

**MANAGER'S PERCEPTION TOWARDS SECURITY FACTORS:
A COMPARATIVE EXAMINATION OF 3 TO 5 STAR HOTELS IN NAIROBI
AND MOMBASA COUNTIES-KENYA**

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DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for award of a degree in any other University

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DEDICATION

To my Mum Kemunto and late Dad Maranga, and to my wife, Phelister Nyamari, together with our children; Princess Juliet Ngina, Brian Nyamari and Humphrey Nyamari.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BCS	:	British Crime Survey
BBC	:	British Broadcasting Corporation
CCTV	:	Camera Circuit Television
CCTV	:	Closed Circuit Television
CI	:	Confidence Interval
CNN	:	Cable News Network
CPP	:	Certified Protection Professional
FDI	:	Foreign Direct Investment
KAHK	:	Kenya Association of Hotel Keepers
KTB	:	Kenya Tourist Board
KTP	:	Kenya Tourist Police
MS	:	Microsoft
OR	:	Odds Ratio
PCA	:	Principal Component Analysis
PSC	:	Provincial Security Committee
SEM	:	Structural Equation Modeling
SRS	:	Stratified Random Sampling
TVIRS	:	Tourist Victim Information Reports
UNDP	:	United Nations Development Program
UNICEF	:	United Nations Children Education Fund
UNCTAD	:	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNWTO	:	United Nations World Tourism Organization
US-EAC	:	United States and East Africa Community
WTTC	:	World Tourism Trade Center

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

Crime – Any act punishable by law, motivated by economic, political, racial, or religious reasons. It can range from petty offenses to violent crimes, (Mansfeld, 2006);

Hotel Manager – a personnel tasked with the responsibility of overseeing all the activities of either the hotel as a whole or the department in which he/she works (UNWTO, 2012);

Hotel size- Defined as the number of beds available in a hotel; the more the number of beds, the larger the hotel and the inverse is true, (UNWTO, 2012).

Inbound tourism revenues per visitor by source market- a measure of the economic activity of visitors identifying the percentage growth or decline year-on-year in inbound tourism revenues per visitor by source market. The focus is on inbound tourism consumption. The challenge is data availability and consistent protocols, (UNWTO, 2012);

International Tourist- Any person who travels to a country other than that in which he has his usual residence but outside his environment for a period not exceeding 12 months and whose main purpose of visit is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from the place visited (WTO, 2010);

Local Tourist- Any person who resides in a country who travels to a place within the country outside his usual environment for a period not exceeding 12 months and whose main purpose of visit is other than the exercise of an a activity remunerated from the place visited, (WTO, 2010);

Star-rating- This is the classification of hotels by the hotels and restaurants populations which is an accepted mark of quality according to comfort in a hotel,

services offered, technical equipment, sanitation and security in the hotel, (Ellis & Stipanuk, 1996);

Star-Hotels- These are luxurious hotels with exceptional modern and technical amenities comparable to top class hotels internationally. They offer the high standards of accommodation service and comfort, (Ellis & Stipanuk, 1996);

Safety- Involves protecting employees and guests within the hotel property from potential injury or death. Safety issues deal with effects of accidents, hazardous materials and fire, (Mansfeld, 2006);

Security- Protecting employees and guests and is concerned with preserving guests' possessions and property. Security issues include matters such as theft and violent crimes, (Mansfeld, 2006);

Security factors – refers to the critical factors that points to the degree of the hotels vulnerability to crime and insecurity (Mansfeld, 2006);

Three to five star- hotels – all-suite hotels that attract a majority number of guests from all over the world. These hotels have the capability of attracting extended stay clients due to their facilities (UNWTO, 2012);

Vulnerability- Refers to the exposure of the hotels to crime and insecurity, (UNWTO, 2012);

ABSTRACT

In Kenya, tourism has been recognized as one of the key drivers of economic growth and poverty reduction. This is because tourism has a great multiplier effect that is able to catalyze growth in all sectors of the economy. The sector has been performing well and it was anticipated that international arrivals would reach the 2 million mark by the end of 2012. However, there was a decrease by 0.3% from 1.785million in 2011 to 1.780million in 2012 and 1.5 million in 2013. The decline could be attributed to the euro zone crisis coupled with perceived insecurity in the country. Kenya is ranked 135 out of 140 countries globally by the Travel and Tourism Competitive Index on safety and security concerns. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the effects of insecurity on performance of the hotels. The study was guided by the following specific objectives: to determine the indicators of vulnerability of the hotel facilities towards insecurity; to find out the current hotel standards of security within the hotel facilities; to evaluate the effects of insecurity on the hotels' performance; to profile crime trends and security threats in the hotel industry. The study employed both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection. The study used questionnaires and interviews to collect data. The study adopted a cross-sectional analysis using a sample of 160 respondents. Nairobi hotels were less vulnerable than hotels in Mombasa. This implied that investors have more confidence in Nairobi than Mombasa due to favorable conditions such as safety and security of guests; The age of the hotel did not affect security levels of the establishments; security is a multiplicity of factors interaction and not a single consideration; The quality, security, age and occupancy rate of hotel are potential factors affecting the costs for operating and maintaining the hotel. There was significant difference in training across the two regions with Mombasa doing it more frequent compared to Nairobi (p value <0.001). There was a gap between the training and the application of the security procedures. On the cost of security expenditure, Nairobi had invested more than Mombasa. The increase of security costs has led to increase of recovery rates. Nairobi and Mombasa regions had a positive correlation between occupancy and security investment. As the hotel invested more in security devices, there was an increase in the occupancy rate. However, this was not statistically significant, as there was an inverse correlation in some of the hotels for the two regions. For instance, higher stars (4 &5) had a negative relationship of -0.87 and 0.05 respectively. The higher the occupancy rate the lower the investment of security in the hotel industry; none of the factors significantly explained the security investment among the hotels (p value > 0.05). The three factors (occupancy, star rating and region) explained only 17% of the total security investment in the hotels, leaving 83% of the investment unaccounted for. This indicates that investment in security among the hotels is explained by factors other than occupancy, star rating or region. The study recommends that hotel staff needs to have specialized training on security matters at higher levels to be able to respond to different threats in hotel industry. Training should commensurate to the needs of the hotel industry. There is need to capacitate the security guards, so that they will be able to expand their scope of security within the hotel industry. There is also need to continually develop security strategies to meet the evolution of security challenges in the hotel industry. At the same time there should be uniform platform of security procedures in the hotel industry to be consistent with internationally security standards.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2014) tourism is one of the fastest growing industries in the world. Over the last six decades, the sector has witnessed tremendous growth through expansion and diversification. The international tourist arrivals grew by 5% in the year 2013 reaching a record of 1,087million arrivals. This is despite the global economic and political challenges that the sector faced in the year like the euro zone crisis. The emerging markets took the lead with a growth of 6.0 % compared with advanced economies that had a growth of 5.0%. Asia and Pacific emerged the strongest across all UNWTO regions with a growth of 7 % emerging as the strongest growth. Africa experienced a 6% increase and hit a new mark of 56 million international tourist arrivals. Generally, international tourism arrivals are expected to increase by an average of 43million per annum to reach 1.8 billion by 2030. The forecast for 2014 indicates a 4% to 4.5 % growth over the previous year. In terms of revenue, a record US \$ 1.075 billion in receipts was recorded in 2013 in the world economy which reflected an increase of 4% over the previous year (UNWTO, 2014).

In Kenya, Tourism has been recognized as one of the key drivers of economic growth. According to UNWTO (2014), Tourism is one of the economic factors for development and poverty reduction. This is because tourism has a great multiplier effect that is able to catalyze growth in all sectors of the economy namely agriculture, manufacturing, energy, transport and financial services. Therefore, it has a positive impact on the local economy due the demand that it creates for employment, food

supplies and other consumables. It also has a multi-faceted approach and therefore its economic dimension derives inputs from the social, cultural and environmental aspects. Furthermore, it leads to spontaneous increase in value of real estate within the proximity of the hotel. However, its success is dependent on safety and security of the guests at the tourist destinations which is a prerequisite for tourist growth and development. Traditionally, Kenya's major international tourist market has been from the western countries mainly Europe (43%) and USA (13%). China, South Asia and the Far East are the new emerging markets with great potential. The country receives 23% international tourist from the Africa region (UNWTO, 2014).

The relative importance of tourism in Kenya's economy has risen steadily over the last 40 years (Government of Kenya (GoK), 2007). In terms of revenue; it ranks third after tea and horticulture as the major foreign exchange earner. It has also been identified as one of the pillars in Kenya's Vision 2030 thus is being treated as a priority area. The sector has been performing well and it was anticipated that international arrivals would reach the 2 million mark by the end of 2012. However, there was a decrease by 0.3% from 1.785million in 2011 to 1.780 million in 2012 and 1.5 million in 2013 (Economic survey, 2014). The decline could be attributed to the euro zone crisis coupled with perceived insecurity in the country. The situation is yet to improve as the September, 2013 attack at the Westgate Mall, Nairobi and continued threats by Al Shabab continue to pose a threat to the once vibrant industry. At the same time increased flight costs, insecurity fears and increased taxes have affected the tourist numbers (Ministry of Tourism, 2012). Tourism earnings decreased by 2.6% from Ksh 97.90 billion in 2011 to Ksh. 93.02 billion in 2013 (Economic Survey ,2014). The sector has a great potential and it is imperative that security measures be

put in place to avert a continued downward trend. This is because the sector not only improves the quality of life but also job opportunities that help reduce poverty.

Competitiveness has become one of the common concepts employed to approach and describe the sustainable development of the hotel industry (UNCTAD, 2007). The competitiveness of tourism destinations, generally, the overall competitiveness of the hotel industry, become vital for their survival and growth in the international market, in the conditions of increasing leisure time and rising levels of disposable income (Etchtner & Ritchie, 2003).

The issue of competitiveness of tourism destinations has become increasingly important, particularly for countries and regions that rely heavily on tourism (Gooroochum & Sugiyarto, 2012). A destination may be considered competitive if it can attract and satisfy potential tourists (Etchtner & Ritchie, 2003). Not only does the competitiveness of a destination directly affect tourism receipts in terms of visitor numbers and expenditures, but also it indirectly influences the tourism-related businesses, such as the hotel and retail industries in that destination, to a certain extent Kanold (2011). As Cizmar and Weber (2000) pointed out, destination choice remains one of the first and most important decisions made by tourists, and this decision in turn is, to a large extent, subject to a number of external factors, such as country image, accessibility, attractiveness and safety. This study explored the effect of destination security on hotel competitiveness in Kenya.

According to Kanold (2011) cases of Hotel insecurity globally have indicated commonalities between the lack of a unified hotel security standards as well as a policy framework on safety and security within the hospitality sector. Regionally, the East African Community guidelines on hotel standards fail to address some of the

critical issues such as insecurity (Kanold, 2011). There is need to develop regional, national and local policy interventions, and measures that mitigate and address these impending threats such as terrorism and travel advisories which affect room occupancy in the hotel industry. Significantly so, there is need to contribute to this policy development process through empirical research. This study sought to contribute to the policy development process by developing a framework for policy development in this area.

Kenya's hospitality sector is a key investment hub for East Africa estimated at Kshs 39.2bn or 7.2% of total FDI capital investment in 2011 (World Tourism Trade Center (WTTC), 2011). Further, the Hospitality sector in Kenya directly supports 245,000 jobs (3.8% of total employment) in 2011, and is expected to rise substantially by 27.2% in the next 10 years (WTTC, 2011; GoK, 2010). Kenyan Hotels cater for a diverse market base comprising of leisure travelers 68% in 2010 and the business travelers 32% in 2010 (UNWTO, 2011).

Despite tourism's significant growth over the last five years, the sector continues to face a number of challenges which need to be addressed in order for the sector to attain its full potential and thus contribute effectively to the country's development goals as envisaged in Vision 2030, (GoK, 2007). These include insecurity in major tourism destinations, following acts of terrorism, such as the bombings of the United States Embassy in Nairobi in 1998, and the Paradise Beach Hotel in Mombasa in 2003 among other undocumented incidents (WTTC, 2011).

Consequently, the hotel industry in Kenya continues to deal with the negative effects of travel advisories (WTTC, 2011). These advisories have heightened safety and security issues in the minds of international travelers globally (WTTC, 2011).

According to Kenya Tourism Board (KTB) (2009), due to Post Election Violence in 2008, Kenya lost at least Sh15 billion due to the ban on flights to the country imposed by travel advisories (GoK, 2010). The loss represents about two per cent of the country's Gross Domestic Product and had a negative impact on almost every sector of the economy (WTTC, 2011). The tourism industry alone lost up to Sh12.5 billion in 2008 while the Government lost at least Sh7 billion in levies from tourists in that period (GoK, 2009).

The Kenyan National Tourism Policy (GoK, 2008) contends that some of the hotels in Kenya, especially those at the Coast are cheap and characterized by downward spiraling of revenue, poor security standards, erratic occupancy levels, inadequate service standards and poor quality accommodation. The policy further acknowledges that some of these elements might lead to insecurity in the hotel industry. The erratic occupancy levels particularly need to be singled out since Kenya has a distinct low tourism season when the occupancy levels plummet especially in Mombasa (GoK, 2007).

During such times supply is higher than demand leading to under-utilized capacity which leads to lay off of staff increasing the already high number of unemployed people (GoK, 2007). The high rate of unemployment is one of the indicators of insecurity (UNICTAD, 2010). The laid off staff during the low season becomes so desperate that they resort to survival tactics; including indulging into theft and prostitution to make the ends meet (GoK, 2007).

According to United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNICTAD) (2010) in Africa, Egypt, Tunisia, South Africa and Morocco account for 73 percent of the total African tourism revenues. Regionally East Africa received 16 percent of the

total tourism revenues in Africa compared to 52 percent for North Africa and 21 percent for South Africa UNICTAD (2010). Kenya received 2 percent as a share of the total tourism receipts in Africa. UNICTAD (2010) further indicates that tourism was traditionally placed below manufacturing and agriculture since it was not seen as a significant source of growth. This perception has however changed in view of the fact that tourism is nowadays seen as a potential means of earning export revenue and generating large numbers of jobs, promoting economic diversification and a more service oriented economy especially through the hotel industry UNICTAD (2010). It is worth noting that in tourism generally, the main investments are in hotels and restaurants and also in tour operations and global reservations systems.

According to UNICTAD (2010) globally, international tourist arrivals have grown from 25 million in 1950 to 922 million in 2008, with tourism receipts rising from US Dollar (USD) 2 billion to USD 944 billion. Developing countries have particularly had substantial growth in arrivals as evidenced by the fact that in 1950, the top 15 destinations absorbed 88 percent of international arrivals whereas by 2007 this figure had dropped to 57 percent (UNICTAD, 2010). The inward Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) stock in the hotels and restaurant sector have risen more than six-fold, from USD 4.7 billion in 1990 to USD 29.2 billion in 2007 (UNICTAD, 2007). This report however notes that the FDI stocks in hotels and restaurants remains limited in relative terms. For instance the FDI stock in hotels and restaurants as a share of total FDI stock in their services sector is only 1 percent (UNICTAD, 2010).

Hotels usually impact the local economy through a variety of economic pathways. For instance, the backward linkages established by hotels include those with suppliers of inputs that are needed for immediate consumption such as meat and fish, dairy

produce, vegetables and beverages (UNWTO, 2010). Backward linkages also establish long-term relationships such as with construction companies and manufacturers of equipment, linen, and uniforms. Strong linkages catalyse a multiplier effect that generates broad based economic benefits at the national level as well as employment opportunities and poverty reduction at the local level (UNWTO, 2010).

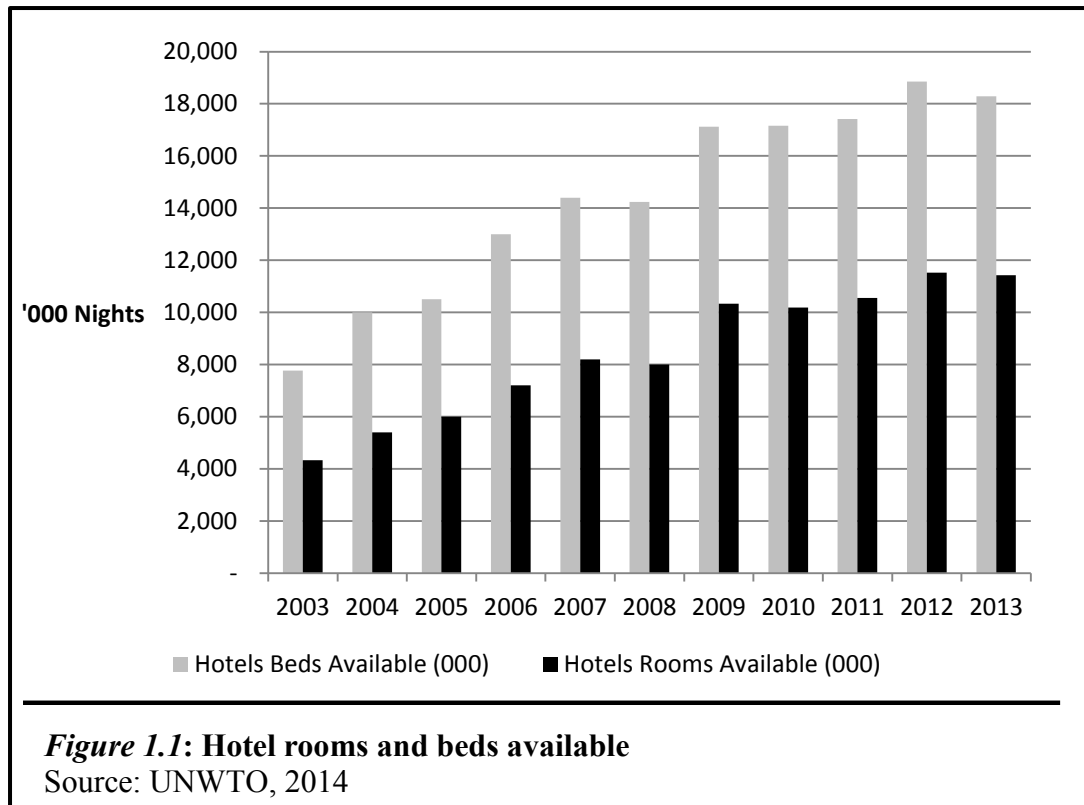
In Africa, many countries have realized the critical role played by the hotel industry sector in their economies (UNWTO, 2010). The hotel industry has been acknowledged substantially to contribute to 'consumption multiplier effects' when their employees use their salaries and wages to buy goods and services from other non-tourism-related industries (UNWTO, 2010). The Government of Kenya in its Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation recognizes the role played by the hotel industry in terms of wealth creation, contribution to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and its multiplier effect that acts as a stimulus to the growth of other sectors such as transport, entertainment, agriculture, trade and industry (GoK, 2003; UNCTAD, 2007). This recognition is being threatened by both internal and external security challenges as most sectors are spending enormous resources to ensure that their operations are not disrupted by any perceived or real security threats.

In Her vision 2030, Kenya aims at quadrupling tourism GDP contribution to over Kshs. 150 billion by 2015 (in the short run) and the average spent per visitor from Kshs. 40,000 to at least Kshs. 70,000 (GoK, 2007). The vision also aims at increasing hotel beds to 65,000,000 with emphasis on quality service.

