b>	-.058	-.065	<b>-.188**</b>	.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.249	.195	.000	.804
	N	400	400	400	400	400	400	400
<b>INFRA- STRUCTURE</b>	Correlation Coefficient	<b>.587**</b>	<b>.419**</b>	1.000	<b>.267**</b>	<b>.170**</b>	<b>.205**</b>	<b>.298**</b>
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.001	.000	.000
	N	400	400	400	400	400	400	400
<b>EXPLORATION</b>	Correlation Coefficient	.093	-.058	<b>.267**</b>	1.000	<b>.645**</b>	<b>.768**</b>	<b>.791**</b>
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.062	.249	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	400	400	400	400	400	400	400
<b>LEARNING</b>	Correlation Coefficient	.080	-.065	<b>.170**</b>	<b>.645**</b>	1.000	<b>.675**</b>	<b>.595**</b>
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.112	.195	.001	.000		.000	.000
	N	400	400	400	400	400	400	400
<b>SOCIAL GROUP</b>	Correlation Coefficient	.013	<b>-.188**</b>	<b>.205**</b>	<b>.768**</b>	<b>.675**</b>	1.000	<b>.756**</b>

<b>ACTIVITIES</b>	Sig. (2-tailed)	.797	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	400	400	400	400	400	400	400
<b>RELAXATION</b>	Correlation Coefficient	.065	.012	<b>.298**</b>	<b>.791**</b>	<b>.595**</b>	<b>.756**</b>	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.196	.804	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	400	400	400	400	400	400	400

\*\**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)*

\**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)*

### **Safety experiences whilst travelling:**

Small correlations were found between age and safety experiences whilst travelling. It is evident from Table 5.10 that the older respondents are, the more unsafe they felt about day-time activities ( $r_s=0.131$ ) in South Africa as well as the use of infrastructure, such as transport and accommodation ( $r_s=0.158$ ).

Small negative correlations were found between the duration of the holidays and the safety experiences. The shorter the average duration of stay the more unsafe they felt in terms of day-time activities ( $r_s=-0.176$ ), night-time activities ( $r_s=-0.201$ ) and the use of infrastructure ( $r_s=-0.200$ ).

The same finding is evident for the number of weekend trips taken by respondents. The less weekend trips these respondents took, the more unsafe they felt in terms of day-time activities ( $r_s=-0.102$ ), night-time activities ( $r_s=-0.101$ ) and the use of infrastructure ( $r_s=-0.116$ ). Large correlations exist between the various safety experience factors. The more unsafe respondents rated the day-time activities the more unsafe

they rated the night-time activities ( $r_s=0.524$ ), and the use of infrastructure ( $r_s=0.587$ ). The more unsafe respondents rated the night-time activities, the more unsafe they rated the use of infrastructure ( $r_s=0.419$ ). There is thus a direct link between the safety experiences during day-time and night-time activities as well as that of the use of infrastructure.

***Travel motivations:***

According to Table 5.10, age did not have an influence on the reasons for going on holiday. However, small correlations were found between the frequency of holidaying and the various travel motivations. The more respondents went on holiday, the more important they rated the following reasons for travelling: exploration ( $r_s=0.185$ ), learning ( $r_s=0.181$ ), social group activities ( $r_s=0.231$ ) and relaxation ( $r_s=0.155$ ).

Small negative correlations were also found between the average duration of the holiday and the various travel motivations. The shorter the average duration of the holiday, the more important it was for respondents to explore ( $r_s=-0.122$ ), learn ( $r_s=-0.102$ ) and relax ( $r_s=-0.101$ ). This was the same in the case of the number of weekend trips undertaken. The less the number of weekend trips, the more important it was for the respondents to explore ( $r_s=-0.148$ ), participate in social group activities ( $r_s=-0.110$ ) and relax ( $r_s=-0.136$ ). It seems that respondents want to get as much done as they can within a certain period of time.

### 5.3.3.2 The influence of gender, a victim of crime and marital status on respondents' assessment of safety factors and travel motivation factors

An independent *t*-test was conducted to explore the impact of gender on the identified variables, and the effect sizes for the difference between means were calculated and interpreted.

Ellis and Steyn (2003:2) state that a natural way of commenting on practical significance is by using the absolute difference between the groups (for example age: (1) 87 – 67; (2) 66 – 57; (3) 56 – 47) divided by square root of the mean square error. This measure is called an effect size, which not only makes the difference independent of units and sample size, but also relates it to the spread of the data (Steyn 1999 and Steyn 2000, as quoted by Ellis and Steyn 2003:2).

Cohen (as quoted by Ellis and Steyn 2003:3) gives the following guidelines for the interpretation of the effect size in the current study:

- Small effect:  $d=0.2$
- Medium effect:  $d=0.5$  and
- Large effect:  $d=0.8$ .

Data with  $d \geq 0.8$  is practically significant, since it is the result of a difference having a large effect.