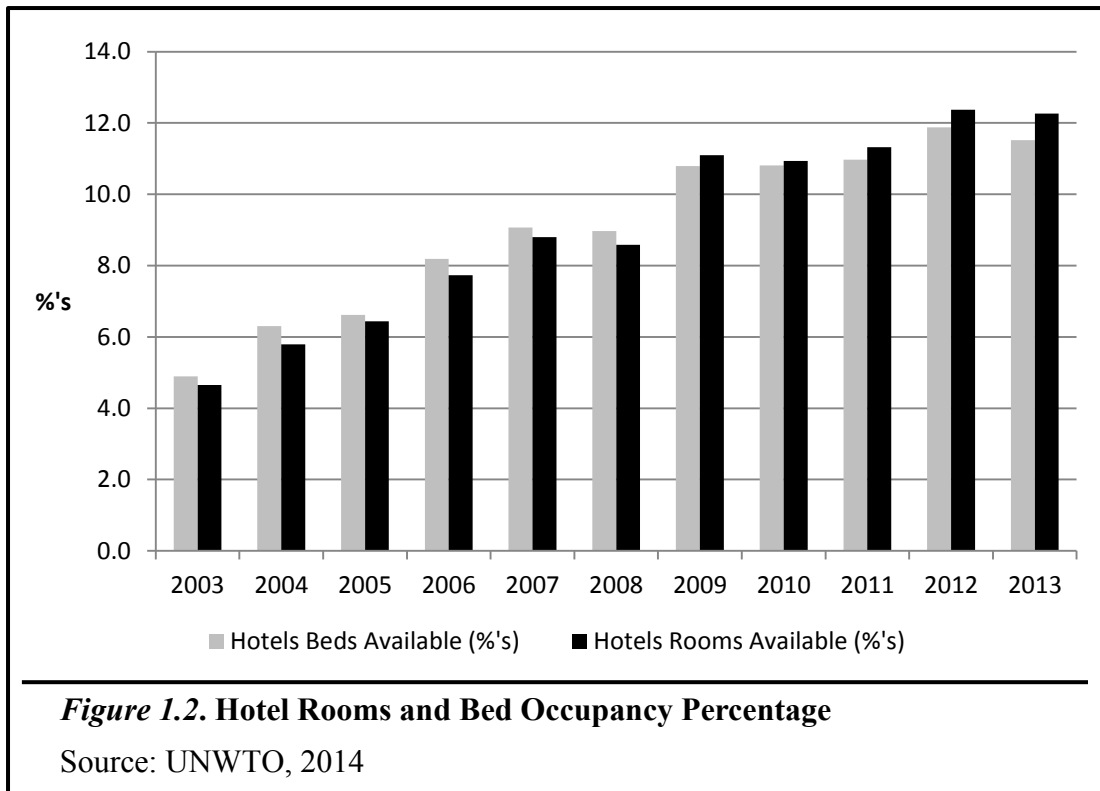
The revenues generated from tourism increased from Kshs. 28 billion in 2002 to Kshs. 65.4 billion in 2007 (UNCTAD, 2007). By 2010 Kenya significantly recorded

the highest number of tourists' arrivals at 1,095,945 (UNWTO, 2012). This was an increase of 15% growth when compared to the previous year (UNWTO, 2012). The tourist arrivals, though peaking at about 1.1 million fell short of the ERS target of 2 million tourists. This was significantly attributed to strategic international advertising by Kenya Tourist Board however, while the number of international visitors and their length of stay in hotels have been increasing, other top competing tourist destinations such as South Africa and Egypt attracted four to five times more tourists than Kenya (UNWTO, 2012). Additionally, the average spending per tourist in Kenya (560 USD dollars) is lower than in other destinations because Kenya as a destination continues to attract low – spending tourists due to issues related to security because Kenya is perceived to have porous borders with its neighbors' which poses serious security threats not only to the hotel industry but also to the citizenry people (UNWTO, 2012). In addition, tourist expenditure per capita is 70 percent more in Egypt than in Kenya because it is perceived as a cheap tourist destination (UNWTO, 2012).

The tourism policy notably paints Kenya as having a 'tired' hotel infrastructure including insecurity (UNWTO, 2012). This policy however acknowledges that if security was drastically improved and sustained, Kenya has enormous potential for increasing its overall earnings to become the top ten long haul destinations globally (UNWTO, 2012). Bed occupancy is one of the inputs used to generate revenues in the hotel business (UNWTO, 2012). Figure 1.1 shows hotel rooms and beds available whereas Figure 1.2 shows the actual number of rooms and bed occupied as a percentage of beds available from 2003 to 2013.



The total rooms and beds available are shown in figure 1.1. The total beds available have been rising steadily from 7,765,000 in 2003 to the 18,292 in 2013. The total rooms available have equally been rising from 4,336,000 in 2003 to 11,430,000 in 2013. In 2012, the total beds available slightly declined from 18,850,000 to 18,292,000 in 2013 and the occupancy rate declined even further from 40% in 2011 to 36 % in 2013 respectively, attributed to the effects of post-election violence (UNWTO, 2012). Therefore except in 2008, the bed occupancy has generally been rising (UNWTO, 2012). It is however important to note that according to Vision 2030 the targeted number of beds that should have been available for sale in 2007/2008 was 15,000,000 against the actual number that was 14,223,000 (UNWTO, 2012). Kenya was off this target by 777,000 beds. Secondly, Kenya targeted to have at least 65,000,000 beds by 2012. By 2013 however, the total available beds for sale were 18,292,000.



Despite this evident growth in room occupancy and despite the fact that hotels rarely have 100 percent room occupancy; the Kenyan hotels are yet to attain the international break-even room occupancy rate of 53-65 percent (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2010; Worldwide Lodging Industry, 1996). This break-even is a critical intermediate point which must be reached before profits are realized and therefore, until a business passes through a break-even threshold, profits will not be forthcoming (UNWTO, 2012). The room occupancy of the Kenyan hotels was and still is way below the internationally accepted threshold and this could be a pointer to Kenya being a cheaper destination. This notwithstanding, the growth in bed and room occupancy as well as security is an indication that there is potential to be realized from the hotel industry. In 2010 there was an increase of room occupancy of 43% down from 39% in 2009. This increase of room occupancy continued to rise to 45% in 2012; however, there was a slump in the year 2013 due to insecurity incidences such as Westgate attack where most Kenyan lost their lives and property worthy of

billion were destroyed. This led to Western countries especially from Europe which not only issued travel advisories but also evacuated their nationals from Kenyan Coastal hotels. This drastically affected the occupancy levels as most hotels closed their businesses (Kenya Tourism Board, 2013).

1.2 Problem Statement and Justification

Despite regional efforts by the US-EAC partnership in combating tourism security issues and local efforts by the Kenyan Government to deploy a Tourist Policing unit as well as community policing as a matter of national policy, there are rampant incidences of reported criminal activities within hospitality facilities which are viewed as vulnerable/soft targets to terrorism (Kanold, 2011). Therefore, this study sought to establish the Manager's perception towards security factors by comparing the security status of 3-5 star hotels in Nairobi and Mombasa.

Insecurity continues to pose a huge threat on local and international investors in East Africa, with some firms spending up to 7% of total revenues, or 11% of total operational costs on security infrastructure and personnel (GoK, 2008). However, it is not recorded how much hotels in Nairobi and Mombasa spent on security. This study therefore, determines the indicators of vulnerability of hotel facilities.

The security situation in Kenya remains a major hindrance towards sustainable tourism development in Kenya. In fact, Kenya is ranked 135 out of 140 countries globally by the Travel and Tourism Competitive Index on safety and security concerns (WTO, 2013). The porous borders between countries in the region as well as the extensive coastline make it difficult to accurately monitor and mitigate security threats (WTO, 2007). Tremendous benefits to be accrued if the security situation is

contained such as more hotel occupancy and high revenue will be realized. Therefore, the study establishes the effects of insecurity on hotel performance.

This study therefore sought to fill the above gaps to assess the effects of security on hotel performance with a view to guiding policy on hotel security as well as providing long-term intervention measures to curb this vice.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of insecurity in the hotel performance from a manager's perspective. Where critical security information are obtained, processed, compiled, interpreted and disseminated to all stakeholders with a view of suggesting security prevention strategy. The importance of studying security is to use the findings in order to recommend actionable insights as to how security could be managed in Nairobi and Mombasa Counties. This research was guided by the following objectives;

1.4 Objectives of the Study

1.4.1 General Objective

To establish the Manager's perception towards security factors by comparing the security status of 3 to 5 star hotels in Nairobi and Mombasa.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

- i. To establish the current hotel standards of security within the hotel facilities by region;
- ii. To determine the indicators of vulnerability of the hotel facilities towards insecurity by star rating;
- iii. To evaluate the effects of insecurity on the hotels' performance by region;
- iv. To profile crime trends and security threats in the hotel industry by region.

1.5 Research Hypotheses

H1: There is no significance difference between the investment in security management systems and high guest turnover in the hotel industry by region.

H2: Security training does not significantly influence appropriate security measures taken in the hotel industry by region.

H3: There is no significance difference between the security procedures and the training in the hotel industry by star rating.

1.6 Significance and Anticipated Outputs of the Study

The stakeholders in the tourism chain may use the findings to come up security information platform to address all security issues with one voice. In addition, homegrown security policing appropriate in the hotel industry may be developed and implemented. The information generated will benefit the hotel industry to reduce incidences of security lapses in their operations which will reduce operation costs and increase total productivity. The findings may not only be replicated in other towns in Kenya but also in East Africa by disseminating the findings through stakeholders' forums and publishing in journals.

An integrated security prevention strategy is vital for the metropolitan cities for both international travelers and domestic tourists. However, other previous security prevention programmes have been done holistically to the specific requirements and safety needs of the guests' in the hotel and tourism industry.

The study contributes enormously in addressing security constraints facing the sector and has also suggested different approaches of security prevention strategies to improve the quality and breadth of Kenya's tourist destinations in Mombasa and Nairobi. The study emphasizes on creating a secure environment where tourists'

length of stay is more compared to other tourist destinations in the region. Whereas Kenya stands to gain enormously from tourism by 2030, security policies and strategies must be put in place to mitigate unintended adverse outcomes, such as prostitution, insecurity, drug abuse and environmental degradation (GoK, 2008).

1.7 Scope of the Study

This study was delimited to those respondents who participated in the hotels in the two regions and only in 3 to 5 star hotels. These establishments experience a high turnover of both domestic and international tourists.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The study was carried out in Nairobi and Mombasa, Counties. Thus, caution should be exercised while generalizing and interpreting the study results to the larger population of classified hotels in Kenya.

1.9 Assumptions of the Study

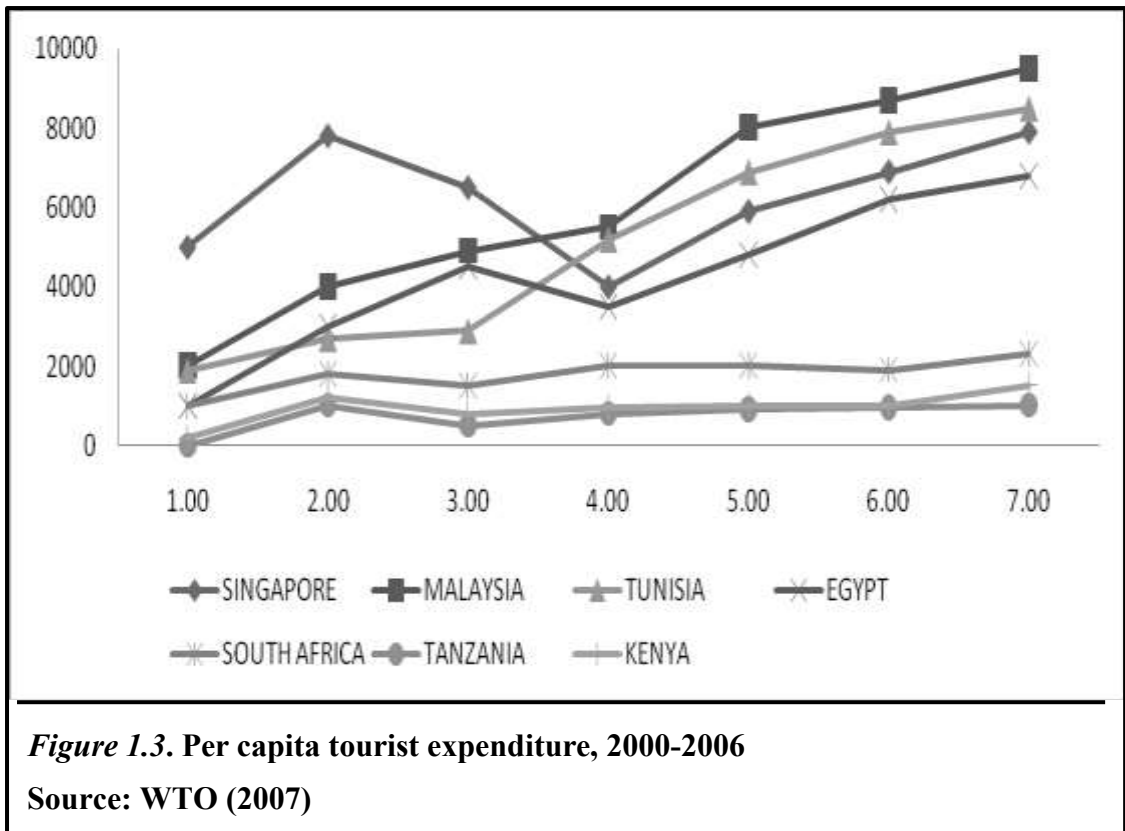
This study assumes that majority of hotels do not meet international security standards as there is negligence in maintenance of these security facilities. In addition, most hotels have no proactive security strategies to deal with real or perceived risks rather they respond to crisis. The higher rated hotels have better organized security systems than lower rated hotels. Therefore lower rated hotels are more vulnerable to security lapses than high end establishments especially at Mombasa region. The investors are likely to invest in high end establishments despite the huge initial cost implications.

1.10 Hotel Performance Indicators

According the UNWTO (2007) a number of selected African countries have been used to compare certain indicators of tourism in Kenya over time. The countries that are involved are major regional destinations such as Egypt, Tanzania, South Africa

and Tunisia and some middle income economies of Malaysia and Singapore. These indicators include tourism receipts, expenditure per tourist, and Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (TTCI) as well as safety and security.

According to the World Economic Forum (2008) Kenya's tourist earnings have exhibited marginal growth, with less than USD 1,000 million per year (Figure 1.3). Comparator countries such as Malaysia, South Africa and Egypt have had a sharp increase in earnings between 1990 and 2006. Though tourist receipts for Singapore were comparatively high in the 1990s in relation to the countries under consideration, the country experienced a major dip in year 2000, which continued in 2003. This was due to the high global inflation and political instability which scared potential outbound and inbound tourists to avoid Kenya as a destination. This was followed by a recovery in 2004 after the general elections. Tunisia has been receiving over USD 1,000 million in tourism earnings, with marginal growth over the years. Kenya's performance may be linked to the overall allocation to KTB for marketing purposes as well as security and safety of tourists which a sensitive and major ingredient consideration (UNWTO, 2007).



Previously, stakeholders have proposed that the government should provide sufficient funds to the Kenya Tourism Board with at least Kshs. 2 billion for marketing and promotion of Kenya as one of the top ten long haul destination in line with vision 2030. Per capita tourist expenditure in Kenya is low (Figure 1.3) with an average of USD 578 in the 2000-2006 period. The same applies to Malaysia (USD 587) and Tunisia (USD 341). Tanzania (USD 1,268), Mauritius (USD 1,300) and Thailand (USD 970) have high per capita tourist expenditures, World Tourism Organization (2007). The high per capita expenditure for Tanzania offers crucial lessons for Kenya. The average length of stay for inbound tourists does not explain the difference. In fact, Kenya is doing well in this respect as the country had an average of 10.6 days of average length of stay between 2001 and 2005. The average length of stay rose from 8.4 days in 2001 to 14 days in 2005. This is by far much higher compared to the other

countries. The average for Tanzania in the same period is 10.2 days, rising from 8.0 days in 2001 to 12 days in 2005.

As for Mauritius, the average has been 10.5 days and has actually remained stagnant throughout the 2001-2005 periods. Egypt and Thailand had a much lower average length of stay days—8.5 days and 8.1 days, respectively.

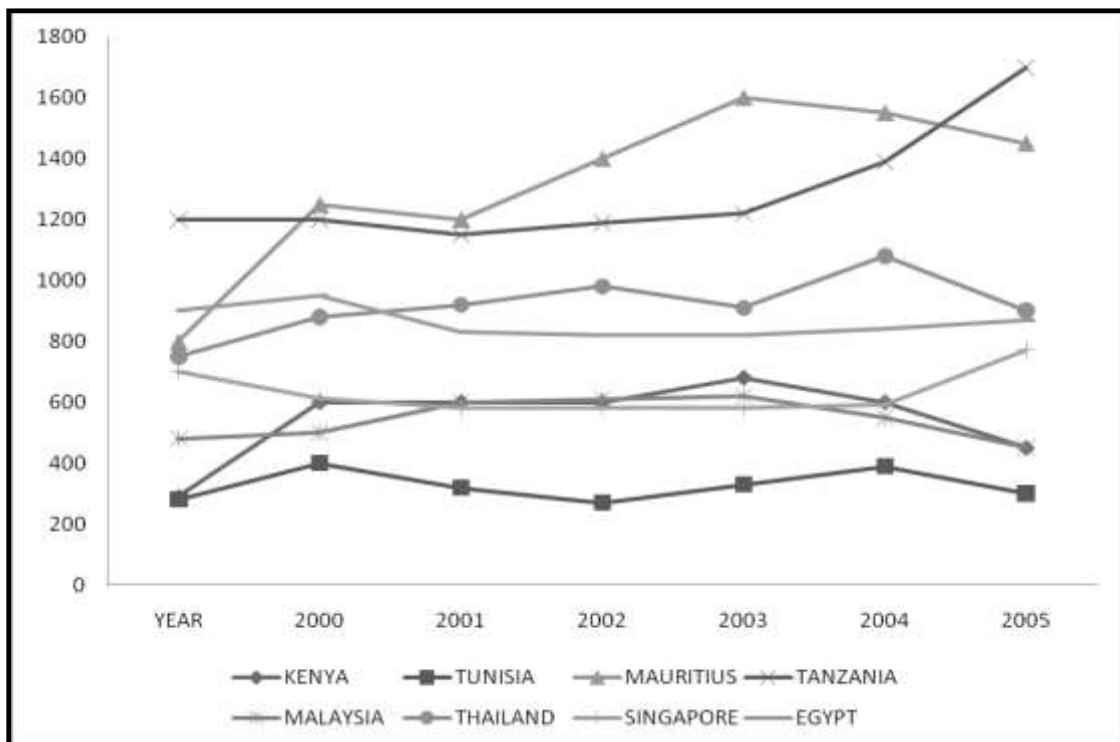


Figure 1.4. Per capita tourist expenditure, 2000-2006

Source: WTO (2007)

Figure 1.2 indicates that data on average room rates for first class pace that there has been an over-supply of accommodation in Kenya. The average room rates for the country in 2006 are low compared to Tanzania, Singapore, and Mauritius (Figure 1.3). During this year, Kenya was charging an average USD 84 per room, which is lower than in most of the comparator destinations such as Mauritius (US\$ 131.6), Tanzania (US\$111.9), South Africa (USD 104.8), Singapore (US\$ 118.9) and Thailand (US\$ 100.5). However, the rates in Kenya were higher than Tunisia (US\$ 70.8), Egypt

(US\$ 61.2) and Malaysia (US\$ 58.8). Overall, Kenya is ranked number 15 out of 130 countries in terms of average room cost. This situation may be attributable to the perception that Kenya is a cheap destination that attracts mass tourists in disregard to potential tourists who are willing to spend the extras. The accommodation facilities are not up to the internationally required cheapness attracts low class tourists as these facilities are cheaper and avoidable.

1.10.1. Overnight Stays by Inbound and Domestic Tourists

World Trade and Tourism Council (WTTC) (2007) states that the number of overnight stays for Kenya has been increasing from 2.6 million in 2001 to 6.8 million (equivalent to about 20% of the population) in 2005. Tanzania has closely followed by Kenya in this regard. Mauritius, Malaysia, Egypt and Thailand have been having higher overnight stays by inbound tourists. They had an average of 7 million, 16.7 million, 56.5 million and 85.5 million overnight stays, respectively. This corresponds to an equivalent of 580 per cent, 70 per cent, 80 per cent, and 130 per cent of their respective populations (W. During the 2001-2005 period, Kenya had an average of 757,400 overnight stays (about 2% of the population) by domestic tourists (UNWTO, 2007). The number rose marginally from 740,000 in 2001 to 840,000 in 2005. This was as a result of political stability and high disposable income following the new government's policy of offering incentives for investors both locally and internationally.

The number of overnight stays by domestic tourists is lower in Kenya compared to other countries. Tanzania, for instance, had an average of 3.92 million overnight stays (10% as a proportion of the population) rising from 2.92 million in 2001 to 4.5 million in 2005. The other countries had higher average overnight stays—Tunisia 2.7 million, Egypt 4.6 million and Malaysia 21.6 million. These are equivalent to a

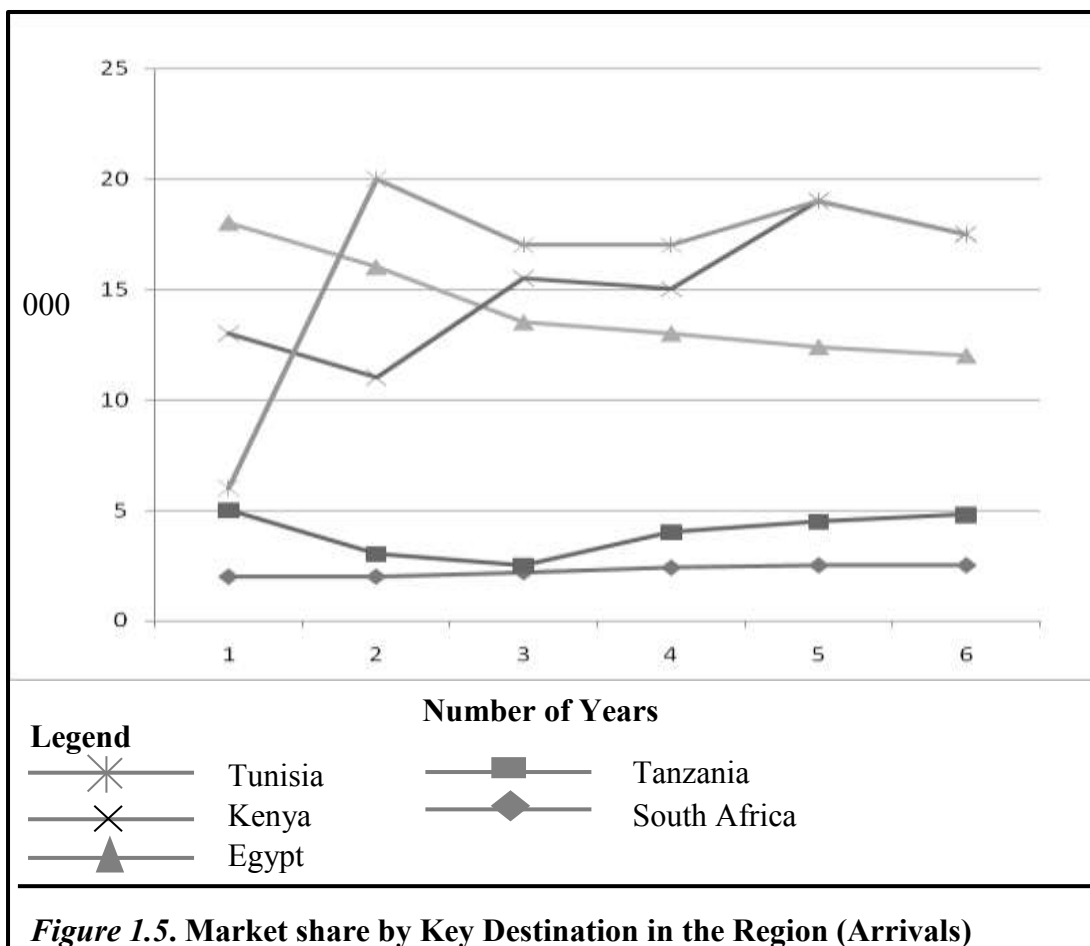
proportion of about 30 per cent, 10 per cent and 90 per cent of their respective populations in 2005. Even though there was scanty data, Thailand appears to have had over 100 million overnight stays (about 160% of its population) by domestic tourists in 2001. Comparing the inbound and domestic overnight stays for selected countries for 2005. Kenya has a very small proportion of domestic overnight stays compared to inbound tourists. The reason for this low number of inbound tourists is because the majority of Kenyan citizens cannot avoid visiting these facilities for leisure due high poverty levels.

UNWTO (2006) shows that the scenario is different for Malaysia and Indonesia, which have relatively higher domestic overnight stays compared to inbound tourists. Tanzania reflects good performance with almost equal numbers between inbound and domestic overnight stays in 2005. Perhaps this suggests that, while marketing efforts should still be undertaken in overseas source markets, it is imperative for Kenya to expend more efforts in targeting domestic tourists. Domestic tourists could greatly help reduce seasonal fluctuations of overnight stays, especially in periods of negative travel advisories. It is important to determine what products the domestic tourists prefer and ensure that they are supplied (Waithaka, 2004). The government should put in place security proactive strategies to be able to respond to any perceived or real threat. This will boost the hotel industry not only in the low season but also during the high season.

1.10.2: Market Share

According to UNWTO (2007) Kenya's market share in the region was on the decline between 1990 and 2003. The share started increasing, although marginally, in 2004 as shown in Figure 1.3 South Africa registered a steep rise from 5.8 per cent to 20.1 per cent in 1995. This rise could be largely attributed to the global reaction brought about

by the end of apartheid in South Africa, leading to an influx of visitors seeking to experience a new destination. However, a decline followed between 1995 and 2000 and, subsequently, the growth curve flattened between 2000 and 2003. While Tunisia's share was declining, Egypt was gaining steadily and in 2004 it overtook South Africa to become the leading destination in Africa. As the figure shows, there is a huge gap between the three best performing destinations (South Africa, Tunisia, and Egypt) and Kenya. By leveraging its competitive advantages and dealing with the extant disadvantages, Kenya could close the gap (Ikiara, Mwakubo, Gichira, & Njiraini, 2007). While Tunisia and Morocco are short haul destinations from the European tourist generating countries, South Africa is a long haul destination, as is Kenya. Thus, South Africa stands out as the main competitor destination for Kenya. South Africa recognizes tourism as a key sector and commits considerable resources for its development and promotion.



Tourist arrivals in Kenya increased from 0.8 million in 1990 to about 1.6 million in 2006 (Figure 1.4), an increase of 100 per cent. Apparently, there is a huge difference in terms of absolute number of arrivals between Kenya, Malaysia and Singapore, which are recognized as countries of aspiration in Vision 2030. While the number of arrivals in Malaysia rose by over 100 per cent from about 7.5 million in 1990 to 17.5 million in 2006, that of Singapore grew by about 60 per cent from 4.8 million to 7.6 million over the same period. Although the number of international visitors increased to a record 1.6 million in 2006, other top tourist destinations such as South Africa and Egypt attracted four to five times more visitors. Visitation figures for Tanzania are by comparison lower than Kenya's, although not by a big margin. Visitor arrivals rose to about 0.5 million in 2006 from about 0.2 million (an increase of over 100%) in 1990. It should be noted that Tanzania has a limited tourism product range, largely based on wildlife, which is not diversified (UNWTO, 2007).

1.10.3: Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index

The World Economic Forum (WEF), in collaboration with the International Air Transport Association (IATA), UNWTO and the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), among other tourism related bodies, have developed a TTCI, which aims to measure the factors and policies that make it attractive to develop the travel and tourism sector in different countries. The TTCI is based on three broad categories of variables that facilitate or drive travel and tourism competitiveness. These are: (i) Travel and tourism regulatory framework; (ii) Travel and tourism business environment and the infrastructure; and (iii) Travel and tourism human, natural and cultural elements (UNWTO, 2007).

The first sub-index captures those elements that are policy-related and generally under the purview of the government. The second sub-index captures elements of the

business environment and the infrastructure of each economy. The third sub-index captures the human and cultural elements of each country's resource endowments. Each of these sub-indexes is composed in turn by a number of pillars that add up to 14 in total (WEF, 2008). Using the World Economic Forum TICI index, Kenya is ranked number 101 out of 130 tourism destinations in 2008 (Appendix XIII).

This is a lower ranking compared to African destinations such as Tunisia (39), Egypt (66), Mauritius (41), South Africa (60), Botswana (87) and Tanzania (88). Singapore, which is among the countries that Kenya aspires to emulate, is ranked 16. Kenya scores poorly in safety and security (120th). Malaysia, which is ranked 32nd has excellent ground transport (Tourism and Transport Consult International, 1998). The government supports the sector through relatively high marketing expenditure and favorable visa requirements. Mauritius is the most competitive country in sub-Saharan Africa, ranked 41st overall. The local population has a positive attitude towards tourists, and the country has a well-developed tourism infrastructure (UNWTO, 2006). However, it has restrictions on foreign ownership, flight charters, and there is no over-establishment of accommodation facilities. South Africa, which is ranked 60th has a number of world heritage sites and well developed air and ground transport infrastructure. The country has excellent protection of property rights and less stringent visa requirements. But the country has serious safety and security concerns and rigid foreign exchange rules. Tanzania ranks higher in the Competitiveness Index than Kenya in terms of nationally protected areas, rules governing foreign direct investment, foreign ownership restrictions, government prioritization of sustainable travel and tourism, and clarity and stability of environmental regulations.

1.10.4: Safety and Security

According to WEF (2007) the country cannot create wealth and prosperity if the safety and security of the workers, customers, entrepreneurs and property is not guaranteed because of conflicts, terrorism and crime. According to an investment climate assessment survey conducted in 2004, crime was the third most common complaint by firms; the direct loss to crime was estimated at 4 per cent of total annual sales revenue. Most firms also spent money on private security services. The government included maintenance of law and order, and an efficient and motivated police force as its goals in the Economic Recovery Strategy (ERS) and is part of Governance, Justice, Law and Order Sector (GJLOS) reforms. Although crime statistics indicate that the situation improved, the post-election crisis led to a serious deterioration of security in early 2008.

In a comparative perspective, the security situation in Kenya is relatively bad, particularly on business cost of security and business cost of crime and violence, both of which ranked at positions 124 and 125, respectively. This is because Kenya has been a Victim of terror attacks in the recent past. Further, despite the heavy investments in public service and the GJLOS reforms programme, Kenya is ranked low on reliability of police services (96) and organized crime in public institutions (113) (Appendix Table 1.9). In the business cost of terrorism category, South Africa (126), Uganda (100) and Tanzania (88) are also poorly rated. On business cost of crime and violence, Uganda, Egypt and China were also almost at par with Kenya. The Asian Tigers, on the other hand, seemed to perform relatively well across all the security indicators. In particular, Singapore tops in reliability of police services (ranked 4), organized crime in public institutions (ranked 8) and business costs of

terrorism (ranked 10). Kenya also performs poorly in the judicial independence ranking (97) and law and order index (2.5). The other countries that perform poorly in judicial independence ranking are Argentina (123) and Indonesia (98), while for law and order were Argentina (2.8), Brazil (2.5), Ghana (2.4) and South Africa (2.5).

Singapore performs fairly well in both ratings. Kenya's judicial independence ratings can be interpreted as a reflection of impartiality of the judiciary. UNCTAD (2005) asserts that Kenya's judicial system still suffers from lack of resources to make rulings on a timely basis and root out corruption. Political instability may also lead to capital flight. The events following the disputed December 2007 elections attest to the importance of political stability. Because of political risk rating, Ireland (90%) had the best rating among the sample countries. Korea (52.4%), Uganda (55.1%) and Kenya (57.2%), in that order, had the worst political risk rating. In addition, despite the fact that Kenya has only 42 tribes and Uganda about 30 tribes compared to 120 in Tanzania, ethnic tensions in Kenya (with index of 3.0) and Uganda (index of 3.0) are worse than in Tanzania (index of 4.0). Apart from Indonesia (index of 2.0) all the other listed Asian Tigers performed better than Kenya. Argentina, Egypt, Korea and Singapore, which all had an index of 6, were perceived as having the least ethnic tensions. The rest of the comparator countries in Africa performed poorly in all the indices, while Singapore performed relatively well in all the ratings.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to review literature about the effects of security on hotel performance in Nairobi and Mombasa Counties, Kenya. This chapter aims at broadening the theoretical understanding of factors contributing to the effects of insecurity in the hotel industry. It also identifies major gaps in knowledge as far as security in hotel and tourism industry is concerned. This chapter is organized as follows; current hotel security standards, indicators of vulnerability in the hotel industry, effects of crime on hotels performance, crime profile and preference and theoretical framework; the durkheim's anomie theory, the social disorganization theory, the differential association theory, routine activity theory and hot spot theory. The purpose of this chapter is to highlight the major knowledge gaps in relation to the study areas. It will also validate some existing theories which are relevant to this study. The relevant empirical literature is examined from Kenya, Africa and the global perspective.

2.2 Current Hotel Security Standards

In a study by Gill, Moon, Seaman, & Turbin (2002) hotel managers are aware of the potential dangers on their properties. They are also aware of the need to provide for a hospitable and secure environment. The problem for managers is that the two concepts of safety and security seem to disconnect with hospitality and friendliness. They have long held that these two sets of concepts conflict with one another, and that they cannot exist in harmony. Managers believe that there is an inherent dilemma in attempting to adequately provide for both sets. If there is a strong and ubiquitous

security presence, managers worry that this may impinge upon guests' peace of mind because this may make an impression upon the guest that an attack is imminent, thus producing feelings of anxiety for the guest (Gill et al., 2002).

Consequently, if there is not a strong and visible presence, management risks a higher probability of an incident occurring. In today's violent world, this may give criminals and more importantly hotel guests, the impression that security is lax, or even non-existent. Theoretically, criminals will feel discouraged by a highly visible security presence. Through this deterrence effect upon criminals, hotel guests should actually feel empowered, comforted and relaxed (Gill et al., 2002). The researcher observes that it was not clear which methodology was applied. This research therefore recommends an empirical research to be used to ascertain the status of security facilities in the hotel industry.

A study was done by (Gill et al., 2002) in United Kingdom on 70 hotel managers regarding the concept of guest security. The study found that hotel managers face a perceived contradiction of encouraging guests to use the hotel as a second home, and securing it against a wide range of potential criminal activity. The study concluded that hotel managers encounter an unusual challenge. Due to their strong customer focus and to their perceptions of guests having a desire for privacy, managers were forced to use a range of security tactics that are less intrusive (Gill et al., 2002). The study also illustrated the complexity of this matter by noting that crimes at a hotel can be committed by hotel guests, employees, or any third party, and that these same groups can be victims of it. For hotels that offer a wide range of venues, such as theaters, conference halls, restaurants, nightclubs, and shops, security duties become even more complex (Gill et al., 2002).

Even before the September 11, 2001 attacks, his firm had a color-coded threat level scheme in place, similar to the one adopted by the U.S. Homeland Security Department, in the wake of them. After a hotel bombing in Bali, Indonesia, Marriott put its Jakarta location on the highest level. This called for metal detectors, baggage scanners, and vehicle checkpoints. A car containing a bomb was stopped 40 yards from the lobby entrance. Because of this precaution, upon detonation only one guest inside the hotel was killed (Webster, 2004). The researcher observes that the method used for data collection not clearly spelt out therefore an empirical study is necessary.

In the wake of another high profile incident, the Boston Marathon bombings, many hotel brands made adjustments to their security measures. A spokesperson for Starwood Resorts said that they increased security measures at their locations in Boston, New York, and Washington, D.C. Hilton Worldwide issued a statement that said that it increased security at its hotels in the Boston area. Marriott and Wyndham also announced that they increased measures and that they were stressing added vigilance on their employees' part (DeLollis, 2013). There is a Las Vegas property whose managers are not so concerned with negative perceptions. The Rio, which is an all-suite hotel with over 1,500 guest rooms, has over 400 closed circuit television cameras, not including the 450 cameras in the gaming area alone (Florence, Eckels, & Knapp, 1996). In addition to the widespread surveillance of the entire property, it employs armed security officers and loss prevention specialists. Managers there decided that their security officers would carry weapons, in order to provide for the strongest deterrent against crime and violence. They believe that they have achieved a solid deterrence level, since none of its guards has ever needed to draw their firearm.

They emphasize that the duties of their officers are overt, and that guards are available for guest escorts to and from the parking lot, and to and from their rooms. They also claim that the presence of firearms helps its employees, especially those who are in charge of handling money in the casino, to feel safe doing so (Florence et al., 1996). At another Las Vegas property, Robert Baldwin, president of Mirage Resorts is not worried about perceptions either. He said, “Las Vegas hotels are different than hotels in other cities because guests spend 80 percent or more of their time inside the facility. It used to be that cameras were primarily used to watch the money moving. Now, some of our 8,000 closed circuit television cameras are directed at other areas” (Higley, 2002).

In the wake of a string of casino robbery incidents in Las Vegas between 1993 and 1994, Tom Triccoli, security director at the Las Vegas Hilton said, “It was a wake-up call. I am a firm believer in the visibility of a security officer, and the only way you get that is by uniforming the guards, instead of using under-cover guards in suits. Our security officers are taught that 99% of their job is in public relations” (Rusting Publications, 1997, P.5). Before the string of robberies, burglar bars at casino cages were removed in an attempt by management all over town to become more customer-friendly and hospitable. After the incidents, however, the burglar bars went back up, and have since come down once again. As in Las Vegas, some casinos in Atlantic City were not so concerned with image and atmosphere. Bob Bauer’s, vice president of security for the Trump Plaza Hotel and Casino, said, “While robbery has occurred against individuals, Atlantic City has never experienced any of the organized gang related attacks that Las Vegas has. Foresee ability is the name of the game in security. We watch and observe what goes on around us” (Rusting Publications, 1997, p. 6). Michael Hymanson, a Certified Protection Professional (CPP), wrote that all hotels

face security risks. He says that if nothing is done to prevent risk, there is an increased likelihood that harm can occur at a hotel property and to its guests.

A hotel's reputation and success is largely based upon the comfort and safety it provides to its guests, he insists. Failure to provide for a safe and secure environment will damage the hotel's reputation, and this may result in serious financial loss and damages (Hymanson, 2013). This report gives important insights on the presence of armed and uniformed security personnel; however, the findings were done in a report which is not a standard method of data collection in research. Therefore the researcher recommends that an empirical study be carried out to verify the above findings.

In another study by Clifton (2012) argues that because the hospitality industry has always adhered to a policy of having an open and welcoming atmosphere, its properties has become soft targets. He draws a parallel of the difficulty of protecting a heavily guarded nuclear power plant, to the difficulty of protecting a lightly guarded and open facility, such as a hotel property. Hotels fail to succeed in this safety endeavor because they do not employ the most fundamental step of security, which is performing a risk assessment (Clifton, 2012). The study acknowledges that this is a complex responsibility, and suggests that hotels hire a professional for this task. The study defines risk assessment as a calculation of severity and probability. This includes not only an evaluation of the potential loss of intrinsic assets, but also, the potential harm to guests and other invitees (Clifton, 2012).

This function can be performed by the hotel internally and doing so has some benefits. The study offers a very practical example of this by illustrating that each time a security officer approaches someone in the hotel, a mental assessment is being done (Clifton, 2012). The study notes that a petite, elderly, or intoxicated woman

trying to get her room key to work does not pose the same threat as a tall, muscular, or younger-aged man does.

A study claims that a simple risk assessment can be performed here, on the spot, by a guard weighing the possibility of an observed person attacking him (being a threat), and the potential harm that person might cause (severity of it) (Clifton, 2012). The study recommends managers to expand upon this calculation for its various potential threats, and then formalize this for the purpose of creating a documented security plan (Clifton, 2012). First, the property needs to be divided and categorized. Each segment or venue needs to have its own assessment done, such as the casino, front desk, nightclub, and guest rooms. Second, the potential threats of each area should be listed. Third, the severity of those possible threats must be considered through a subjective analysis. Fourth, the probability of those threats needs to be determined through an objective and external research process (Clifton, 2012). This report is a perception on how hotels need to be categorized. The method of data collections was not clear. Given that security is a very sensitive matter the researcher therefore recommends that an empirical study be carried out to shed more information on the above findings.

Mansfeld and Pizam (2006) propose that by creating a tourism security theory, several questions can be answered for the industry that can have practical implications. Some questions are: Why do crime, terrorism, war, riot, and civil unrest occur at tourist destinations? What are the perpetrators' motives? What are the impacts of these incidents on the industry, on the guest, and on the community? How does the general public react to them? How should the private sector and the public sector react? What methods can be used to prevent future security lapses?

A successful theory can provide for explanations and predictions for this tourism security phenomenon. They define theory as an attempt to explain a particular phenomenon that must predict and explain such a phenomenon, and that it be ultimately testable (Mansfeld & Pizam, 2006). They elaborate that the ultimate objective of the tourism security theory is to establish a causal relationship between two phenomena. These two phenomena are the elements of hotel incidents, which can consist of crime, riots, and terrorism, and any correlating aspects. These can consist of tourism demand, criminal motives, and victim behavior. They offer an example that says an increased crime rate makes for a decrease in tourists' visits (Mansfeld & Pizam, 2006).

Mansfeld & Pizam (2006) states that a negative relationship is one where higher crime rates make for fewer tourist visits, and a positive relationship is one where an increased visible presence of uniformed police and security officers makes for an increased feeling of personal security upon guests (Mansfeld & Pizam, 2006). It is important to note that correlation is not equal to causation. These authors have simply attempted to raise awareness of the possibility of such effects of one phenomenon upon another, in the absence of a quantitative and empirical research study. The researcher therefore recommends an empirical study to be carried out to establish if there is relationship of increased visible presence of uniformed police and an increased feeling of personal security upon guests.

Peter Tarlow, president of Tourism & More, spoke at the Tenth Annual Las Vegas Tourism Security and Safety Conference of 2001. In summarizing the event, he suggested that delegates need to employ creative thinking that goes beyond any petty or bureaucratic points, in order to assure travelers of their safety and security. He

emphasized that good security is good business, and as the world becomes more intertwined, the roles of security professional and goodwill ambassador will merge (Tarlow, 2002).