#### *T*-test for gender

**Table 5.11: T-test for comparison of identified variables with gender**

	MALE (N=202)	FEMALE (N=198)		
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	P-value	Effect Size
<b>DAY-TIME ACTIVITIES</b>	2.20 (±0.58)	2.36 (±0.69)	<b>0.018*</b>	0.22
<b>NIGHT-TIME ACTIVITIES</b>	2.88 (±0.75)	3.04 (±0.82)	<b>0.048*</b>	0.19
<b>INFRASTRUCTURE</b>	2.44 (±0.72)	2.49 (±0.76)	0.490	0.07
<b>EXPLORATION</b>	3.86 (±0.90)	3.86 (±0.87)	0.988	0.00
<b>LEARNING</b>	3.80 (±0.96)	3.80 (±0.93)	0.966	0.00
<b>SOCIAL GROUP ACTIVITIES</b>	3.75 (±0.97)	3.70 (±0.94)	0.549	0.06
<b>RELAXATION</b>	4.12 (±0.84)	4.14 (±0.81)	0.785	0.03

$p < 0.05$  \*



The independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the safety experience factors and the travel motivation factors for males and females. Table 5.11 shows significant statistical differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) between males and females for two safety experience factors. Females rated the day-time activities ( $M = 2.36$ ;  $SD = \pm 0.69$ ;  $d = 0.22$ ) and the night-time activities ( $M = 3.04$ ;  $SD = \pm 0.82$ ;  $d = 0.19$ ) more unsafe than males. Since so many females travel independently this is a factor that needs to be addressed for this group of respondents to travel with ease through South Africa. Greenberg and Ruback (1992) found that women were more fearful of crime either as a result of perceived vulnerability compounded by sexual risk or by differences in acknowledging fear.

### ***T-test for being a victim of crime***

**Table 5.12: T-test for comparison of identified variables with being a victim of crime**

	<b>YES (N=109)</b>	<b>NO (N=288)</b>		
	<b>Mean &amp; Std dev</b>	<b>Mean &amp; Std dev</b>	<b>P-value</b>	<b>Effect Size</b>
<b>DAY-TIME ACTIVITIES</b>	2.36 ( $\pm 0.70$ )	2.25 ( $\pm 0.62$ )	0.138	0.15
<b>NIGHT-TIME ACTIVITIES</b>	2.95 ( $\pm 0.77$ )	2.97 ( $\pm 0.80$ )	0.814	0.03
<b>INFRASTRUCTURE</b>	2.61 ( $\pm 0.78$ )	2.42 ( $\pm 0.72$ )	<b>0.022*</b>	0.24
<b>EXPLORATION</b>	4.11 ( $\pm 0.88$ )	3.77 ( $\pm 0.87$ )	<b>0.000*</b>	0.40
<b>LEARNING</b>	4.02 ( $\pm 0.94$ )	3.70 ( $\pm 0.94$ )	<b>0.004*</b>	0.33
<b>SOCIAL GROUP ACTIVITIES</b>	4.07 ( $\pm 0.95$ )	3.60 ( $\pm 0.93$ )	<b>0.000*</b>	0.50
<b>RELAXATION</b>	4.38 ( $\pm 0.76$ )	4.03 ( $\pm 0.83$ )	<b>0.000*</b>	0.42

$p < 0.05$  \*

The independent-samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the safety experience factors and the travel motivation factors for those that have been victims of crime and those that have not. A small effect size ( $d = 0.24$ ) was found on the experience of infrastructure where those that have been victims of crime rated the unsafeness of infrastructure higher ( $M = 2.61$ ;  $SD = \pm 0.78$ ) than those that have not been victims of crime ( $M = 2.42$ ;  $SD = \pm 0.72$ ). An interesting finding is that these two groups did not differ in their evaluation of day-time- or night-time activities. This might be attributed to the significantly smaller number of respondents that have previously been victims of crime.

Significant differences (large effect sizes) were found for the travel motivations. In all cases those that have been victims of crime rated exploration (M=4.11; SD  $\pm$ 0.88), learning (M=4.02; SD= $\pm$ 0.94), social group activities (M=4.07; SD= $\pm$ 0.95) and relaxation (M=4.38; SD= $\pm$ 0.76) as more important reasons for travelling than those that have not been victims of crime. They are thus keen travellers that realise the importance of travelling and they are not deterred by the unfortunate incidences of being victims of crime.

### ***T-test for marital status***

**Table 5.13: T-test for comparison of identified variables with marital status**

	<b>MARRIED (N=161)</b>	<b>NOT MARRIED (N=175)</b>		
	<b>Mean &amp; Std dev</b>	<b>Mean &amp; Std dev</b>	<b>P-value</b>	<b>Effect Size</b>
<b>DAY-TIME ACTIVITIES</b>	2.38 ( $\pm$ 0.64)	2.19 ( $\pm$ 0.64)	<b>0.008*</b>	0.29
<b>NIGHT-TIME ACTIVITIES</b>	3.05 ( $\pm$ 0.74)	2.89 ( $\pm$ 0.83)	0.053	0.20
<b>INFRASTRUCTURE</b>	2.59 ( $\pm$ 0.72)	2.33 ( $\pm$ 0.72)	<b>0.001*</b>	0.36
<b>EXPLORATION</b>	3.92 ( $\pm$ 0.89)	3.77 ( $\pm$ 0.89)	0.108	0.18
<b>LEARNING</b>	3.80 ( $\pm$ 1.02)	3.76 ( $\pm$ 0.88)	0.679	0.04
<b>SOCIAL GROUP ACTIVITIES</b>	3.73 ( $\pm$ 1.02)	3.73 ( $\pm$ 0.88)	0.982	0.00
<b>RELAXATION</b>	4.20 ( $\pm$ 0.84)	4.03 ( $\pm$ 0.79)	0.57	0.20