Chris McGoey, another Certified Protection Professional (CPP), warns the general public that a hotel or motel room invasion robbery is much like the residential form of an automobile car-jacking, and that it is on the rise. He says that neither police agencies, nor the FBI, track hotel room invasions as a separate crime, and that they will simply categorize these as residential burglaries or robberies. He concludes that because of this, little information is available to the travelling public, in regards to the frequency or location of hotel room crime invasions (McGoey, 2013). The researcher therefore recommends an empirical study to be carried out to establish the effects of hotel rooms' theft to the general performance of revenues in the hotel industry.

McGoey (2013) warns the industry that hotel security is a growing concern among travelers, worldwide. There is the negative impact on hotel bookings in the wake of a highly publicized attack on a traveler, in order to illustrate the importance of the security perceptions travelers have. The frequent travelers seek a property that has superior security measures and that after visiting a property it is the security features of that property that will determine continued guest loyalty for it (McGoey, 2013).

Buzby & Paine (1976) argues that a security department's objective is to have a proactive program in place for the prevention of hazards which can hurt, injure, or destroy lives, or property. It is for this purpose alone that laws are passed and security measures are taken, they say. A security department that can brag about the number of arrests and convictions it has made is one that is actually not doing its job properly, they argue (Buzby & Paine, 1976).

Ellis & Stipanuk (1996) agrees that a security program should stress the prevention of security problems, and that it is far more desirable to keep security incidents from happening, than it is to catch a criminal after a crime has been committed (Ellis & Stipanuk, 1996). One certified protection professional expands on the term of security by introducing the term of protection. She defines protection as shielding someone or something from harm, injury, or destruction.

This is achieved only if those who have been assigned this duty become proactive. If one is indeed shielded from harm, then no such harm will be allowed to reach that person or thing being protected. A line of defense, or a protective shield, that decreases the possibility and probability of any danger or harm from reaching that protected one, is necessary (Newland, 1997). She qualifies the definition by noting that this does not require attacking a potential perpetrator of harm, just simply surrounding the intended target. There is also no intent of preventing crime, just deterring a criminal from performing it. This deterrence will be achieved by having protective measures in place before a threat actually occurs (Newland, 1997).

Newland (1997) makes a distinction between protection and enforcement. The former is proactive, in theory; the latter is reactive, in theory. The latter is typically the duty of the County police and the public defense, whose mottos and mission statements are “to serve and protect.” But, she argues that this mission is not achieved when there is a response coming after the fact. No protection has been afforded to someone who has to report a crime. She stresses that the private sector, and the hotel industry, in particular, should approach a situation before it happens. It needs to be proactive (Newland, 1997). She also offers a hotel protection management model similar to the risk assessment model.

The model calls for management to identify assets to be protected, identify threats to those assets, employ countermeasures, develop a protection profile system, and apply management accepted techniques for it. She insists that this can be achieved and instituted without ruining the hospitality image of a hotel (Newland, 1997). In all fairness, given the fact that police agencies have such a widespread and diverse area to patrol, one must realize the burden in their duty to protect. This is illustrated when they say that the police cannot be everywhere. But, the duties of a private sector security force are much smaller in size and in scope and much more limited, than those of the police. In light of this polarization of duties, it would seem that a private security force has a better chance of accomplishing its missions of protection and of proactively, than a public force might have. One security expert offers some insight on the corporate organizational structure of hotel security. He says that the corporate security directors of today report directly to senior corporate executives, not to some building engineer, while still acting as liaisons for individual. The researcher noted that the above information is in the form of articles and reports, methods which do not fulfill the requirement of a research paper. Therefore the researcher recommends that an empirical study be carried out to shed more information on the general understandings of security standards in the hotel industry.

Beaudry (1996) offers some insight on the corporate organizational structure of hotel security. He says that the corporate security directors of today report directly to senior corporate executives, not to some building engineer, while still acting as liaisons for individual property security managers. This person's duties include creating policies that act as guidelines; serving as counselor to senior management and to security managers for the efficacy of security; serving as a data center for all divisions in the

corporation, and providing for the special security needs of top executives (Beaudry, 1996).

Considering a particular property, this author says that there are no established standards for the various-sized hotels. Beaudry, (1996) offer some suggestions for the industry. The security departments typically consist of a manager, assistant manager, a shift supervisor, and officers (Beaudry, 1996). For a hotel with 300 rooms or less, he recommends 2 to 5 security staff members, and one manager; for hotels with 301-500 rooms, 5 to 10 members, and one manager; for hotels with 501-800 rooms, 10 to 20 staff members, and one manager, one assistant, and some supervisors; for a hotel with 801-1200 rooms, 20 to 30 members, and one manager, one assistant, and one investigator; for hotels with 1201-4000 rooms, 30 or more members, and one manager, one assistant, and one investigator, and for hotels that have over 4,000 rooms, the staff numbers will depend upon the various amenities offered at the property, such as a casino, theater, theme park and nightclub (Beaudry, 1996).

The study notes that the primary objective of corporate security directors is to learn how to manage opportunities for increasing profit. This is difficult to do because labor, raw material, and overhead cannot be reduced. This task is necessary because until the entire security department achieves this, the department's own existence will not be perceived by corporate executives as being necessary or legitimate (Beaudry, 1996).

In a more concrete example, at a hotel in Miami, the property's 16 full-time officers were previously dressed in plain clothing with no badges. Crime against the hotel and its guests was on the rise. Thus, the security director there ordered the soft dress code to be changed out for a more high profile one. In just the first 90 days after

uniforming the guards, the crime rate there plummeted (Marshall, 1998). A study by Atkinson (1988) showed that the most important attribute for travellers in hotel selection was cleanliness. It was followed by security, pricing and services offered. Wilensky and Buttle (1988) highlighted the significant elements evaluated by travelers which were personal service, physical attractiveness, and opportunities for relaxation, standard of services, appealing image, and value for money. Mehta and Vera (1990) surveyed 194 guests in a Singapore hotel and compared 26 attributes across several market segments. They concluded that the key attributes used in selecting a hotel differed by market segment. Whereas Barsky and Labagh (1992) examined the three attributes that had been considered by travelers as important in choosing a hotel and leads to loyalty. They were (a) employee attitude; (b) location and (c) rooms condition.

Meanwhile, Ananth et al. (1992) surveyed on 510 travelers and results showed that price and quality were rated as the most important attributes, followed by security and convenience of location. Lewis (1984b) discovered the main features in choosing hotel for business travelers were (a) location which had a majority of 88.5%, followed by (b) price, 44.4%, and finally (c) level of service accommodations which achieved 28.4% according to the findings. However, research findings by McCleary, Weaver and Lan (1994) argued that the top five business travelers attributes includes business facilities, basic facilities, personal services, free extras and convenient eating facilities. Cobanoglu et al. (2003) examined Turkish business travellers' hotel selection attributes. Their findings revealed that there were twelve major factors of hotel selection components which were service, price and value, security, extra amenities, technology, room comfort, food and beverage, complimentary goods, parking, location, health sensitivity, and single sensitivity. In addition, both leisure

and business travelers had chosen general amenities to be the most significant determinants for hotel selection in a study conducted by Yavas and Babakus (2005).

2.3 Indicators of Vulnerability in the hotel industry

In a study carried out by Muchai (2003) the question of crime and security is reflected in the concerns of both local and international tourists. According to the Kenya Poverty reduction Strategy Paper GoK (2003) insecurity is one of the key issues that have been identified by many Kenyan communities as a source of poverty. In support of this statement, the Kenya Economic Recovery Strategy for Employment (2003-2007); states that addressing safety, insecurity and rule of law are fundamental if economic growth is to be achieved particularly in the hotel and tourism industry which is an economic flag bearer as envisaged in Vision 2030 (Government of Kenya, 2007). This is in addition to the contribution of efficient enforcement of law, the maintenance of public safety and guaranteeing of law and order which is essential to economic growth and development of hotel and tourism industry GoK (2007). The question of crime and insecurity has become paramount for the development of Kenya both nationally and internationally especially in the tourism industry GoK (2007). Kenya serves as an economic and business hub for both national and inter-national investors in the tourism sector and its geographical positioning has made it a key player as global tourist destination.

High incidences of crime and insecurity thus have a strong bearing on the overall development and expansion of tourism industry in Kenya (Oculi & Mwanguri, 2006). They influence levels of investment both nationally and internationally, the ability of citizens to engage in sustainable tourism businesses; both small and medium enterprises, agricultural production and facilitate movement of goods and services

across international borders (Oculi & Mwanguri, 2006). Crime and insecurity undermines the freedom of association and movement of both local and international tourists, create a sense of fear and intimidation and hamper the spiritual, economic and social development of tourists in a destination (Oculi & Mwanguri, 2006).

In addition Oculi and Mwanguri (2006) argues that, crime is a violation of criminal law from which formal penalties are applied by some government authority. Oculi and Mwanguri (2006) define crime as the sense of a break of legal prohibitions; it is an index of lawlessness and disintegration of social order. The legal classification of crime in Kenya falls under two broad categories namely; serious offences which include murder, robbery, bur-glary, rape and arson and non-serious offences which include petty crimes (Oculi & Mwanguri, 2006). Crime is further categorized into overt and covert crime (Oculi & Mwanguri, 2006). Overt crimes are easily identifiable; they involve the physical or psychological injury to other people Gimode (2001).

Types of crimes that fall under this category include homicide, armed robbery, carjacking, attempted murder and rape (Gimode, 2001). Covert crimes are less visible; they include corruption and economic crimes (Oculi and Mwanguri, 2006). Security on the other hand is broad, contested and complex concept; it is dependent on who defines it and in what context; security in the hotel and tourism industry is the freedom from danger and anxiety, freedom of individuals to enjoy rights and freedom (Kincaid, 2000).

Theft is the most prominent crime against tourist as shown in many studies regarding crime and tourism (Harper, 2001; Mawby, 2000). The history of theft against tourists or travelers can be traced back to medieval times when highway robbers were the fashion (Mawby, 2002). Their victims were well-to-do travelers in carriages,

stagecoaches, or on horseback (Sharma, 2006). One of the most famous highway robbers was said to be Robin Hood, who was known for robbing the rich (travelers) and giving to the poor (Brandon, 2001). Several studies tried to analyze the prevalence of thefts experienced by tourists while travelling away from home. The current global hotel vulnerability to tourists may have different motives from the one used by Robin Hood. There are other factors which attribute tourist's vulnerability which this research intends to unfold. There is a strong perception that tourists who travel away from home are more vulnerable than the local tourists.

In a study by Mawby (2000), burglary was found to be the most prominent crime experienced by tourists with theft from person attempted being the next most common in America. The study showed that 4.7% of tourists were victims of burglary, 3.5% experienced an attempted theft from their person, and 3.3% were actual victims of theft from their person. To compare the responses from their survey against victims, survey data from the national British Crime Survey (BCS), the responses were multiplied by 26 (52 weeks per year/2) in order to achieve approximate annual incidence rates using an average length of vacation of 2 weeks. When the authors compared these results against the BCS, they found the rates estimated in their survey to be much higher than the BCS rates and concluded that people generally experience considerably higher rates of victimization while they travel than they do at home (Mawby, 2000).

In a study that compared crimes against tourists with crimes against residents in the Caribbean, the results indicated that burglary and larceny against tourists in Barbados between 1989 and 1993 were far more prevalent than murder, wounding, rape or robbery (Mawby, 2000). The results showed that residents were much more likely to

be victims of violent crime (over six times more likely to be murdered or to be victims of aggravated assault) than were tourists (Mawby, 2001). The tourists are more sensitive to their safety and security of their possessions than the local tourists (Mawby, 2000). The security and safety international travelers are one of the five driving forces in a global competitiveness of tourist destination (Sharma, 2006)

On the other hand, tourists were disproportionately victims of property crimes and robbery (four to six times more) than residents were. Tourists were also much more likely to have valuables stolen from their persons, rooms or vehicles than residents were. The study also indicated that police in several Caribbean destinations sometimes expressed a rather off hand attitude toward tourist property crimes and tended to respond in an apathetic way to this type of crime. Police often looked upon tourists as being incredibly naïve, at times even blaming the victims (De Albuquerque & McElroy, 1999). This research therefore was intended to establish how the Kenyan Police respond when cases of robbery and others take place especially in the hotel industry.

Kenya has long been considered a nation that is relatively stable and secure (Gimode, 2001). As a result the country has attracted foreign investment, served as a leading tourist destination and hosted the headquarters of both regional and international organizations including United Nations agencies. However, since the mid - 1980's, and also 2007/2008 political skirmishes, crime and insecurity have come to the fore as issues that have fundamentally affected the Kenyan tourism industry (Gimode, 2001).

As Singo and Kimenju (2004) states the increase of crime and insecurity as reported by local and international media demonstrates the extent to which these phenomena have become a part and parcel of everyday life in the hotel and tourism industry.

Incidences of crime and insecurity in Kenya are manifested in the increase in robberies, burglaries, carjacking and theft in the hotel and tourism industry.

Gimode (2001) pointed out that factors that influence incidences of crime and exacerbate insecurity are several: in Kenya they include economic and political circumstances that produce opportunities and incentives for criminal behavior. Politically, an exclusionary culture based on ethnicity and personal status that protects the interests of elites has been attributed to the entrenched socio- economic imbalances along regional and ethnic divide particularly at the coastal region which has higher economic and political disparities despite the region contributing over 60% of the total tourism earnings. This has resulted in the marginalization of regions and ethnic groups and the resulting structural conditions such as social inequalities and poverty which create situations of social tension that can lead to conflict, a situation that creates insecurity (Oculi & Mwanguri, 2006).

Political activities such as elections and by-elections have also had a negative bearing on security. Kenya electioneering process is often characterized by violence which is linked to higher incidences of insecurity (Oculi & Mwanguri, 2006). General elections and by-elections have often been marred by violence as seen in the run-up to the general elections in 1992, 1997 and 2007 which recorded most incidences of violence (Mawby, 2000). This political instability has a multiplier effect in the hotel and tourism industry as western countries issues travel advisories to their citizens not to travel to Kenya as a tourist destination (Oculi & Mwanguri, 2006).

In a study by Glaesser (2007) presently, many insecurity cases occur which are undesirable, often unexpected and timely limited process development possibilities for the tourists such as terrorism and economic crisis. Insecurity demands immediate

decisions and countermeasures in order to influence further development positively for the hotel industry and to limit the negative consequences as much as possible (Sharma, 2006). There have been recent incidences of terrorism acts in few tourists' resorts particularly at the coastal region (Sharma, 2006).

In a study carried out by Mansfeld (2006) the media providing negative influence to the tourist destinations. It also can scare the tourists with their statistics of the crimes and may cause declines to the destination by the tourist's arrivals (Mansfeld, 2006). The issue of theft as its shown in many studies is the most prominent crime against tourists, the terrorism that also is a big affection of tourists decision making to return or not to an destination and as a crimes that against tourists, such issues occurs the world on a daily basis (Mansfeld, 2006). Those insecurity events unfortunately made tourists and travelers to be always victims of both violent and nonviolent crimes (Mansfeld, 2006). Those kinds of insecurity have caused a major decline in the hotel and tourism industry demand in various parts of the world (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998b). Whether it is a coup d'état in Fiji, violent demonstrations against the Group of Seven nations (G7) in several different venues, the uprising of the Palestinians in the West Bank and Gaza, or riots in the Chiapas region of Mexico, such incidents paralyzed or severely impacted the local tourism industry as a result of trip cancellation behavior and a shift of bookings to safer alternative destinations (Mansfeld, 2006). The study done in United Kingdom was to investigate how the security information is disseminated to the stakeholders including the tourists either to influence choices in selecting a certain tourist's destination positively or negatively.

As it is known by marketers all the tourists destinations try to make a destination marketing of their areas in order to attract travelers to visit (Mansfeld, 2006).

However the governments as well as the media frequently inform the public and tourists about the dangers of travelling to destinations under criminals activities such as in United States. Authorities need to make travelers aware of the potential tourist's safety, security concerns and warn them about travelling to certain areas. Nevertheless Mansfeld (2006) stated that media is an important news generator of security incidents observation. The media can provide and examine the information with the most vivid and explicit analysis of the incidents when they occurs. Therefore, tourists will be informed with up to date real life information when they would be creating markets about a high- risk image of the affected destination.

However, most hotels lack information flat form to disseminate any security crisis in a way that is not damaging to the tourists. In addition, most often the information given is not filtered and this creates security loophole for travel Adversary which in the long run affects tourists' arrivals. In a study, Stafford, Yu and Amoo (2006) found that terrorist incidents at destinations can have very harmful impacts on the hotel sector as a whole if there are dramatic falls in arrivals and the financial and less tangible costs to individual properties are acute when they are the scene of the outrage. Results indicated that hotels have a history of being targeted, some in popular holiday centers and others in troubled states where guests are mainly citizens and foreigners travelling for business or for official purposes. Locations of such strikes are worldwide in a pattern which reflects evolving domestic and international political conditions. Notable examples in the past few years are a car bomb at the Marriott Hotel in the Indonesian capital of Jakarta in 2003 which left 13 dead and 100 wounded and suicide bombings which killed at least 67 and injured almost 150 in the Radisson SAS, Days Inn and Grand Hyatt hotels in Amman, Jordan, in 2005.

The researcher observes that these results are contrary to other findings discussed in this study. However, Jamaica being a high crime country, the only reasonable explanation could be that the low rates and prevalence of tourist victimization could be explained by the relative low crime rates in tourist areas, which could also be attributed to quality security standards in those hotels.

In a study on obstacles to the growth of new SMEs in South Africa Olawale and Garwe (2010) found that South Africa has the dubious distinction of being amongst the world's five most-murderous nations. The researchers pointed out that the hotel industry suffers greatly from crime and violence where crimes are mostly perpetrated in form of robberies.

The researcher observes that this study was focused on SMEs businesses in South Africa, the hotel industry included. The study though giving important insights on indicators of crime, could not be fully relied on in this study as its main focus was small businesses. The study was also carried review of existing literature which the researcher observes that is not a preferred method of data collection in this study.

In a study on the analysis of the impact of tourism on the West Africa economy, Ige (2008) found that in Nigeria, though tourism plays a great role in the economic development of the country, there are several risks faced by the hotel industry, some driven by global events and on which control is limited or absent. These include the occurrence of dramatic events for example natural disasters, crime, poverty, and insecurity. The researcher observes that it is not clear which methodology was applied on this part of the world. This research therefore recommends an empirical research to be used to ascertain the real effects of security in the study regions.

2.4 The effects of Crime on the Hotel's Performance

According to Hoteleducators.com (2012) in recent years, the security threats that face United Kingdom hotels have become more complex and hoteliers are forging new partnerships with the police to deal with some very modern threats. Hotels are now seen as an attractive, "soft target" for terrorists and the number of high-profile attacks internationally has risen sharply in recent years. Evidence suggests that hotels are fast becoming a preferred target because they offer easy access to highly populated buildings with comparatively low security measures. The people who visit these hotels often come for relaxation, on holiday or enjoying an evening out. Therefore a key challenge is for hoteliers to implement more stringent security procedures that do not impact upon the guest experience – a problem that is particularly acute at the luxury end of the star rating.

Turkish Tourism Ministry (TTM) (1994) states that, the dynamic nature of tourism, governmental support, and incentives for tourism investment and developments, in addition to pro-active marketing of Turkey, has contributed to a boom in Turkish tourism since 1980s. The expanding tourism industry had contributed 3.3 % to the Gross National Product in the last decade. Tourism revenues have increased by more than 1,500 percent over the past two decades (USD 411 million in 1983 to USD8 billion in 1998). The number of tourists has increased from 1.2 million in 1983 to almost 9 million in 1998 and Turkish tourism market share, in world tourism, has expanded from 0.5 percent in 1981 to 1.3 percent in 1995. However, in spite of this rapid growth over the past two decades, Turkish tourism is now experiencing a sharp drop in the number of tourist arrivals and the revenue (World Tourism Organization, 2000). The recent figures suggest that the number of tourist arrivals dropped over 24% and the revenue declined to USD 5 billion in 1999. The country reports

published by Travel and Tourism Intelligence (1997) portrayed the Turkish tourism product as being poorly planned, based on low technology, with a low-price and low-quality image. The current drop experienced in the number of tourist arrivals and the revenue can be attributed to a number of internal and external factors and changes, a major one being a lapse in security in major hotels in the country.

Konstanze (2009) in a survey of 25 global resort destinations observed that destinations were affected by the geopolitical tensions in some countries. For example, the war in Iraq and security concerns continued to influence travel patterns and consequently hotel performance. The World Tourism organization estimated that global international visitors' arrivals fell 1% in 2003 as travelers opted to stay closer to home and thus resorts within Europe, the Middle East and the Caribbean were beneficiaries of increased intra-region travel.

Unfortunately, tourists and travelers have always been victims of violent and non-violent crimes such as robbery, rape; assault and murder have negative effect on tourists than personal property crimes Chon & Sparrow (1995). Violent crimes are, at times, life altering and can be more devastating to a victim than non-violent crimes such as theft Pizam (1999). Incidents such as the killing of a disabled American tourist on the AchilleLauro cruise ship brought massive media attention.

This incident caused tourists to avoid Mediterranean cruise travel and opt for the Caribbean and Alaska lines instead, Caribbean and Alaska Cruise in 1986. Other incidents of violent crimes against tourist were the killing of a pregnant German mother in Miami and a male English tourist near Tallahassee, Florida. These deaths caused a decrease in tourist arrivals to the state of Florida and tarnished the image of the state as a tourist destination (Pizam, 1996). These incidents caused far reaching

consequences in terms of decrease of tourists in these destinations. This study was to investigate if there have been similar incidences in the Kenyan hotels and it is consequences not only in the hotel industry but also to the national economy.

According to Benson (2011) in a report on how improvements in guest identification technology are helping to fight terrorism and cyber-crime, it was indicated that although this is a great innovation, identifying hotel guests in the first place is no longer a simple procedure. Now the hospitality industry is faced with cyber-crime and credit card fraud as hackers target hotels and resorts in increasing numbers with more organized and sophisticated means of doing so. There could be relatively unprotected sources of thousands or even millions of credit card accounts and personal details that cyber criminals can try to access. One security expert warned that rather than searching through many industries for vulnerable targets, hackers are increasingly targeting specific sectors whose systems they believe are susceptible and lucrative. There have been cases where cyber criminals have been able to siphon credit card information from hotel databases without being detected for months.

In a study on tourism and terrorism in Singapore, Henderson, Shufen, Huifen, and Xiang (2005) reported that security managers in Singapore favored a two-pronged approach in which clear and concise communication about security was coupled with efficient implementation. Internally, initial transmission of information occurred during employee orientation sessions and was followed by updates about changes to current practice and trends across the industry. Crisis manuals describing security measures and emergency evacuation arrangements were also distributed. Staff members were encouraged to comment on and suggest improvements to existing policies as well as be aware of the terrorist situation within the country and region.

Across the industry in Singapore, there was a security network of about 30 managers that convened monthly to share information.

According to Greenberg (2012) a significant stakeholder was the government and its agencies and all hotels belonged to a Safety and Security Watch Group, a formal initiative whereby security managers met with police bi-monthly to receive news about security. The government had worked with the Singapore Hotel Association and police to launch a national standard for hotel security in 2005. The publication was entitled the Technical Reference for Security Management Systems for Hotels and contained guidelines on the installation and maintenance of equipment, provision of materials and information outlining procedures, employing and training personnel, and establishing plans and procedures. Hotels had also to conform to laws and regulations; for example, fire drills had to be held regularly in accordance with stipulations of the Singapore Civil Defense Force. A Security Industry Institute existed to help train and improve the caliber of security staff and, in collaboration with the Ministry of Manpower, offered courses and certification for officers, supervisors and managers.

In a report in a conference dubbed 'Black Hat Security Conference' on how hackers are capable of tampering with security in hotel rooms in the United States. Greenberg (2012) found that a Mozilla software developer and 24 year old security researcher named Cody Brocius presented a pair of vulnerabilities he had discovered in hotel room locks from the manufacturer Onity. The devices are installed on the doors of between four and five million hotel rooms around the world according to the company's figures. Using an open-source hardware gadget Brocius built for less than \$50, he can insert a plug into that DC port and sometimes, albeit unreliably, open the

lock in a matter of seconds. “I plug it in, power it up, and the lock opens,” he says simply.

The system’s vulnerability arises, Brocious says, from the fact that every lock’s memory is entirely exposed to whatever device attempts to read it through that port. Though each lock has a cryptographic key that’s required to trigger its “open” mechanism that string of data is also stored in the lock’s memory, like a spare key hidden under the welcome mat. So it can be immediately accessed by Brocious’s own spoofed portable device and used to open the door a fraction of a second later. The researcher observes security information centre is critical in the hotel industry where all security issues are discussed by all the stakeholders ‘to be able to mitigate any security threat that may be out of proportion in terms of reporting to the public.

This report gives important insights as to the hotel standards globally; however, the researcher observes that the findings were done in a report, which is not a standard method of data collection in research. This is because, this particular resources gathered data from newspapers and personal writings whose origin could not be fully authenticated. Therefore, the researcher recommends that an empirical study be carried out to verify the above findings.

According to Benson (2011) in a report on how improvements in guest identification technology are helping to fight terrorism and cyber-crime, one of the latest innovations in the customer security market in the hotel industry is non-contact Radio Frequency identification (RFID) technology. This allows guests to access the hotel and their rooms simply by waving their room card, rather than having to insert it into a lock. Radio Frequency Identification is currently at the forefront of hotel security throughout the world and in the United Kingdom and has helped to increase customer

satisfaction, whilst improving the delivery of many hotel services. The RFID cards can also be extended to lift-systems with cards encoded to allow guest's access to only the floors that they are entitled. This means that visitors can be rest assured that from the front door to their rooms, their safety is of the utmost concern, which will only enhance the customer experience.

In comparison to tourists crime and tourist seasons in Miami, seven major crimes, namely; murder, rape, robbery, assault, larceny, burglary and auto theft were studied from 1996 to 2003. The study investigated whether seasonal tourism generated increased crime rates against persons and property. The results indicated that the tourist season (which is December through April) and the crime season seem to show a similar pattern. More specifically, major economic crimes, such as robbery, larceny, and burglary had a similar season to tourism while auto theft and crimes of passion did not (Yoel & Pizam, 2006).

In South Africa, Martitz (2011) article found that South Africa has become prevalent in the private security industry, where hospitality clientele are a focus point. One of the key emphasize by the private security firms is the procession of security officers who are fully trained, skilled and knowledgeable, presentable and well groomed. However, the researcher observes that this article highlights the security standards been set in South Africa. However, the article does not give into details how the security standards status in South Africa is. Moreover, the article does not reach the threshold of research as it does not have a defined methodology of data collection. This implies that the article was meant for information and marketing of private firms, thus its authenticity could be questionable to the reader.

Hotel security has been improved in most parts of sub Saharan Africa, following spates of violence, especially associated with terrorism. An example is a report from Somalia by Kwayera (2012) who observed that suicide bomb struck near where newly elected Somalia president was residing barely after dignitaries checked in. Immediately after the blast, two men, donning Amisom jungle jackets (Amisom is the group that maintains peace in Somalia), forced their way into the premises, shooting a guard. However, the militia operations were thwarted by the strong security presence in the hotel, and further search revealed that they attackers were strapped with explosives belts. According to the head of security in Mogadishu who was instrumental in securing the hotel, the bombs would have been detonated at the hotel reception to inflict a devastating impact.

This report highlights the security standards maintained in hotels in Somalia, however, the report was in context of the hotel that the elected president was accommodated in. However, the report does not give insights as to whether the same is replicated in all the hotels in the country. This leaves the researcher wondering where the security measures were meant for the president or is a practice in the country. Moreover, the report does not meet the standards of research work, as is the case of the current study. The researcher therefore intends to fill in these gaps by carrying out the current study.

The effect of crime on tourist arrivals is a major concern to tourist destinations. Most tourist destinations try to paint a beautiful picture of their areas in order to entice travelers to visit (Sallows, 1989). The government as well as the media frequently plagued by criminal activities against tourists in the United States issues travel warnings for certain countries, Kenya included, warning potential tourists of

safety/security concerns, sometimes suggesting that America avoids travelling to certain areas altogether (Yoel & Pizam, 2006).

The news media also plays a role in the dissemination of this information (Yoel & Pizam, 2006). As an example, an annual personal safety survey by Mercer Human Resource Consulting, cited in the British Daily Telegraph, Starmer-Smith (2003) listed the world's most crime prone tourist destinations: Cape Town, South Africa; Mexico City, Mexico; Washington DC, USA; Rome, Italy and Athens.

Negative media attention on a tourist destination in relationship to crime incidents can sometimes be blown out of proportion (Crystal, 1993). In the case of the murder of the pregnant German mother in Miami and a male British tourist near Tallhasses, Florida, tourism to Florida declined significantly (Yoel & Pizam, 2006). Media accounts suggested that crime was rampant against Florida tourists while official statistics told another story (Yoel & Pizam, 2006).

According to Konald (2012) security in most hotels in the United Kingdom is falling way behind the curve ball when compared to many other industries. Due to the complexity of operations in running a successful hotel and the possibility of reputation damage, many potential risks and actual incidents are kept quiet and go unreported (Konald, 2012). The report indicated that incidences occurring in hotels or resorts were reacted or not properly prepared for it and thus the opportunity for catastrophic loss is greatly increased (Yoel & Pizam, 2006). These losses include injuries and death as well as property, community and reputation damage (Konald, 2012).

In a study on investigating the process of valuing investments in intangibles in multinational in the hotel industry, Punpugdee (2012) found that when hotel Oberoi

and Taj were bombed in Mumbai, India, the hotel was closed down for close to a month. Moreover, business was also badly hit, with Mumbai hotel prices dropping by 41% in the last quarter of 2008, and it were indicated that return to normality or near-normality would be a long-term process. Repairs were also expected to take at least a year, the cost ranging in billions.

This study by Punpugdee (2012) gives a reader important insights as to the effects of insecurity to the performance of hotels. These findings give the current study a good base to refer from and build its research problem on.

In a study on assessing the cost of terrorism, Frey, Luechinger, and Stutze (2007) found that hotels have become a frequent target of terrorist activities in recent years. For this reason, hotels are being affected as individuals planning their holidays are less likely to choose a destination with a higher threat of terrorist attack(Punpugdee, 2012). Host countries providing hotel services which can be easily substituted, are, therefore, negatively affected by terrorist attack to a substantial extent (Konald, 2012).

This is because the affected hotels experience loss of avenue and incur increased costs due to beefing up security (Konald, 2012). The consequences of any terrorist acts and threats have economic, social, and psychological effects not only to the hotel industry stakeholders' but also the national economy of a destination (Konald, 2012).

This study gives a pointer onto the effect of security on hotel performance. However, the results derived from the study only point out that there is a relationship between terrorism and hotel performance. The research further recommends that a study be carried out to find out the effects on performance. The study also does not have a well-defined research methodology, no target population and the area of study is not

indicated. The authenticity of the study is therefore questionable. The research therefore intends to fill in these gaps by carrying out the current study.

In a report in Kenya by Bado (2012) observed that tourism industry in Lamu had dropped by more than 50% from January to July, 2011 due to insecurity and travel advisories issued by European countries. Most of the hotels have incurred huge losses as a result of cancelled bookings that have caused great harm to the industry even as the government struggles to improve the situation. The hotel industry within Lamu was forced to lay off between 10-15% of the hotel staff to cut off further loss arising from the insecurity.

According to World Bank (2010) stable political environment from 2005 to 2007, lead to international tourist arrivals growing at 7 percent to 11 percent per annum and tourism receipts by as much as 32 percent. Following elections in late December 2007, however, unexpected violence broke out, resulting in more than 1,500 deaths (UNWTO, 2012). In addition, more than 600,000 people were forced to flee their homes, and an estimated 160,000–300,000 Kenyans were displaced and living in temporary camps. Well into the first quarter of 2008, embassies, particularly the U.S. embassy, continued to issue travel advisories (UNWTO, 2012). News clips of street violence in Nairobi on CNN and BBC, together with the travel advisories, led to the immediate collapse of tourist arrivals and a large wave of cancellations followed (UNWTO, 2012). It should be noted that no tourist was ever injured and no tourist facilities damaged, but the fear of indiscriminate violence drove tourist arrivals down by 50 percent during the first quarter of 2008 as compared with the same period in 2007, and international tourism receipts for the same period were down by 34.2

percent (UNWTO, 2012). In 2008, hotel occupancies overall dropped to between 20 percent and 30 percent (compared to the usual 70 to 85 percent) in 2007.

2.5 Crime Profile Trends and Security Threats in the hotel industry

According to a report by Konald (2012) the United Kingdom hospitality organizations are exposed to various levels of man-made and natural risks. This includes fire, weather, food poisoning and tampering, fraud, data theft and the terrorism element (Yoel & Pizam, 2006). It was reported that the use of technology has greatly impacted how criminals can target hotels (Yoel & Pizam, 2006). For instance, instead of visiting a hotel to collect many pieces of information, a criminal can now scan the internet pulling up specifics about room numbers, location to other areas of interest, the leadership team and photos of critical areas in the property (Yoel & Pizam, 2006). Using application like Google Earth, a criminal can diagram the structure and their escape routes (Yoel & Pizam, 2006).

This study observes that the above report gives important insights about the trends of crime in the hotel industry in the UK. However, the report has major limitations in terms of research. For example, there are no clearly defined methods of data collection. Moreover, the problem statement is not clearly stated. The purpose and methodology used was not cleared stated. As such, the report cannot be relied fully in this study and therefore this study intends to establish the security status.

In a narrative on security threat in the hospitality industry in India Heffetz (2011) observed that terrorist attacks and threats against the hospitality industry, whether large international chains or individual properties, have grown alarmingly high. Modern day terrorism, which until the second half of the 20th century was mainly focused on targeted attacks, has since been increasingly directed against soft targets

(targets that are not major public or government centers or sites) (Heffetz, 2011). By attacking soft targets because of their relative ease of access, terrorists have improved their chances to achieve their objectives which include inflicting higher numbers of casualties, causing extensive property damage, and undermining the well-being and public morale of local, as well as national populations (Heffetz, 2011). The hospitality and tourism industries, which in this case refer to hotels, malls, mega-events and transportation services, are certainly natural targets; the effects of attacks on such sites are obvious and far-reaching.

Crime has spared neither rich nor poor because ministers and foreign diplomats have been targets of thefts and shooting (Yoel & Pizam, 2006). In August 2006, the Russian ambassador to Kenya was stabbed by a gangster near Thika (Musambai, 2005). In January 2006, an English woman, a renowned conservationist and filmmaker, Joan Root, was murdered by a gang entering her home in the night (Yoel & Pizam, 2006). These tales portray the disturbing depth that insecurity has reached in Kenya Mktutu (2003). According to Muchai (2003) 52% of all Nairobi residents constantly worry about crime and a significant proportion of people (25%) in Nairobi believe there is very little they can do to help reduce crime in the city (Muchai, 2003). In Nairobi alone, a victimization survey undertaken in 2001 shows that 37% of all Nairobi residents had been victims of robbery and 22% victims of theft at least once during the year before the survey (Muchai, 2003). A further 18% had been physically assaulted during the same year. At the national level, Kenya's security scores have been dwindling over time, Kenya National Human Development (2006). There have been fluctuations in the levels of crime with the highest total number of crimes being reported from January –October, 2010 were 57,827 Kenya Police Report (2010) figure (2.1). Kenyans, particularly those in urban areas such as Nairobi and Mombasa,

feel very vulnerable to attacks at all time of the day or night and especially during month ends, public holidays and weekends Gimode (2001).

The capacity and effectiveness of the police force is an important issue when it comes to curbing crime particularly in the hotel industry (Muchai, 2003). Many Kenyans, including the hotel industry no longer report cases to police for lack of trust (Muchai, 2003). Despite efforts by the government to curb crime through specialized police units (Alfa Romeo) and the promotion of community policing, there appears to be little real impact (Gomes & Mkutu, 2004). Thus consumers of security services including the hotel industry still view state machinery (Including police, local authorities and the provincial administration) has ineffective, with rampant corruption, weak regulatory framework, and insufficient manpower (Musambanyi, 2005).

Gimonde (2007) notes that data on crime are not up-to-date and it is anticipated that the actual numbers of crimes committed are likely to be more than those reported. Reporting rates to the police are considered as low as 25% because victims do not believe that the police can assist them in dealing with the matter (Gimonde, 2007). In response to the escalating crimes threatening personal security in particular, the Government and other non-state actors have put in place mechanisms aimed at addressing the situation.

2.6 Theoretical Framework

Glasser and Strauss (1967) observed that a significant feature of theory is its ability to explain things for the researcher (or person) who may wish to use the theory in an applied setting. The main argument in security theories is that there are certain variables that lead to the increase or decrease of security in the hotel and tourism

industry. For the purpose of the achievement of the set objectives of this study, the following theories were reviewed and seen to have some relevance in explaining the security situations in the hotel and tourism industry. The study applied and evaluated the following theories.

- The Durkheim's anomie theory
- The social disorganization theory
- The differential association theory
- Routine activity theory
- Hot Spot Theory

2.6.1 The Durkheim's Anomie Theory

Emile Durkheim defined the term "anomie" as a condition where social and /or moral norms are confused, unclear or simply not present. Durkheim felt that this lack of reforms or pre-accepted limits on behavior in a society led to deviant behavior. According to Durkheim, anomie is a breakdown of social norms it is a condition where norms no longer control the activities of members in society Durkheim (1950, 129). Individuals cannot find their place in society without clear rules to guide them. He observed that social periods of disruption (For instance economic depressed) brought about greater anomie and higher rates of insecurity, terrorism, suicide and deviance. Durkheim felt that sudden change caused a state of anomie. The system breaks down either during a greater prosperity or a great depression; anomie is the same result Giddens (1972.127).

Emile Durkheim's structural-functionism emphasizes the norms which societies develop and install to hold themselves together. Functionalism views society as a system that is a set of interconnected parts which together forms a whole. Society has

needs which must be met if it is to continue to exist. These basic necessary conditions of existence are sometimes known as functional prerequisites of society Durkheim (1964:225). Emile Durkheim's views are that society is a set of interconnected parts which form a whole. Durkheim emphasizes the importance of viewing society as a whole and interrelationships of society in terms of the functions they perform.

Giddens (1972:310) observes that insecurity actually produces social solidarity rather than weakens it. Durkheim also proposed that insecurity and deviance brought people in a society together. When a law is violated especially within small communities everyone talks about it. Meetings are sometimes held, articles are written for local news publications, and in general a social community bristles with activity when a norm is broken. As is most often the case, a violation incites the non-violators (society as a whole) to cling together in opposition to violation, reaffirming that society is bonded and its adherence to certain norms.

Emile Durkheim closely connects insecurity as that shocks the conscience collectively;

"We must not say that an action shocks the conscience collectively because it is criminal, but rather that it is criminal because it shocks the conscience collectively. We do not condemn it because it's a crime but it is a crime because we condemn it" (Giddens 1972; 123).

The contribution of this theory to this study therefore is the fact that there is a possibility that the different tourist destinations have different security standards, policies, structures patterns that would regulate behavior such as crime. Other theories have given reasons for this.

2.6.2 The Differential Association Theory

According to Edwin Sutherland (1970; 118) differential association theory, focuses on the process by which individuals come to commit criminal acts. People learn to commit crime as a result of contact with antisocial values, attitudes and criminal behavior patterns over time. Since criminal behavior is learned like all other behavior within intimate personal groups in an interactive process of communication, then this means that criminality is not inherited biologically.

Sutherland's theory offers a sociological explanation of why some people engage in crime and others do not. People commit crime because they have associated socially and actually more with pro-criminal patterns than anti-criminal patterns. Edwin Sutherland fully realizes that associating with criminals was not a sufficient condition for engaging in crime. People commit crime because of an excess of definitions favorable to violation of law over definitions unfavorable to violation of law Edwin and Sutherland (1970; 127). Differential association may vary in frequency, duration, priority and intensity. Young people growing up in naturally deviant area will be subjected to a criminal way of life [lifestyles] and could learn deviant practices, pattern of behavior and rules.

Based on the differential association theory it can be safely assumed that higher star rating hotels (when compared to other low star hotels) are areas where there is a lower incidence of insecurity criminal behaviors and law violations. This theory, therefore assess that the general expectation is that low star rating hotels will have more criminal tendencies than higher rated hotels in the two destinations.

2.6.3 The Social Disorganization Theory

Shaw and Mackay (1942.129) states that Social Disorganization theory focuses on the development of high insecurity areas in which there is a disintegration of conventional values caused by rapid industrialization, increased immigration and urbanization. Crime is seen as a product of uneven development in society, with change and conflict which affects the behaviors within it. Social organization exists when there is a high degree of internal attachment to individual and institutions in a community. The unit consists of agreement about goals that are worth striving for and how to behave and how not to behave both believed that social disorganization existed in city life.

Clifford Shaw and Henry MacKay concentrated their research on disorganized local areas slum areas of high crime prostitution and suicide. Crime rates were distributed throughout the city delinquency occurred in the areas nearest to the business district. Consequently their theoretical framework, social pattern of urban environment produced social disorganization which led to crime and deviance.