p<0.05 \*

Significant differences with small effect sizes were found for safety experiences when taking marital status into consideration. Married respondents rated day-time activities (M=2.38; SD= $\pm$  0.64) as more unsafe than respondents that were unmarried (M=2.19; SD= $\pm$  0.64) with an effect size of 0.29. The same was found for infrastructure where married respondents (M=2.59; SD= $\pm$  0.72) rated infrastructure more unsafe than respondents that were unmarried (M=2.33; SD= $\pm$  0.72). Taking into account the age of the respondents, one would assume that the younger people are more explorative and do not always take into account the concerns of travelling.

### 5.3.3.3 The influence of home language and occupation on respondents' assessment of safety factors and travel motivation factors

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the effect of home language and occupation on the safety experiences and travel motivators of Sasolburg residents. The mean scores show that the factors were significantly different at the  $p < 0.001$  level of significance. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated the significant differences.

#### *ANOVA for home language*

**Table 5.14: ANOVA for comparison of factors by home language**

	<b>ENGLISH (N=42)</b>	<b>AFRIKAANS (N=60)</b>	<b>SOTHO (N=226)</b>	<b>OTHER (N=72)</b>		
	<b>Mean &amp; Std dev</b>	<b>Mean &amp; Std dev</b>	<b>Mean &amp; Std dev</b>	<b>Mean &amp; Std dev</b>	<b>F- Value</b>	<b>P- Value</b>
<b>DAY-TIME ACTIVITIES</b>	2.36 (±0.66)	2.21 (±0.66)	2.30 (±0.64)	2.25 (±0.62)	.528	.663
<b>NIGHT-TIME ACTIVITIES</b>	3.00 (±0.79)	2.83 (±0.78)	2.97 (±0.81)	3.02 (±0.74)	.687	.560
<b>INFRA- STRUCTURE</b>	2.50 (±0.74)	2.66 (±0.74)	2.42 (±0.72)	2.46 (±0.78)	1.789	.149
<b>EXPLORATION</b>	4.01 (±0.97)	3.99 (±0.95)	3.70 (±0.84)	4.19 (±0.82)	6.982	<b>.000*</b>
<b>LEARNING</b>	3.68 (±1.09)	3.63 (±1.16)	3.78 (±0.88)	4.04 (±0.80)	2.461	.062
<b>SOCIAL GROUP ACTIVITIES</b>	3.87 (±1.00)	4.03 (±0.88)	3.55 (±0.91)	3.94 (±1.01)	6.427	<b>.000*</b>
<b>RELAXATION</b>	4.33 (±0.75)	4.37 (±0.75)	3.96 (±0.84)	4.35 (±0.74)	7.939	<b>.000*</b>

No significant differences were found on the safety experiences for the respondents from different home languages. However, for exploration as travel motivation, the ANOVA revealed that Sotho respondents ( $M=3.70$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.95$ ) considered exploration less important than respondents speaking other home languages ( $M=4.19$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.82$ ).

Afrikaans-speaking respondents ( $M=4.03$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.88$ ) considered social group activities more important than Sotho-speaking ( $M=3.55$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.91$ ) respondents. Sotho-speaking respondents ( $M=3.96$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.84$ ) considered relaxation less important than English-speaking respondents ( $M=4.33$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.75$ ), Afrikaans-speaking respondents ( $M=4.37$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.75$ ) and respondents speaking other home languages ( $M=4.35$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.74$ ).

### ***ANOVA for occupation***

Significant differences (see Table 5.14) were found in terms of the factors and various types of occupations. In terms of safety experiences self-employed respondents ( $M=2.86$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.76$ ) rated infrastructure more unsafe than did students ( $M=2.21$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.74$ ).

Differences were also found for travel motivations and the various factors. In terms of exploration respondents in other types of occupations ( $M=4.40$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.81$ ) rated this travel motivator as more important than did students ( $M=3.55$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.90$ ). Respondents in other types of occupations ( $M=4.40$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.81$ ) also differed from respondents in professional occupations ( $M=3.66$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.67$ ) and respondents in technical occupations ( $M=3.68$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.71$ ) where they rated this factor in all instances more important than respondents in the other occupations.

In terms of learning, respondents in other occupations ( $M=4.38$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.87$ ) rated the importance of learning as travel motivator higher than respondents in technical occupations ( $M=3.33$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.84$ ) and professional occupations ( $M=3.49$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.85$ ). For social group activities a number of differences were identified. Respondents in professional occupations ( $M=3.25$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.85$ ) rated this travel motivator as less important than did self-employed respondents ( $M=4.17$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.89$ ) or in other types of occupations ( $M=4.30$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.96$ ). Respondents in technical occupations ( $M=3.40$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.88$ ) rated social group activities as less important than did respondents that are self-employed ( $M=4.17$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.89$ ) and in other types of occupations ( $M=4.30$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.96$ ). Lastly, respondents in administrative occupations ( $M=4.09$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.69$ ) rated social group activities as travel motivator less important than respondents that are self-employed ( $M=4.17$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.89$ ) and those in other occupations ( $M=4.30$ ;  $SD=\pm 0.96$ ).

**Table 5.14: ANOVA for comparison of factors by occupation**

	PROFESSIONAL (N=57)	MANAGEMENT (N=25)	SELF-EMPLOYED (N=17)	TECHNICAL (N=31)	SALES (N=24)	ADMINISTRATIVE (N=33)	CIVIL SERVICE (N=23)	EDUCATION (N=32)	STUDENT (N=72)	UNEMPLOYED (N=23)	OTHER OCCUPATIONS	F-Value	P-Value
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
<b>DAY-TIME ACTIVITIES</b>	2.28 (±0.63)	2.46 (±0.73)	2.53 (±0.78)	2.30 (±0.67)	2.22 (±0.61)	2.30 (±0.63)	2.22 (±0.72)	2.40 (±0.71)	2.17 (±0.59)	2.19 (±0.39)	2.26 (±0.62)	0.878	0.554
<b>NIGHT-TIME ACTIVITIES</b>	2.91 (±0.79)	3.14 (±0.71)	2.94 (±0.85)	3.02 (±0.80)	3.02 (±1.02)	3.01 (±0.75)	2.84 (±0.79)	3.28 (±0.68)	2.90 (±0.92)	2.98 (±0.59)	2.92 (±0.62)	0.776	0.652
<b>INFRA- STRUCTURE</b>	2.36 (±0.75)	2.56 (±0.64)	2.86 (±0.76)	2.55 (±0.79)	2.51 (±0.77)	2.52 (±0.61)	2.33 (±0.85)	2.77 (±0.73)	2.21 (±0.74)	2.67 (±0.73)	2.41 (±0.61)	2.451	<b>0.008*</b>
<b>EXPLORATION</b>	3.66 (±0.67)	3.89 (±1.06)	4.20 (±0.88)	3.68 (±0.71)	4.02 (±0.68)	4.09 (±0.77)	3.83 (±0.88)	3.79 (±0.96)	3.55 (±0.90)	3.80 (±1.08)	4.40 (±0.81)	3.485	<b>0.000*</b>
<b>LEARNING</b>	3.49 (±0.85)	3.88 (±1.05)	3.96 (±1.06)	3.33 (±0.99)	3.90 (±0.84)	3.90 (±0.85)	3.90 (±0.91)	3.98 (±0.99)	3.63 (±0.82)	3.86 (±1.08)	4.38 (±0.87)	3.512	<b>0.000*</b>
<b>SOCIAL GROUP ACTIVITIES</b>	3.25 (±0.85)	3.84 (±1.03)	4.17 (±0.89)	3.40 (±0.88)	3.72 (±0.94)	4.09 (±0.69)	3.77 (±0.95)	3.58 (±1.03)	3.57 (±0.88)	3.82 (±0.98)	4.30 (±0.96)	4.611	<b>0.000*</b>
<b>RELAXATION</b>	3.93 (±0.78)	4.08 (±0.96)	4.38 (±0.77)	4.12 (±0.73)	4.42 (±0.57)	4.26 (±0.69)	3.92 (±0.91)	4.11 (±0.93)	3.89 (±0.73)	4.16 (±0.98)	4.56 (±0.78)	2.806	<b>0.002*</b>

## 5.4 CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study is to investigate the perceptions of Sasolburg residents regarding tourist safety and security in South Africa and to provide insight into current perspectives of residents and advice on strategies regarding the improvement of these perceptions. The main aim of this chapter was to present the analyses and discussion of the survey.

Firstly, with regard to the socio-demographic results, it was found that a fairly equal distribution of Sotho-speaking males and females participated in the survey. These respondents were mostly younger than 25 and between ages 31 and 40 years, either currently students or in professional occupations and either married or unmarried. Secondly, the respondents go on holiday once a year and stay between three and five nights whilst on holiday. With regard to weekend trips the respondents go on one to ten weekend trips per year, with only 4% going on no weekend trip. Most of the respondents travel by car when going on holiday, stay with relatives but also prefer hotels and guesthouses.