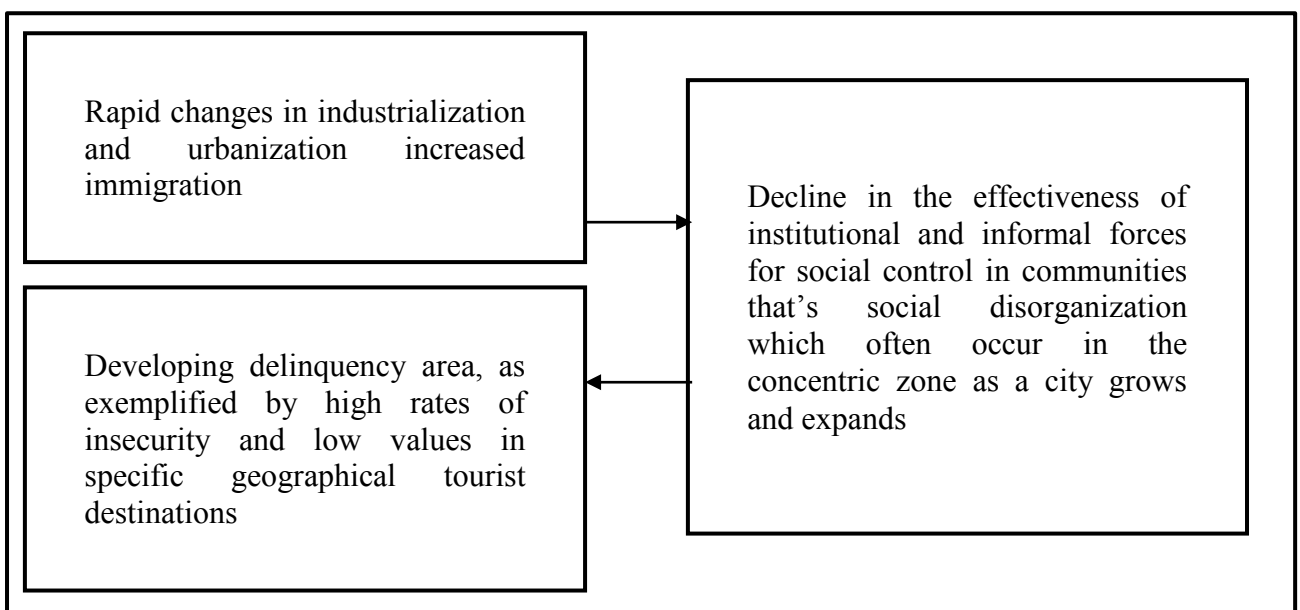


Figure 2.1. The Process of Social Disorganization

Source .D.J shoemaker Theories of Delinquency

The disorganization theory helped to elucidate security in the city of Nairobi and Coastal regions. People move to city from rural areas and this has increased immigration and urbanization, resulting to formations of slums which are not socially organized. The result to social disorganization is the breakdown of effective social bonds, family and community associations and social control in communities. Crime rates would be higher in cities lacked traditional social control and that contained some groups organized for criminal behaviors’.

Therefore it’s expected that the city of Nairobi with some form of social organization will have lower insecurity crime rates than the coastal region, Kenya.

2.6.4 Hot Spot Theory

The hot spot theory, as advanced by Cohen and Felson (1999) can be used to explain why certain locations in tourist destinations seem to expose tourists to incidences of victimization.

As suggested by Crotts (1996) “places where tourists are at the greatest risk of becoming victimized have been shown to cluster in a few specific types of places” or hot Spots. These hot spots provide a place of opportunity at which predatory crimes can occur. From the Uniform Crime Report, Crotts provided statistical information for the state of Florida. For example, Dade County (the greater Miami area) as the location of 30% of all reported property crimes against tourists and 37% of all reported violent crimes against tourists in the state of Florida during 1993. To put these statistics in perspective, in the same year, Dade County hosted 16% of the state’s tourists, as the location of 30% of the total crimes committed against tourists.

Cochran, Bromley, and Branch (2002) also used the hot spot theory in their study analyzing victimization and fear of crime in the entertainment district of Ybor City in

Tampa, Florida. The study tested Meie and Meier's (1999) "structural choice) model. This model examines structural features such as proximity to offenders and exposure to risk and choice features such as target attractiveness and guardianship. The results of the study indicated that victimization and fear of crime were significantly associated with two constructs of the structural theory, proximity and guardianship. However, victimization and fear of crime were not significantly associated with exposure or target attractiveness.

The proximity contrast was demonstrated by findings showing that living or working in Ybor City carried a higher risk of victimization. Ybor City patrons who report having victimized friends were 4-6 times more likely to be victims themselves than those who did not live or work in Ybor City, (Meie & Meier's, 1999). The guardianship construct of the theory was demonstrated by findings that patrons who perceived higher levels of guardianship were less likely to be crime victims. This is the case, even though the Ybor City entertainment district tends to host a large number of local residents

2.6.5 Routine Activity Theory

Routine Activity Theory also advanced by Cohen and Felson (1999) attempts to place the location and incidence of crimes against tourists into theoretical contexts. The Routine Activity Theory suggests three elements for a predatory crime to occur: a suitable target, motivated offender, and the absence of capable guardians (Cohen & Felson, 1999). Tourist destinations seem to fit into this framework. Usually, tourists make a suitable target because of their tendency to carry large amounts of cash unknowingly to roam in areas that residents would consider dangerous. The offenders are motivated to victimize tourists because of their view of them as the "haves" and

view themselves as they “have not’s” the so called Robin Hood theory. In addition, because many tourist destinations are not willing to admit that the tourist crime is a problem, they may not have the capable guardians or law enforcement agents in place in order to deter tourists.

2.7 Summary of Literature Review

From the review of literature, it is evident that insecurity is prevalent from global perspective to the Kenyan level and the consequences of insecurity have far reaching effects on hotel performance. However, review of the studies reveals that despite the prevalence of insecurity in hotels, few empirical studies have been carried out on the same. The study observes that most of the information available in form of articles, reports and newspapers extracts, methods which do not fulfill the requirements of a research paper. In addition, most of the studies either lack in theory or the methodology of study is not clearly defined.

The review of literature showed that most hotels do not employ the most fundamental step of security, which is performing a risk assessment. The review acknowledges that this is a complex responsibility, and suggests that there is need to undertake research to ascertain security risk assessment as a calculation of severity and probability. This includes not only an evaluation of the potential loss of intrinsic assets, but also, the potential harm to guests and other invitees.

Literature review states that there is a negative relationship where higher crime rates make for fewer tourist visits, and a positive relationship is one where an increased visible presence of uniformed police and security officers makes for an increased feeling of personal security upon guests. It is important to note that correlation is not equal to causation. These reviews have simply attempted to raise awareness of the

possibility of such effects of one phenomenon upon another, in the absence of a quantitative and empirical research study. The researcher therefore recommends an empirical study to be carried out to establish if there is relationship of increased visible presence of uniformed police and an increased feeling of personal security upon guests.

The review also indicated that police in several Caribbean destinations sometimes expressed a rather off hand attitude toward tourist property crimes and tended to respond in an apathetic way to this type of crime. Police often looked upon tourists as being incredibly naïve, at times even blaming the victims. This researcher therefore recommends research to be done to establish how the Kenyan Police respond when cases of robbery and others take place especially in the hotel industry.

The researcher observes security information centre is critical in the hotel industry where all security issues are discussed by all the stakeholders 'to be able to mitigate any security threat that may be out of proportion in terms of reporting to the public. This report gives important insights as to the hotel standards globally; however, the researcher observes that the findings were done in a report, which is not a standard method of data collection in research. This is because, this particular resources gathered data from newspapers and personal writings whose origin could not be fully authenticated. Therefore, the researcher recommends that an empirical study be carried out to verify the above findings.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

The study used cross sectional and analytical survey design as it was useful in indicating the security pattern and status in 3 to 5 star hotels. Researches based on this design are conducted to assess the status quo of a particular phenomenon of interest without manipulation of variables (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). This design was considered appropriate for this study because it saves time, expenses and the amount of quality information yielded is valid and reliable, while the interviewer bias is reduced because respondents complete identically worded self-reported questionnaires (Kothari, 2007).

3.2 Study Variables

The researcher identified the variables and labeled them for use in the study with the aim of enabling the study to proceed well and faster. A variable is characteristic (factor) that has more than one value either quantitative or qualitatively (Kerlinger, 1964:34). The independent variables have a great impact on the security performance. Low security standards lead to increased crime indicators leading to poor hotel performance. On the other hand, changes in crime trends leads to changes in security levels and if trends demand tougher security measures, the security may be compromised before changes are affected.

Table 3.1. Study Variables			
Independent variables	Indicators	Intervening Variable	Dependent Variable
Insecurity indicators Investment	Robberies Cyber crimes Injuries/deaths		Hotel performance Competitiveness Increased Revenue
Security standards Training Infrastructure	Theft Availability Quality Effectiveness	Hotel Security	Increased Bookings Customer Satisfaction
Effects of insecurity Capacity Ownership Crime Trends	Low bookings Loss of revenue Increased costs Patterns of crime		

3.3 The Units of Analysis and of Observation

Baker (1985) defines unit of analysis as a social entities whose social characteristics are a focus of the study. Single et al. (1988) describes the unit of analysis as the entity, which enables a researcher to seek facts to make generalization. According to Kothari (1999) the unit of analysis is the general level of social phenomena that is the object of observation.

The primary units of analysis for this study were senior hotel staff members who had worked in the sampled hotels. This was the reason why the respondents were asked their positions in the hotel industry. The respondents were sampled from the 3-5 star hotels in Nairobi and the coastal region.

According to Mugenda et al. (2003) a unit of observation is the subject, object or item from which we measure the characteristics or obtain the data required in the research study. In this study the researcher used senior hotel management as the units' observation.

3.4 Study Area

The study was conducted in Mombasa and Nairobi Counties. These areas have a wide spectrum of hotels and lodges. A majority of tourists' at least have to pass through either of these cities since they are border entry points both by sea and by Air. Each category of all listed hotels ranging from three to five stars can at least be found in both areas. Each town provides unique challenges and vulnerabilities in security as they have experienced acts of terrorism with devastating repercussions including loss of human lives, and property (GoK, 2007). Nairobi mainly targets business and transit tourists while Coastal region targets leisure holiday tourists therefore visitor variation/discrepancy is likely to be influenced by security.

3.5 Study Population

The study population consisted of Hotel Managers, Hotel Security Managers, and Division Room Managers in 3-5 hotels in Mombasa and Nairobi, which are approved by hotels and Restaurant Authority within the Ministry of East African Affairs, Commerce and Tourism, the (Kenya Gazette, 2003)(refer Appendix VIII). These cadres of respondents have critical, useful and confidential security information in the hotel industry as they make decisions concerning security issues. A list of all the hotels rated from three, four to five was compiled and this formed the sampling frame

In this case, the criterion was the star rating. Star rated hotels are luxurious hotels with exceptional modern and technical amenities and offer the highest standards of accommodation, service and comfort. Tourists frequent these hotels because they are believed to offer high standards security (GoK, 2007).

3.6 Sampling Procedure

Nairobi and Coastal regions were purposely selected as study sites because they possess a pride no other towns in Kenya does and the main activity is tourism particularly the coastal area. Nairobi hosts business and transit travelers. Stratified Random Sampling (SRS) was used to select the key respondents in 3-5 star hotels. These included; Hotel Managers, Hotel Security Managers, Front Office Managers, Accountant and Division Room Managers. Other stakeholders included Kenya Tourism Board; Kenya Police Tourist Unit, Kenya Hotel Keepers Association, Provincial Security Committee, Ministry of Tourism and Information, Kenyan Navy. One key respondent in each stratum in both regions was selected. The main stratum was the major job categories in the hotels. Further, the stratification of a proportionate allocation to size was extended to adjust the number of respondents for stratum. Security managers, Hotel managers, Front Office Managers and Division Managers because of their few numbers were purposively selected to allow each sub-group to be adequately represented.

3.7 Sample Size

In stratified sampling, the values of the sample sizes n_h in the respective strata are chosen by the sampler. They may be chosen to minimize $V(y_{st})$ for a specified cost of taking the sample or to minimize the cost for a specified $V(y_{st})$. Within any stratum, the cost is proportional to the size of sample, but the cost per unit c_h may vary from stratum to stratum (Kothari, 2004).

The formula below will be used to get the sample size:

$$n = NPQxDeff$$

Where,

n = total sample size (to be determined)

N= Total Population

P= proportions of security perception in hotel employee (set at 50%-since no known studies).

Q = 1-P

Deff = Design Effect (set at 0.5 for small sample sizes)

Substituting the values in equation (3.1) we get.

Therefore, the n = 32 hotels from both regions.

The next step is to proportionally allocate sample size to each star rating as follows,

Table 3.2. Stratum and Respondents in the Study Area								
City	Star Rating (Stratum)			N	Weight	Nh	Est. Respondents (5 resp.per hotel)	Others
	III	IV	V					
Nairobi	5	n/a	7	12	0.375	12	60	5
Mombasa	7	11	2	20	0.625	20	100	6
Total	12	11	9	32	1	32	160	11

The Security Managers provided information on crimes histories, if any, in the establishment. They also provided information on whether there are any variances on security crimes committed and the corrective actions taken. The Hotel Manager

provided information on security strategies applicable in their establishments. The recruitment of security personnel's qualifications required and the forms of security available. Division Rooms Manager provided information on those acts employees might be doing to defraud the guests and their employers. Their level of training provided an insight in their competence or lack of it in understanding and interpreting security procedures and policy.

Other stakeholders provided information on security policies in place, mechanisms to tackle crimes particularly those affecting the hotel industry. The collaborations between these stakeholders and the hotel industry, the challenges they encounter and pro-active strategies in place to curb cases of insecurity in both regions.

The stratified study requires that a researcher establishes insecurity information on the criteria or attributes that units of study must possess. The purpose of selecting the case or cases is to develop a deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study (Kothari, 2007).

3.8 Data Collection Instruments

The study used methodological triangulation approach to collect the required data using self-completion questionnaires, interview schedules and observation checklists. This approach offered the prospect of improved confidence in the collected data (Kothari, 2007).

3.8.1 Questionnaires

Both structured and semi-structured questionnaires were administered to Division Rooms Manager to collect data on crimes committed in the rooms by guests. The researcher decides the sequence and even the wording of questions because they have the advantage of collecting information from many respondents within a short time.

The respondents are free to offer information because: they are assured of their anonymity. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) respondents equally control the data collection process in that they can fill in the questionnaires at their convenience, answer in any order or give unique responses.

3.8.2 Interview Schedules

The interview guides were semi-structured and administered to Security Manager, Hotel Manager, and Room Divisions Manager. When using interview guide, the researcher decided the sequence and even the wording of the questions. Notes were taken during these sessions. The interview was recorded in individual schedules. These were later transcribed in order to verify the notes and also fill the gaps. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) skilled interviews, through probing can clarify vague statements to obtain in-depth, personal and sensitive information.

3.8.3 Observation Checklist

Observation checklist, (Appendix IX), was used to capture non-verbal occurrences. The researcher recorded the security practices and movements of security guards in the hotel industry as well as the movements of guests within the hotel premises. The types of security facilities used and design of the premises in regard to security was noted

3.8.4 Secondary Data

Documents such as daily occurrence incidents and annual reports on security issues were used to complement other sources of data.

3.9 Data Collection Procedures

The researcher began the process of data collection after ascertaining the validity and reliability of the data collection tools. Approvals for data collection were given by respective managers of 3 to 5 star hotels that were sampled out for inclusion in the sampling frame. Upon receiving confirmation for approvals, self-administered questionnaires were hand delivered to security managers, head- chef, and security guards. Drop and pick later method was used to collect the filled questionnaires which was done after three weeks. Several e-mails reminders and follow-up phone-calls were made to enhance chances of a high response rate and accurate sampling without bias. In-depth interviews were carried out on hotel general managers and security managers. This was done to gather more information on the security status of the facilities and gain more insight on the quantitative data. Observation checklists were used to discern the availability of security facilities within the premises. They were administered in the hotels by the research assistants during the time of data collection.

3.10 Pre-Testing

Before the actual study was done, pre-testing of instruments was done in one hotel in each of the stratum that is Nairobi and Mombasa. The hotels used for pre-testing were not among those which were used to establish reliability and validity of research instruments.

3.10.1 Validity and Reliability

Reliability is carried out in research to ensure that there is consistency of the research instrument, or the degree to which the questionnaire as a measure of an instrument measures the same way each time it is used under the same conditions with the same subject (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). On the other hand validity is the strength of

the research conclusion, inferences or propositions. Gall, Gall and Borg (2007) purports, validity can be referred to as a credibility, conformity or dependency of qualitative research.

Content validity was used to assess the internal validity of the research instruments which was ascertained through several expert reviews and judgments to ensure set questions gathered the intended responses. In assessing the reliability of the research instrument, Cronbach's alpha test (1951), which is a common model used to measure reliability and validity of a research instrument, was used. The reliability analysis results are exhibited in Table 3.3. The table reveals that alpha coefficients for room manager, front office and accountants' responses were 0.968, 0.948 and 0.780 respectively. From the findings it can be concluded that the constructs measured had the adequate reliability for the subsequent stages of analysis since all the Cronbach values were greater than 0.67 (Aiken, 1997). This indicated that the tools and responses used for assessing the security concerns in the hotels were consistently reliable and valid within the departments.

Component	Cronbach's Score	n
Room Manager	0.968	20
Front Office	0.948	14
Accountants	0.780	11

3.11 Data Analysis

The questionnaires were coded for easy data entry. After cross checking the questionnaires for any missing entries, a data base was designed in MS Access which allowed the researcher to set controls and validation of the variables. The entered data was cleaned before the onset of actual data analysis. Exploratory Data Analysis (EDA) was utilized in the evaluation of the outliers and any missing data points were

addressed. Descriptive statistical data analysis methods were used at the initial stage and the findings presented in summary tables and graphs where applicable. Inferential statistics were used to analyze the data and to test the hypotheses.

On establishing the distribution functions (normal/non-normal) for the variable an independent sample t-test for the continuous variable in the hotel industry were undertaken while for variable with non-normal distribution were used.

Factor analysis using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was used to assess the relative significance of various factors relatable to security and safety issues in the hotels. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test and Bartlett's test of sphericity were both used to measure the sampling adequacy and to test the level of significance. P-value less than 0.05 were considered appropriate for factor analysis. For factor analysis with PCA, all variables are required to have communalities greater than 0.5. Therefore, all items in the scales with communality less than 0.5 were excluded from the overall factor analysis.

Odds Ratios (OR) and associated 95% confidence interval (CI) was calculated to identify the factors that are more likely to explain the explanatory variable. P-value of less than 5% ($P < 0.05$) was considered statistically significant. Qualitative data analysis was used in the study. Qualitative methods sought to develop a systematic analysis of qualitative responses from Questionnaire. Qualitative data was organized according to themes. This facilitated the interpretation of information necessary in answering the research problem.

3.12 Logistical and Ethical Considerations

The study logistics comprised of pre-field, field work and post-field. For pre-field logistics, the following were conducted: 1) Obtaining a research permit from Kenyatta University Post-Graduate Board and National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI), 2) Seeking formal consent from the respective hotels' managers (refer appendix XIII), 3) Establishing a work-plan, 4) Budgeting, 5) Pre-testing of the instruments' and 6) Sampling and distributing questionnaires, interview schedules and observation checklists.

Field work logistics included acquaintance with the areas in which research was conducted, creating of rapport with the respondents during data collection, and familiarizing with the research instruments to avoid been seen as confused. Post-field logistics included collecting of the filled questionnaires and interview schedules from the field, editing, coding and entering the responses in Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) V.17. The completed instruments were then kept in a safe place for future use should a need arise. The researcher ensured integrity while carrying out research to avoid harm on the respondents. Information collected was used for the purpose of this thesis only and not to victimize individual respondents or sampling units (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). Respondents were also promised confidentiality, privacy and anonymity of the information collected.

3.14 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework is presented in figure 3.3. Mutai (2000; 104) points out that a conceptual framework is derived from theory, it identifies the concepts included in the complex phenomenon and will show their relationships. Conceptual framework was constructed to show the hypothesized variables related to hotel security

competitiveness (figure 3:3). The conceptual framework for this study begins with the recognition of the hotel performance competitiveness environment. As mentioned earlier, the security environment is a unique environment with different security structures and policies in the hotel industry.

The hotel security environment provides unique situations of insecurity that provides thriving conditions for crime. These conditions include robberies, drugs, cyber-crimes, and injuries and deaths. Due to poverty and unemployment most youth are motivated to engage in criminal activities as a means of survival. This creates a unique crime environment as a soft target within the hotel and tourism industry due to high flow of human traffic (Mansfield, 2006).