Thirdly, it was evident that respondents are concerned about crime whilst travelling. Only a small percentage (6%) of the respondents was not concerned about crime. Respondents were very concerned about theft (61%), robbery (59%) and rape (59%) while travelling in South Africa. These percentages differ from respondents' level of safety concern in general where respondents indicated that they are very concerned about theft (65%), robbery (65%) and rape (65%). Respondents are thus less concerned about crime when travelling than in general. A large percentage of respondents have not been victims of crime in their personal capacity. Most respondents believe that higher and more intense levels of policing can make South Africa a safer tourism destination but also indicated the importance of education and awareness of safety issues in this country.

Results on respondents' sense of safety during their previous holiday revealed that they felt safe when dining out on holiday, at their accommodation establishments and whilst driving during the day. It was interesting to note that respondents did not feel very safe at any of the other indicated variables. Respondents mostly felt unsafe at night. It was also evident that respondents want to get refreshed, be together as a family on holiday, learn new things and have fun. Concerns about crime should therefore not form part of this holiday experience.

Fourthly, it was evident that the safety experience of respondents can be factor analysed and this revealed three factors, namely day-time activities, night-time experiences and infrastructure with night-time activities considered to be the most unsafe activities. It was also found that the travel motivations can be factor analysed and this revealed for the following factors, namely exploration, learning, social group activities and relaxation. The latter was identified as the most important travel motivator for the respondents. This remains a very important travel motivator in various studies.

Fifthly, it was important to determine the factors influencing respondents' perceptions of crime and the relationship with the travel motivations. Spearman Rank Order correlations revealed that age influence safety, with older people more concerned about day-time activities and the used of infrastructure. It was also revealed that respondents who stay for shorter periods of time felt more unsafe whilst on holiday than those that stay for longer periods of time. It was also found that respondents who took less weekend trips per year felt more unsafe in terms of day-time activities, night-time activities and the use of infrastructure. The safety experience factors correlated very high with one another and therefore day-time activities, night-time activities and infrastructure are linked with one another.

Travel motivations were influenced by the frequency of holidays respondents took. Those respondents that frequency went on holiday rated exploration, learning, social group activities and relaxation as more important. The shorter the average duration of the holiday the more important it was for respondents to explore, learn and relax. This was the same in the case of the number of weekend trips undertaken. The less the number of weekend trips the more important it was for the respondents to explore, participate in social group activities and relax.

Those that have been a victim of crime rated the unsafeness of infrastructure higher than those that have not been a victim of crime. Those that have been a victim of crime rated exploration, learning, social group activities and relaxation as important reasons for travelling. Married respondents rated day-time activities and infrastructure more unsafe than did unmarried respondents. Language did not have an influence on safety experiences but it did have an influence on travel motivations. For exploration as travel motivation the ANOVA revealed that Sotho respondents

considered exploration less important than did respondents speaking other home languages. Afrikaans-speaking respondents considered social group activities more important than did Sotho-speaking respondents, whilst the latter group considered relaxation less important than did English-speaking respondents, Afrikaans-speaking respondents and those speaking other home languages.

Differences were also identified between the various occupation groups for safety experiences and travel motivations. Self-employed respondents rated infrastructure more unsafe than did students. In most cases, respondents in other types of occupations than those indicated differed from the indicated occupation groups with regard to travel motivations.



# CHAPTER 6

## CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to provide and make recommendations regarding the research conducted. The aim of this study was to determine the Sasolburg residents' perceptions of safety and security of South Africa as a tourism destination. Objectives were set out in Chapter 1 and achieved throughout the study.

The *first objective* of this study was to analyse the theoretical framework of safety and security and the influence thereof on the tourism industry. This objective was achieved in Chapters 2 and 3. In Chapter 2 attention was given to an understanding of the unique nature of the tourism industry, an understanding of tourist behaviour (travel decision-making processes, motivation to travel, factors influencing travel decisions) and the importance and growth of the domestic tourism market in South Africa.

In Chapter 3 attention was given to the importance and context of safety and security in the tourism industry. This was achieved by analysing and discussing the following aspects: understanding safety and security, discussing the influence of poor safety and security levels on the tourism industry, showing the relationship between safety and security and the tourism industry (safety and security as part of development plans, security incidents in the tourism industry, types of security incidents on the tourism industry, the location of the incidents, targets and motives of security incidents, impacts of security incidents, recovery methods for security incidents), the role of tourism stakeholders in security, discussing crime in relation to the tourism industry and a discussion on tourists' safety in South Africa.

The *second objective* was to determine the perceptions of residents concerning the safety and security of South Africa as a tourism destination. Chapter 5 focused on the empirical survey related to this objective and the results of the study by

discussing the demographic profile of respondents, the travel behaviour of respondents and the perceptions of respondents regarding their safety experiences and travel motivations.

The *third objective* was to determine the factors influencing residents' perceptions of safety and its relationship with travel motivation. This was also achieved in Chapter 5 focusing on the results of the study. This objective was achieved by discussing the factor analyses for safety experiences and travel motivations, as well as the Spearman Rank Order Correlations, the *t*-test and the ANOVAs. This resulted in specific factors influencing perceptions of crime.

Various conclusions can be drawn and recommendations made from the research objectives. The aim of this chapter is to state the conclusions of the study and make recommendations with regard to the study and future research.

## **6.2 CONCLUSIONS**

The following conclusions are drawn according to the objectives of the study.

### **6.2.1 Conclusions regarding the analysis of the theoretical framework for travel behaviour and safety and security and the influence thereof on the tourism industry (Chapter 2 & Chapter 3)**

- It was clear that the tourism industry differs from other industries with regard to perishables and that it is subject to unpredictable external influences such as political unrests (c.f. 2.2).
- Given the fact that to participate in tourism activities is a choice, it is important to understand how and why people make certain travel decisions (c.f.2.2.1).
- Safety and security issues are not new to the current tourism industry; it has been seen and experienced in the earliest days of travel (c.f.2.2.2).
- Tourists are often less likely to report crimes or to testify against suspects, wishing to avoid problems of a return trip (c.f.2.2.2) which makes it difficult to accurately quantify.
- Tourism comprises all the activities relating to travel, hotels, transportation and all other components including promotion that serves the needs and wants of travellers (c.f.2.2.3) and therefore the tourists form part of a chain of services where different things are experienced, be it positive or negative.

- It was clear that residents are regarded as domestic tourists and they form an important part of the tourism industry (c.f.2.2.3).
- Tourist behaviour and decision making is unique and differs from traditional product purchasing (c.f.2.3). It was found that it is integrated and complex and demands continuous investigation.
- The actual process of decision making encompasses a behavioural process whereby travellers only have little knowledge to acquire or achieve a positive outcome to meet their needs and wants (c.f.2.3.1).
- The importance of safety and security is already noted in the travel decision-making process which highlights the importance of providing a stable and secure environment to potential visitors (c.f.2.3.1.1). It is important for potential visitors to hold a positive view of the considered tourism destination and many countries and products underestimate the power of safety and security perceptions.
- The behavioural characteristics of tourists (motivations, attitudes, needs and values) all come together in a complex way to influence travel decisions, and the following can suffice as basic motivations to travel: Physical motivation, Cultural motivation, Personal motivation and Prestige and Status motivations (c.f.2.3.2).
- The factors influencing travel decisions form an important part of this study and the following were also identified and discussed: the influence of age, culture and race, the family lifecycle, personality and self-image, gender, educational levels and occupation, income and social class and reference group (c.f.2.3.3)
- Domestic tourism in South Africa is alive but growing very slowly, which can be attributed to various factors. The aim of this study contributes to the question as to whether safety and security are the issues inhibiting South Africans to travel (c.f.2.4).
- Between 48 and 50% of South Africans travel annually and this is due to lack of opportunities in the past and therefore a lack of travel culture (c.f.2.4.1).
- Tourism has multiplier effects and this can significantly improve the lives of the host community due to the improved infrastructure, amenities, new tourist attractions and rebuild of historical sites and museums (c.f.2.4.1).
- The tourism industry will in no way go without influencing the host community, be it negative or positive (c.f.2.4.2).
- The economic contribution of tourists is visible by identifying three most important components: number of tourists, length of stay and average expenditure and how tourism expenditure changes over time (c.f.2.4.2).

- It is further said that the tourism industry contributes largely to the continuous impact of natural environment and little has been done to curb the damage to selected sites (c.f.2.4.2).
- It is of huge concern that many tourism professionals (and some politicians) have avoided addressing issues of tourism safety and security all together (c.f.3.2).
- Security is often seen as protection against a person (site or reputation) that seeks to do harm while safety is defined as protecting people against unintended consequences of an involuntary nature (c.f.3.2).
- Tourist products and attractions are fairly easy targets due to huge crowds that provide opportunities for terrorists to commit acts of crime against large numbers of people (c.f.3.2). This leads to high levels of media attention.
- The so-called travel safety and security package includes perceptions of absence of negative events, and absence of any product or service failure, as well as assurance of an effective solution in case of failure (c.f.3.2).
- It is noted that tourism security is as much about developing plans to deal with natural disasters as it is about developing plans to stop human-made disasters (c.f.3.3) and to plan for security and safety well in advance.
- The risk that potential travellers associate with a destination can contribute to forming lasting images of that destination and they can also develop a negative impression of the destination (c.f.3.3).
- The lack of proper safety and security measures can influence international decline to certain destinations as well as national decline, which is the focus of this study (c.f.3.3).
- However, among all factors affecting the destination choice, safety and security are the leading factors (c.f.3.3). This is a concern that is difficult to correct.
- A safe, well-looked after tourist that experiences a problem-free stay will communicate positive word-of-mouth messages to others (c.f.3.3). This is very valuable to a vulnerable tourism industry.
- Tourist behaviour and consequently destinations are deeply affected by perceptions of security and management of safety, security and risk; therefore it should be included in the development plans of a destination or product (c.f.3.4.1).
- It is said that although “tourism as a force of peace” has been a popular positive message relayed by industry, consultants and some academics in recent years, the reality is that tourism has very little influence on peace and security issues

(c.f.3.4.1). This is an alarming finding that should be addressed by destinations, especially developing tourism destinations.