However the conditions that encourage crime differ from one star rating hotel to the other meaning that the crime profile is different in the regions. This provides a challenge as far as security prevention strategies are concerned because security standards vary significantly (Mansfield, 2006). In terms of hotels' security standards, effective and functional security devices are insufficient, and the overall effectiveness to respond to crime situations in most cases is wanting. Therefore in a bid to come up with an effective security management strategy for the hotel and tourism industry, it is vital to analyze the security environment in the two geographical destinations (Gimonde, 2007).

A framework is required to analyze these security threats. First it is vital to analyze the nature and topology of crime across the different star rated hotels which provides an avenue to establish whether different star rated hotels require the same intervention efforts or not. Linked to this, is the assessment of vulnerabilities to insecurity in the

same location? Are there rated hotels in the two geographical locations where one would be more vulnerable than the other?

Vulnerability to security affects other facets as well. First vulnerability to sensitizes to insecurity shapes the safety perception and attitude towards insecurity. It also affects general feeling of safety of the guests in the hotel and tourism industry. Finally understanding vulnerabilities provides one venue for tailoring home grown strategies to curb crime.

Finally in addressing security issues, prevention strategies are important to consider. Prevention strategies are informed by inputs from crime typology and nature of crime in the underlying differences. These strategies also benefits from crime trends in the hotel and tourism industry Mansfield, 2006).

The main purpose of studying security was not only to describe how insecurity manifests in different locations but an important feature of studying security therefore is to use the findings in order to recommend actionable insights as to how security could be managed in Nairobi and Mombasa Counties. A more common approach is to look at security from a management point of view. Security should be understood based on the available theoretical (thematically) construct. These theories form a body of knowledge that puts into context all the variables and dynamics required to assess security in the hotel and tourism industry.

Another starting point towards studying security competitiveness was to establish effects of insecurity which leads to low bookings in the hotels. This has a multiplier effect in other generating revenue centers in the hotel and tourism industry. Within the hotel industry, there are those who are mostly vulnerable to insecurity than others, therefore, it was important to take intervention for this vulnerable group. Once

everything about indicators of insecurity, security standards, and effects of insecurity and crime trends was evaluated the existing security prevention strategies can then be evaluated in the light of current perceptions. It is only when this has been done that an integrated security management scheme can be launched specifically for the hotel and tourism industry.

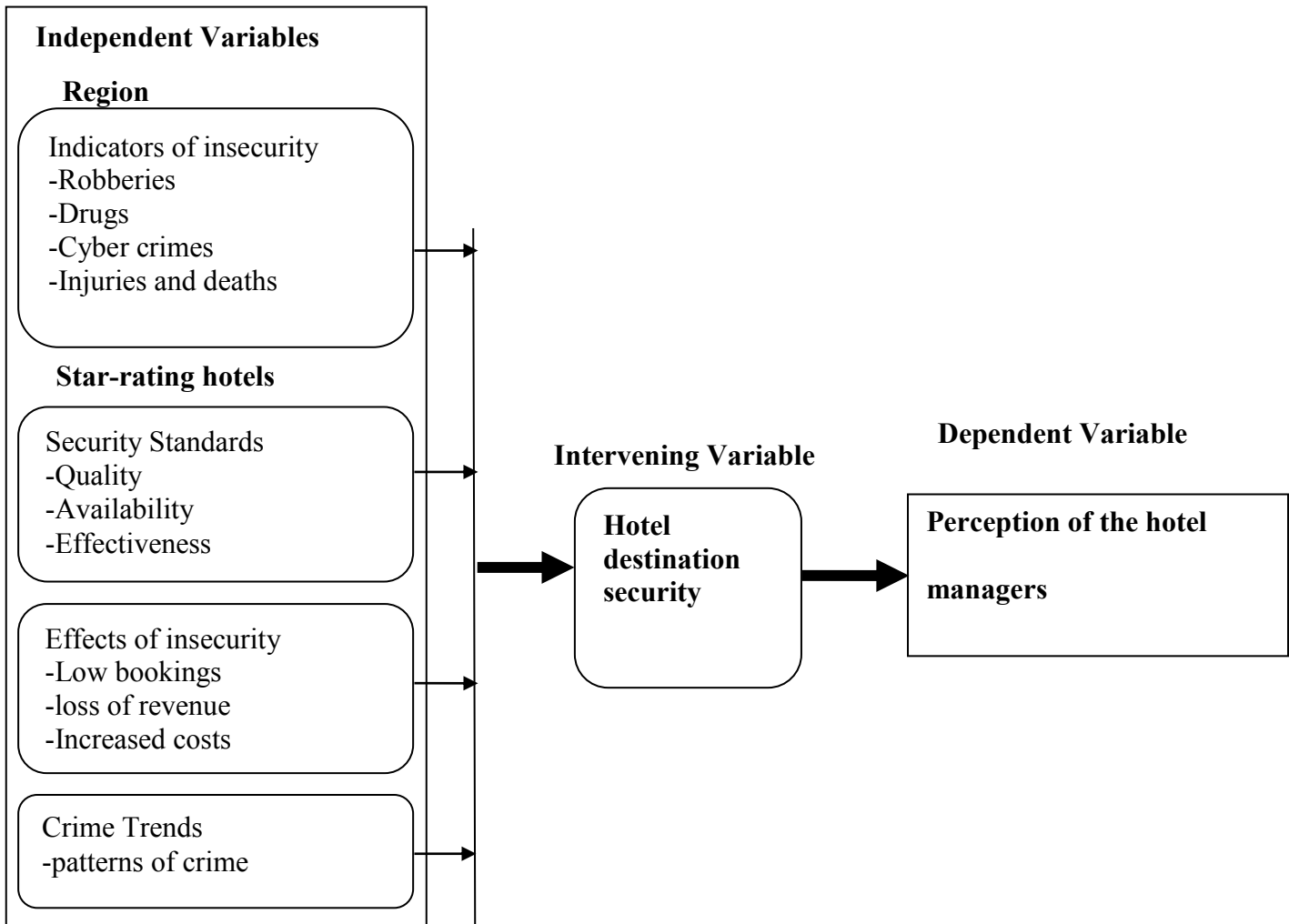


Figure 3.1. Conceptual framework

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

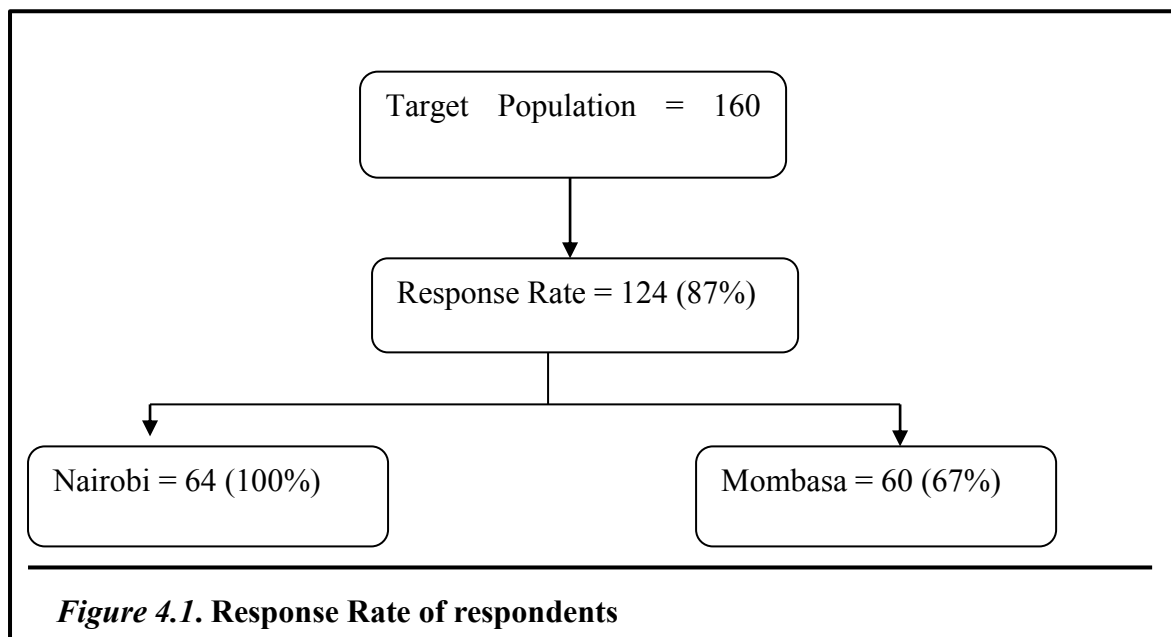
4.1 Introduction

This study aimed at determining the current hotel security standards within the sampled hotel facilities; profiling crime trends and patterns in hotels; determining the indicators of vulnerability of hotel facilities towards insecurity and evaluating the effects of insecurity on the hotels' performance. This section provides a profile of the respondent's characteristics from the sampled population. The following results have been discussed as per objectives of the study.

4.2 Response Rate

4.2.1 Respondents

Out of one hundred and sixty (160) questionnaires distributed, one twenty four (124) were filled and received back. This makes a response rate of 87% as indicated in figure 4.1. This response rate was way above the 60% that is generally used as a threshold for survey quality in social sciences, Johnson and Wislar, (2012)



4.2.1: Response Rate per Hotel

The response rate per hotels is presented in table 4.1

Star Rating	Freq.	%
Three	8	32
Four	6	24
Five	11	44
Total	25	100

A total of thirty-two (32) hotels were randomly selected from 3-5 star hotels in Nairobi and Coastal region. Twenty five (25) hotels were successfully interviewed, yielding a response rate of 78%. This response rate was way above the 60% that is generally used as a threshold for survey quality in social sciences, Johnson and Wislar, (2012). Table 4.2 presents the hotels response rate by star rating.

4.3 Demographic Characteristics of the Hotels

The demographic characteristics of the hotels are presented in table 4.3. The following section presents some important statistics discussed under; distribution by gender, a description of the hotel age, by educational qualification, working experience, distribution of hotels by region, hotel ownership, hotel property, distribution of security measures by region and star rating of hotels, comparison of security vulnerabilities by region, cost of security by region and star rating hotels, distribution of security threats by region and star rating of hotels, frequency of security training by region and star rating of hotels, handling of security incidences by hotels, Measures in place to check insecurity by region and star rating of hotels, frequency of feedback on security matters by guests by region and star rating of hotels, security records and legal policy framework.

4.3.1 Distribution of Respondents Work Experience by Gender

The analysis of the distribution of respondents by gender is presented in Table 4.2.

Gender	Freq.	Percent
Male	23	92
Female	2	8

The managers were requested to indicate their gender, and the findings were as indicated in table 4.2. This study showed that there was a strong skewed towards a more male-dominated workforce in the hotel industry. Male gender constitutes 92% of the hotel industry employees particularly in top management where critical security decisions are made. Only 8% were females indicating gender imbalance in management of hotels. Though these were key respondents, they included; hotel managers, front office manager, hotel security manager, accountant, division room manager, others included Kenya Tourist Board, Kenya Tourism Police, Kenya Association of Hotel Keepers and Provincial Security Personnel. These findings are consistent with that of African Population and Health Research Centre (APHRC) (2002) which indicated that the males in Nairobi and Mombasa are 56% more than women. This confirms the results by Bichage (2006) that Kenyan hotels are predominantly male dominated. Male dominance in the hotel industry may be attributed to rural-urban migration, where males from rural areas move to the urban areas in search of employment opportunities.

There was more emphasis to boy child education than girl child education and hence this might be the reason why there are more qualified male than female in the hospitality industry. This could also explain the fact that there are fewer women in management level since rising up the ladder also requires experienced people and yet women have not been part of the system for long (Nzioka, 2013). In addition, the

hospitality industry work life balance is very tricky for women especially working long and odd hours in night shift because the working hours are sometimes not in tandem with women roles in the household (Nzioka, 2013). However, there are many women working in the hotel industry in different departments with equal opportunities as male workers.

The search for jobs in the hotel industry is no longer a male affair because women also have improved their marketability in the job place, for example by way of getting more educational opportunities and the paradigm shift from male dominated traditions to more contemporary gender equality. Though the findings from this study suggest that there is biasness in female involvement in managerial positions, there is increased substantial number of female workers in other position in the hotel industry (Nzioka, 2013).

4.4.3 Distribution of Age profile of Respondents in Hotels

The respondents were asked to indicate their age brackets. The findings are indicated in table 4.3

Age of the Respondent	N	Percentage
18 – 25	1	4
26 – 35	3	12
36 – 45	13	52
46+	8	32

Age is an important demographic variable and is the primary basis of demographic classification. The findings from this study indicated that employee population is predominantly youthful 72% being below 45 years of age. Other studies have also shown similar age distribution in Nairobi city APHRC (2002) had over 75% were found to be within this age bracket. The potentiality of the hotel employees is

attributed to that majority of the workforce within the labor production employee age and engages actively in employment. However, 32 % of the respondents in this research were above the age of 46 and above. The implication of this finding is that, the study targeted high managerial positions which also require experience and hence the age between 36- 46 years is in tandem with longevity in workplace.

4.4.4 Distribution of Educational Qualification of Respondents in Hotels

The study sought to establish the level of education of the respondents. The findings are indicated in table 4.4. Eighty percent (80%) of the respondents have attained a university degree and above. Only 20% did not have a degree. Therefore, the hotel employee population in terms of their educational attainment can be described as higher.

Education of the Respondent		
Primary and below	0	0
*Secondary "O" level only	2	8
*Secondary "A" level only	3	12
University Undergraduate	16	64
Post-Graduate	4	16

Notes: * "O" Level (Kenya National Examination up to Form 4); "A" Level (Kenya National Examination up to Form 6)

Education is a key determinant of the lifestyle and status an employee enjoys in the workplace. Other studies by KDHS (2008-09) have consistently shown that educational qualification has an effect on the perception and attitudes of the respondents.

The distribution of educational qualification of respondents star rating hotels indicated a more male dominated employee with degree and above working in 4 to 5 star hotels. The implications of this is that a more educated workforce is more adaptive to

dynamic security intervention measures required than a less educated workers (Nzioka, 2013).

The security parameters are evolving and challenging to the hotel operators. This therefore requires informed minds on security procedures and standards to mitigate any security lapse in the hotel industry.

4.4.5 Managers' Perception of Distribution of Work Experience of Respondents in Hotels

The respondents were asked to indicate the number of years they have been working in the said hotels and the results are indicated in Table 4.5.

Work Experience		
0 – 5	3	12
6 – 10	2	8
11- 15	6	24
16 – 20	7	28
21+	7	28

In the five star hotels, 55% of the employees had worked for 20 years and above whilst 83% of the employees in 4-star hotels had worked for 20 years and above. It appears that there is a high turn-over of employees in 3 star rated hotels. This may be attributed to some unknown factors in the hotel industry (Nzioka, 2013). It is also possible that the generation Y employees who are on transitory in nature as they are likely to move out of their current employment for good job opportunities.

In comparing the two regions, 42.9% of the employees had worked for more than 20 years and above whilst 73% had worked for more than 20 years and above in Mombasa. Therefore, the results indicate that there is a high employee turn-over of employees in Nairobi than Mombasa region. The high turn-over of employees has a

security implication as hotels invest huge resources on purchasing of security facilities and training of staff on security issues Mansfield (2006). The hotel industry has responded to this security gap by contracting security services that are charged with both internal and external security procedures.

4.4.6 Managers Perception of Distribution of Hotels by Region

The managers' perception of distribution of hotels by region is presented in figure 4.2

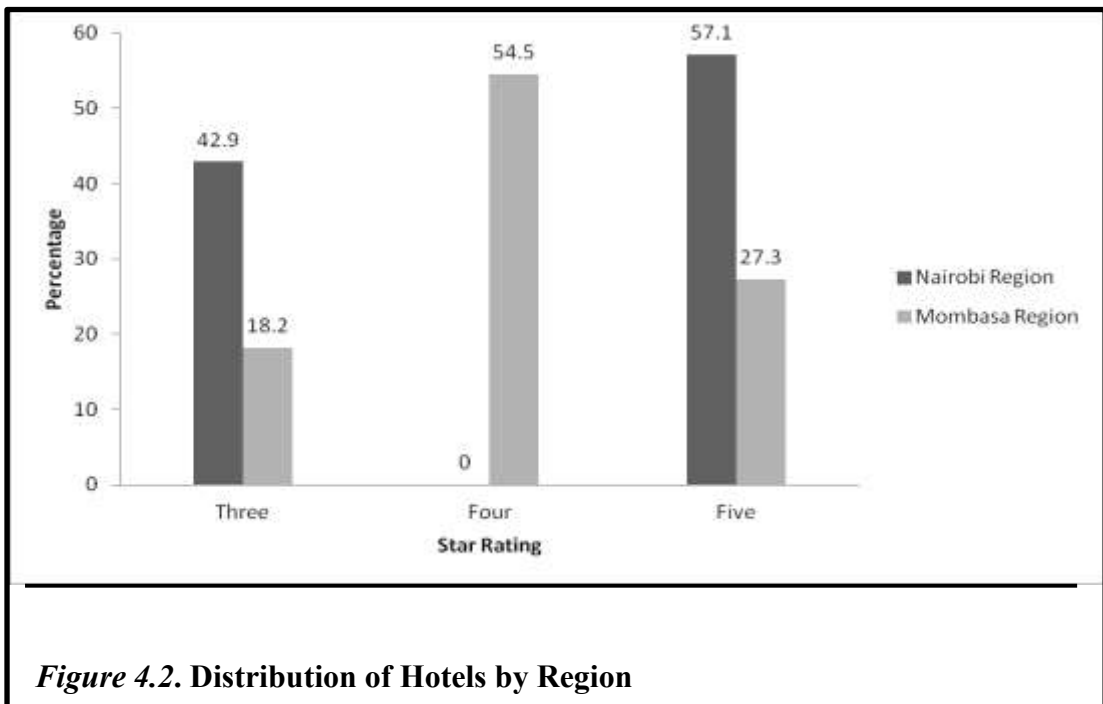
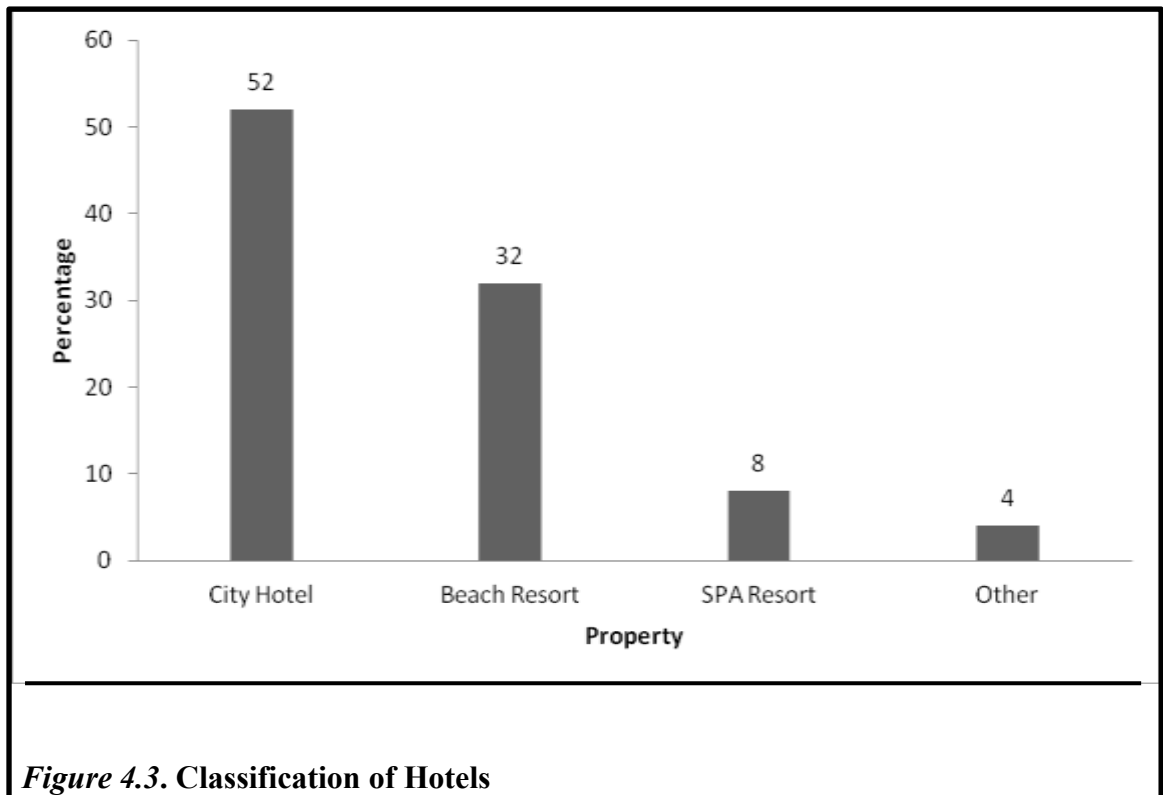


Figure 4.2 indicates uneven distribution of hotels in 3-5 star categories. 57.17% of the 5 star hotels are located in Nairobi while 27.1% of the hotels are located in the Coastal region respectively. All the 4-star rated hotels were located in Mombasa as there were no 4-star hotels classified in Nairobi by the time this research was conducted according to the Kenya Gazette of 2003. In the three star hotels category 42.9% and 18.2% were located in Mombasa and Nairobi respectively. The implication of these findings is that investors have invested more in high- end establishments in

Nairobi than Mombasa due to favorable conditions such as safety and security of guests.