- It is important to understand the geographical dimension of security incidents when dealing with security-related tourism (c.f.3.4.2).
- The types of security incidents in the tourism industry were also identified, which included: Crime-related incidents, Terrorism, War and Civil/political unrest (c.f.3.4.3).
- Most crimes that occur at tourist destinations also tend to be on the perimeter and in areas with low pedestrian traffic and no apparent police presence (c.f.3.4.4). This is true for most of the crimes besides those committed at big events which have more of a political motive.
- People create security incidents for the following reasons: Political, Religious, Social, Economic, Hostility to tourists, Publicity seeking, Destruction of an area's economy (c.f.3.4.5).
- Violent crimes such as robbery, rape, assault, and murder have a more negative effect on tourists than personal property crimes (c.f.3.4.6).
- To recover from the decline in tourist visitations caused by a security incident, the private sector at the affected destination will in most cases reduce prices and offer a variety of incentives (c.f.3.4.7).
- In times of security-oriented tourism crises affected destinations play a key role in fighting for their economic and social survival (c.f.3.5.1). This is, however, not always realised.
- The media always enjoy embellishing even small incidents of security and making them even serious and huge (c.f.3.5.2). The impact of this media coverage is also underestimated.
- Tourists often force themselves to discard many of the social norms which regulate their behaviour in their daily lives when they travel away from home (c.f.3.5.3). This makes them easier targets for certain crimes.
- It is said that in pursuit of risk-free travel, potential tourists are known to use information to facilitate their constructs of perceived travel risk (c.f.3.5.4).
- South African criminal law views crime as an unlawful, guilt act and which can be either a commission or an omission, and which is punishable by the authorities (c.f.3.6.1).
- Fear of crime can place constraints on a person's lifestyle behaviour or promote defensive behaviour that encourages them to be more vigilant about crime (c.f.3.6.2).

- Theft is viewed as the most prominent crime against tourists and can be described as the unlawful appropriation of movable corporeal property of the property belonging to another with intent to deprive the owner permanently (c.f.3.6.3).
- Crime rates in South Africa, which are among the highest in the world, are only some of the many challenges facing South Africa in the post-apartheid era (c.f.3.7). It is clear that this needs to be addressed in order for South Africa to grow as a tourism destination and create benefits for all. Residents should also understand their role in this entire process and not be passive in this regard.

### **6.2.2 Conclusions regarding the perceptions of residents concerning the safety and security of South Africa as a tourism destination (Chapter 5)**

- 51% of the respondents were males and 49% were females (c.f.5.2.1.1). This is a fairly even gender distribution.
- 25% of the respondents were younger than 25 years, 24% were those between ages 26 and 30 years, those between ages 41 and 50 were represented at 21%, respondents of ages between 51 and 60 years accounted for 10% and finally respondents over the age of 60 were only 2% (c.f.5.2.1.2). This corresponds closely with the average travel profile of visitors in South Africa.
- 18% of the respondents were students, professional occupants (14%) and the 'other' category respondents were 9% such as arts and crafts (c.f.5.2.1.3). This enables varied analyses among these groupings.
- 44% of the respondents were unmarried, 41% of the respondents were married, 3% were divorced and 9% were living together (c.f.5.2.1.4). The large percentage of respondents that were unmarried is interesting and does not necessarily correspond with the with the general travel profile of South Africans. Their views on this issue are thus new and fresh.
- 56% of the respondents were Sotho speaking, 'other' category respondents were 18%, Afrikaans speaking respondents were 15% and 11% of the respondents were English speaking (c.f.5.2.1.5). It is always difficult to include the African language-speaking groups in this type of research and thus this research is valuable in gaining their views on the problem addressed.

### **6.2.3 Conclusions regarding the factors influencing residents' perceptions of safety and the relationship with travel motivation (Chapter 5)**

#### ***Travel preferences***

- 43% of the respondents go on holiday once a year, 33% of the other respondents go on holiday between 2 and 3 times a year, 12% of respondents are travelling between 4 and 5 times a year while 5% is travelling less than 5 times a year. 7% of the respondents do not travel (c.f.5.2.2.1). These respondents are thus experienced and understand the concept *travelling* and the importance of safety whilst travelling.
- 36% of respondents are spending an average of 3 to 5 nights whilst on holiday, 32% are spending between 1 and 2 nights, 17% are spending an average of 6 to 8 nights whilst on holiday and 15% of the respondents are spending more than 9 nights when on holiday (c.f.5.2.2.1).
- 81% of respondents take 1 to 10 weekend trips per year while 8% of respondents take between 11 and 20 trips, 4% take more than 30 weekend trips per year whilst 4% take no weekend trips (c.f.5.2.2.2). Weekend trips prove to be very popular and a lucrative market to attract.
- 30% of the respondents stay with relatives when on holiday, 21% of respondents prefer hotels, 20% of respondents stay at guest houses, 15% of respondents stay at their holiday homes, 11% prefer chalets, 6% of respondents prefer camping sites, backpackers are represented at 4% (c.f.5.2.2.3). Staying with relatives is a challenge for the tourism industry, even though these visitors spend on other categories of travelling. The tourism industry cannot survive without visitors utilising the accommodation establishments.
- 68% of respondents use cars when going on holiday, buses are used by 13% of the respondents, taxis are used by 12%, aeroplanes are used by 10% of respondents while trains are only used by 2% and motorcycles are used by only 1% of the respondents (c.f.5.2.2.3). This is the general travel pattern in South Africa.

#### ***Perceptions of crime whilst travelling***

- 70% of respondents were concerned about crime when travelling, 24% were neutral and only 6% of the respondents were not concerned (c.f.5.2.2.3). High levels of concern thus exist among respondents.

- 27% of the respondents have been victims of crime and 73% of respondents have not been victims of crime (c.f.5.2.2.3). A fairly small percentage of respondents have been victims of crime which is good and surprising.
- Respondents are mostly very concerned about assault (44%), mugging (47%), murder (57%), rape (59%), robbery (32%) and most of all theft (61%) whilst travelling in South Africa. This was also the finding in other studies (c.f.5.2.2.3).
- It can be summarised that respondents were concerned to very concerned about exposure to the following crimes:
  - Robbery 91%
  - Theft 90%
  - Mugging 82%
  - Murder 82%
  - Rape 80%
  - Assault 76%

#### ***Level of safety concern in general***

- Living in South Africa, respondents general were very concerned about assault (52%), mugging (52%), murder (63%), rape (65%), robbery (65%) and most of all theft (65%) (c.f.5.2.2.3)

#### ***Sense of safety during previous holiday***

- 38% of the respondents felt safe when using public transport during the last holiday in South Africa, 62% also felt safe at the accommodation establishments and 57% indicated that they felt safe whilst driving during the day while 36% of respondents felt unsafe when driving at night while travelling.
- 54% of the respondents indicated that they felt safe attending events, 56% of respondents felt safe walking on the streets in the day while 46% felt unsafe walking the streets in the evening during the last holiday in South Africa.
- 56% of the respondents indicated feeling safe visiting shopping malls, 63% of respondents also indicated feeling safe when dining out when on holiday and 56% of respondents felt safe visiting tourism attractions while 44% of the respondents indicated feeling safe travelling in South Africa in general.
- Interesting that although respondents were concerned about certain crimes whilst travelling and in general, they felt fairly safe in most areas and situations.



### ***Travel motivations***

- The most important travel motivations (very to extremely important) for respondents were:
  - To get refreshed 74%
  - To get together as a family 74%
  - To learn new things 73%
  - To have fun 71%
  - To learn more about the country 69%
  - To relax 68%
  - To relax from daily tension 68%
  - To rest physically 67%

## **6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

Recommendations are made regarding the betterment and improvement of safety and security of visitors in South Africa when travelling, as well as recommendations regarding further research in this field of study.

### **6.3.1 Recommendations regarding the betterment and improvement of safety and security of visitors in South Africa when travelling**

- It is important for all the tourism stakeholders to work together in planning and providing safety and security guidelines to tourists.
- Awareness and education to tourists to assist in reducing the risk of victimization.
- Police, citizen and uniform patrol should be increased at tourist destinations. These men and women should be known as 'tourism police' so as to create higher levels of awareness.
- It is recommended that the tourism stakeholders commit to those giving information leading to the arrest and conviction of those committing serious crimes against tourists to be compensated. The TSI-initiative of SATSA should be supported in this regard.
- The South African Tourism Authorities and the South African Police Service (SAPS) should work together in ensuring that all victims of crime in the tourism industry should be given proper counselling to continue to be active in the industry.

- It is important for the South African Tourism Authority and SAPS to facilitate tourist victim testimony and support in criminal cases even though the contrary was found in the literature.
- It is recommended that the SAPS be more visible during the peak seasons of tourism and specific events.
- The training of police and private security staff to recognize and address tourist-related criminal cases and safety concern is also important.
- Encourage accommodation establishments to adopt measures that will reduce guest victimization.
- It is recommended that the criminal hotspots be identified and surveyed.
- The installation of cameras and any other surveillance materials in tourism areas is also recommended
- Introduction of additional taxes should be considered in tourism areas to assist in improving safety measures.

### **6.3.2 Recommendations regarding further research in this field of study**

- It is recommended that a similar type of research be conducted at different municipality districts and provinces and that a national survey be done to draw conclusions and make recommendations on the opinions and experiences of residents.
- The same study can also be conducted on the African continent in countries which are active in terms of tourism activities and this will assist in eliminating the perceptions of generating countries regarding the level of safety and security in Africa.

## **6.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

- This study was limited to the Sasolburg area in the Free State Province which does not represent all tourism destinations in South Africa. It is considered a starting point for a bigger survey.
- It was noted during the survey that some respondents were reluctant to complete the questionnaires as they fear for their safety and anonymity, especially regarding their demographic information. It was also for this reason that income was not included in the survey.

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# APPENDIX