4.4.7 Managers' Perception of Classification of Hotels

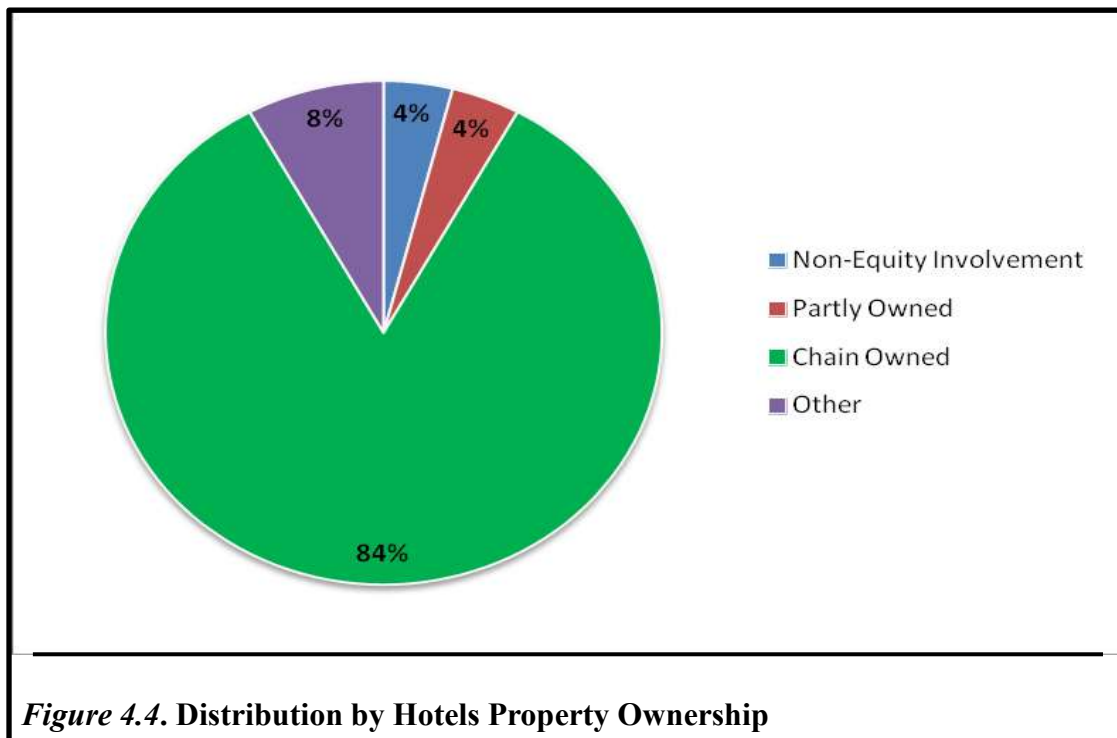
The classification of hotels is presented in figure 4.3.



The study findings in figure 4.3 indicate that 52% of the hotels are classified as city hotels while 32% of the hotels are situated at the beach. The Spa resort and others were 8% and 4% respectively. Hotels have fixed locations and their daily business activity that creates a perfect cover for security surveillance. Generally city hotels are more unsecure because they are venerable to security threats than resort and beach hotels (Pizam, 2006). Extensive traffic both vehicle and human inside and outside the hotel premises goes largely unregulated. This is true to higher rated hotels that incorporate shops, pools, gyms, bars, restaurants, casinos, and other public facilities

that cater to other customers besides the hotel's own customers. A study carried out by the Center for Hospitality Research (2009) which looked at 2,123 properties in United Kingdom, revealed that the level of safety and security is not proportional to different star rated hotels. The report revealed that hotels located at the Airport are the safest and secured hotels (Center for Hospitality Research, 2009). It is surprising to note that hotels at the airport locations get higher safety and security ratings than any other location including resorts which have extraordinarily low ratings.

4.4. Distribution of Hotels by Property Ownership



From the figure 4.4 on property ownership, 84% indicates a strong skew towards chain ownership of the hotel property. Other hotels (4%) were individually owned. This result is consistent with Ikiara et al, (2001) report that Kenya Tourist Development Corporation (KTDC) Act (CAP 382) provides the regulatory framework for the development of the Private sector's tourism enterprises. Since independence, the government has been a major participant in the ownership and management of

tourism enterprises through the KTDC. This enabled it to control a sizeable share of the tourist market and to expand tourism infrastructure. However, competition from the private sector was encouraged. In fact, the KTDC was mandated to offer soft loans to small hotels owned by Kenyans and to provide long-term loans to private sector hotel investors. Investment incentives, such as generous duty remissions on imported inputs, were extended to foreign investors.

4.5 Factor Analysis on Room Division Manager on concern for Security Issues

The factor analysis was conducted on the intra-hotel vulnerabilities to establish the concern of the division room managers towards safety and security issues. Both the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity addressed the sample adequacy and the level of significance (KMO measure of sample adequacy = 0.353; Bartlett's Test: $\chi^2 = 588.85$, $P < 0.001$). Based on these findings, factor analysis was appropriate. Factor analysis results in Table 4.6 indicate that the five components accounted for 87.548 per cent of the total variance in the level of concern of security and safety issues at an eigenvalue equal to or greater than 1.

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1: Intra-hotel factor	10.907	54.536	54.536	5.111	25.555	25.555
2: Robbery and Burglary	2.261	11.304	65.841	4.441	22.206	47.761
3: Injury and Fraud	1.793	8.963	74.803	3.293	16.464	64.225
4: Theft and Carjacking	1.508	7.539	82.343	2.946	14.729	78.954
5: Facility Default	1.041	5.206	87.548	1.719	8.594	87.548

Table 4.6 indicates that intra-hotel component explained 25.555 per cent of the total variance in the hotels vulnerability to safety and security issues. This component comprise of on-premise injury, injury caused by employee, fire caused by machine failure, money laundering, information security breach that affects the guests, perpetuating a scam on a guest and employee theft, and collusive theft amongst the staff. This finding implied that hotels were more vulnerable to safety and security issues emanating within the hotel premises but not from external factors. The hotels therefore should worry more on internal security mechanisms including monitoring all the activities conducted from within.

In addition, robbery and burglary accounted for 22.206 per cent in the total explained variance. This component was as a combination of destructive action of walk-in thefts, robbery of the hotel, robbery of the guest, burglary of the hotel, and burglary of the guest. This finding indicated that most hotels had security gaps which allowed these vulnerabilities to take place. The implication is that hotels should take stringent measures to ensure that its premises are safe for both guests and staff.

The third component (Injury and fraud) accounted for 16.464 per cent of the total explained variance and comprised of injury in recreational facilities and credit card fraud in the hotel industry. The hotel floorings and finishing should be ideal and usable to the users to avoid instance of injury from within. This appeared to suggest failure in the hotels' security internal systems.

The fourth component (theft and carjacking) accounted for 14.729 per cent of the total explained variance in safety and security issues. The component comprised of arson, vehicle theft/break-in and carjacking. This finding could imply that there are both internal and external safety and security concerns by the hotel management. The

hotels should be warned of suspicious guests and staff who may collude amongst themselves to commit a crime. The hotels therefore should undertake criminal records of their employees when recruiting and selecting them. Similarly, all guests should be screened to avoid cases of guests with ill motives.

The last component involved of facility default and accounted for 8.594 per cent of the total explained variance. It comprised of blackout caused by natural disaster and blackout caused by machine failure. This could imply that, though not so often, blackout failure may create a favourable environment for robberies and theft to take place. Those hotels which depend on one source of supply such as electric power are likely to suffer more from frequent power failure. There is a strong relationship between power failure and robbery related activities within the hotel premises as it creates a suitable environment for people to take advantage of the situation. Table 4.7 indicates a rotated component matrix using varimax rotation with Kaiser-normalization. The factor loadings were examined to determine which items belong to which identified factors.

Rotated Component Matrix^a					
	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
On-premise injury	.605				
Injury in recreational facilities			.773		
Injury caused by employee	.840				
Arson				.598	
Fire caused by machine failure	.738				
Blackout caused by machine failure					.838
Blackout caused by natural disaster		.717			
Money laundering	.611				
Credit card fraud			.883		
Information security breach that affects the guests	.800				
Vehicle theft/break-in				.851	
Carjacking				.907	
Destructive action of walk-in thefts		.720			
Robbery of the hotel		.912			
Robbery of the guest		.784			
Burglary of the hotel		.731			
Burglary of the guest		.695			
Perpetuating a scam on a guest	.728				
Employee theft	.746				
Collusive theft	.806				

Notes. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

4.6 Front Office Manager Concern for Security Issues

Factor analysis of the front office managers concern regarding the safety and security issues was conducted. Both the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity addressed the sample adequacy and the level of significance (KMO measure of sample adequacy = 0.746; Bartlett's Test: $\chi^2=134.513$, $P < 0.001$). Based on these findings, factor analysis was suitable. Results in Table 4.8 indicate that only one component was extracted an eigenvalue equal to or greater than 1 and for 72.856 per cent of the total variance in the level of concern of security and safety issues.

Component	Total Variance Explained					
	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1. Hotel Vulnerabilities	6.557	72.856	72.856	6.557	72.856	72.856

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Based on the results in Table 4.8, hotel vulnerabilities accounted for 72.856 per cent of the total explained variance in the safety and security issues. It comprised of violence committed by an intoxicated guest, prostitution (either on premises or in the neighbourhood), drug dealing (either on premises or in the neighbourhood), violence committed by employee against a guest, sexual assault/violence (e.g. rape) committed against a guest by a person who does not know the guest, and violence committed against a guest by a person who knows the guest. The implication of this finding is that hotel management has a great concern in security measures applied in the hotel industry. These measures if properly instituted will be proactive within the security systems in the hotel industry and will act as a deterrent to those people with undesirable behaviour to keep off from the hotel environment and therefore serve to enhance guest safety and security.

4.7 Accountants Concern for Security Issues

The factor analysis of the hotel accountants to establish their level of concern concerning the safety and security issues was conducted. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity addressed the sample adequacy and the level of significance (KMO measure of sample adequacy = 0.653; Bartlett's Test: $\chi^2 = 168.580$, $P < 0.001$). Based on these findings, factor analysis was fitting. Results in Table 4.8 indicate that only two components were extracted at an eigenvalue equal to

or greater than 1 and accounted for 71.937 per cent of the total variance in the level of concern pertaining hotel accountants' security and safety issues.

Component	Initial Eigen values			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of	Cumulative	Total	% of	Cumulative
		Variance	%		Variance	%
1:	5.024	55.825	55.825	4.430	49.224	49.224
2:	1.450	16.112	71.937	2.044	22.713	71.937

Based on the results in Table 4.9, the first extracted component accounted for 49.224 per cent of the total explained variance in the accountants' concern regarding the safety and security issues. This component included merchandise missing from boxes, merchandise at inappropriate locations, security devices found to be damaged or nonfunctional, windows or doors unlocked when they should be locked and workers in unauthorized areas. The implications of this finding are that hotel management has a great concern in security measures applied in the hotel industry. These are internal control aspects within the kitchen and the store operations, which affects hotel's profitability.

The second component accounted for 22.713 per cent of the total explained variance and comprised of mistakes in the receiving of goods, increasing amounts of raw materials needed to produce a specific quantity of goods, and employees who are sensitive about routine. These are internal vulnerabilities which the hotel management needs to address by putting in stringent measures to increase profit margins in the food and beverage operations. The analysis of the rotated component matrix is shown in Table 4.10.

Rotated Component Matrix^a		
	Component	
	1	2
Mistakes in the receiving of goods		.642
Increasing amounts of raw materials needed to produce a specific quantity of goods		.912
Merchandise missing from boxes	.726	
Merchandise at inappropriate locations	.801	
Security devices found to be damaged or nonfunctional.	.934	
Windows or doors unlocked when they should be locked;	.951	
Workers in unauthorized areas;	.915	
Employees who are sensitive about routine		.661
An employee who is living beyond his or her income level	.661	

Notes. Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

4.6 Indicators of Vulnerability of the Hotel Facilities towards Insecurity

The first objective was to determine the indicators of vulnerability of the hotel facilities towards insecurity in 3 to 5 star hotels in both Nairobi and Mombasa. This was done with an aim to underscore which star rating hotels and regions are the most vulnerable to crimes and insecurity based on the respondents' opinions, perceptions, and attitudes.

4.6.1 Security Vulnerabilities in Hotels by Star Rating

In order to analyze the vulnerability situation in the study areas, the respondents were asked to state their concerns to itemized components within the hotel facilities with a view to determine their vulnerabilities. The Likert rating scale was used to rank the subjective and intangible components in the research areas. The Likert scale comprised of 1-7 response categories, whereas 1 denotes the lowest concern and 7 indicates the highest concern. The respondents' were provided with an opportunity to freely describe the areas of their greatest concerns in the hotel industry. To assess the

difference in mean score for the security aspects, an analysis of independent sample test was undertaken across the three, star hotels using a significance level of 95% (5% α -level) see table 4.4.

Looking at different types of security threats in different establishments, they appear to have differing levels across the hotel rating. This means that there was evidence indicating that the security standards did not differ significantly within the star-rated hotels. For instance, payment of fictitious bills (P value=0.136) was not dominant in the four star hotels compared to the rest. Other security variables indicated that, there was no strong statistical evidence to support that security issues which differed significantly across star rated hotels ($P>0.05$).

4.6.2 Security Vulnerabilities in Hotels by Property Age

The security vulnerabilities in hotels by property age are presented in table 4.11.

Table 4. 11. Security Vulnerabilities in Hotels by Property Age					
Security Aspects	Age of Hotel Premises				p value
	0 – 5 Mean Ranks	11 - 15 Mean Ranks	16 – 20 Mean Ranks	21+ Mean Ranks	
Theft of goods	1.5	2.0	1.0	2.9	0.750
Pilferage	1.0	3.0	1.5	3.0	0.488
Prostitution	2.5	0.0	2.5	1.5	0.757
Corruption	2.5	5.0	2.5	3.1	0.789
Sexual harassment	2.0	5.0	3.5	2.9	0.716
Fraud	1.0	6.0	1.5	3.1	0.316
Broken doors and windows	0.0	2.0	0.5	1.7	0.631
Staff income levels	0.0	0.0	0.5	1.6	0.702
Mistakes in receiving of goods	2.5	0.0	0.5	1.5	0.732
Hidden goods in stores	3.0	5.0	3.0	3.1	0.925
					0.721

The table 4.11, above is ANOVA for mean ranks of various aspects by the age of the premises (dependent variables has more than the two factor levels). One would ask as

to whether age of a property affects security levels. All P-values were greater than 0.05 depicting lack of enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis. This meant that age of the hotel did not significantly affect security levels of the establishments, other factors might be the cause of diminishing security strength. This finding is pointing to other confounding factor responsible for the current security standards. This is also an implication that the security is a multiplicity of factors interaction and not a single consideration. This is because older establishments are usually upgraded in most circumstances to enhance security in the establishments (Bohdanowiz & Martinac, 2007).

This finding is inconsistent with the research carried out in United Kingdom by the Center for Hospitality Research (2009) which stated that the best safest and secure hotel is the one that is less than 7 years old and worst security rating is the one over 20 years old. However, Bohdanowiz and Martinac, (2007) differ by stating that older hotels would require higher costs of operating and maintaining because of the deteriorating hotel facilities.

It is important to note that the quality, security, age and occupancy rate of hotel are potential factors affecting the costs for operating and maintaining the hotel premises. It is worth noting that most of the sampled hotels were 20 years and above. This implies that these hotels are costly to maintain as they require a lot of resources including security. However, in-depth interviews with the hotel managers differed as they justified that they refurbish their hotel premises to meet international security standards especially chain affiliated hotels.

4.6.3 Comparison of Security Vulnerabilities in Hotels by Region

The comparison of security vulnerabilities in hotels by region are presented in table 4.12.

	Regions		overall Score
	Nairobi Mean Score	Mombasa Mean Score	
Security devices found to be damaged	3.1	4.6	3.8
Staff in unauthorized areas	3.9	3.7	3.8
Broken doors and windows	3.3	4.1	3.7
Staff income levels	3.3	3.6	3.5
Mistakes in receiving of goods	3.0	3.8	3.4
Hidden goods in stores	3.0	3.1	3.1
Employees routine	2.6	3.2	2.9
Increasing demand of raw materials	1.9	3.7	2.8
Missing of raw materials	2.5	3.0	2.8
Average	3.0	3.6	

Table 4.12 shows a comparison of the two regions. Nairobi had an average score of 3.0 while Mombasa had a slight score of 3.6. Therefore, from the figures in table 4.12, Mombasa region is likely to be more vulnerable to security threats than Nairobi. David, Hayes & Ninemeier (2004) argues that some hotels attempt to give illusion of having a CCTV system in place when they are not functional. This is typically done in an effort to save money on the cost of operating a CCTV system. The rationale behind this is that mere presence of the cameras would be sufficient to deter criminals.

There was no statistical significance between star rating hotels. Therefore the results indicate that hotels are not too sensitive to some security malpractices by their own staff. These findings concur with a similar study carried out by Stratford Security (2009) which found out that one of the suspects in the July 17 Jakarta attack was a florist working for an outside vendor at the Ritz-Carlton and had been working there for four years. He apparently used his position to smuggle improvised electronic devices components into the facility among floral supplies. Such an inside placement

could explain how the attackers managed to conduct the detailed surveillance required. As much as the hotel entrust their employees, most of them do not screen their potential workers' criminal background before recruiting them.

4.6.4 Security Vulnerabilities by Region in Hotels

The study sought to know the perception of the managers as far as security vulnerability is concerned. Their responses are presented in table 4.8.

	Region		
	Nairobi Mean Score	Mombasa Mean Score	Overall Mean Score
Prostitution	5.1	4.1	4.6
Sexual Assault	4.8	3.6	4.2
Drug Dealings	5.0	3.2	4.1
Violence by Employees	4.9	2.9	3.9
Violence against guest	4.6	3.1	3.9
Complaints by customers	4.5	2.7	3.6
Sexual Violence-rape	4.8	2.4	3.6
Employee who comes in odd hours	3.2	3.4	3.3
Murder of Guest by unknown	3.1	3.0	3.1
Murder of guest by known person	4.5	1.6	3.0
Customers who have to be served by specific employee	3.1	2.9	3.0
Employees not taking leave	4.1	1.9	3.0
An unsupervised tasks	2.8	2.5	

Table 4.13 shows a comparison of the two regions. Mombasa region had an overall mean score of 4.6 on prostitution, followed by sexual assault with an overall mean score of 4.2. Drug dealings recorded an overall mean score of 4.1. Violence by employees amongst themselves recorded an overall mean score of 3.9. Complaints' by customers indicated a mean score of 3.6 overall. Sexual harassment recorded 3.6 mean score overall while employees who comes in odd hours had a mean score of 3.3 and 3.1 mean score overall recorded murder of guests by unknown people. This result

is consistent with (Bado, 2012) who observed that in Kenya, the tourism industry in Lamu had dropped by more than 50% due to insecurity and travel advisories issued by western countries.

A study carried out by Donald (2001) on security management and crime in hotels conforms to these sentiments that prostitution and illegal use of drugs are considered to be a security risk that had to be managed only when they were conducted indiscreetly. Most of the security managers revealed that they 'turn a blind eye' to some forms of crime. This might be considered good business practice if the customer leaves happy and provides repeat purchase, few of the hotel Managers interviewed refuted any knowledge of this type of activity on their hotel premises.

In Kenya for instance tourism growth has brought about proliferation of sex trade especially the Mombasa region. However, until the release of UNICEF's report on child sex tourism in 2006, the government had been in constant state of denial of the fact that sex tourism is a major component of the national tourism industry. Kibicho (2005a) argued that Kenya is undeniably one of the key sex tourism destinations in Africa. Indeed, the findings of this study are in agreement with the sentiments by Sindiga (1999) and Kibicho (2004 b) that the country has become a favorite destination for sex tourists mainly due to lack of policy guidelines to control it. This research finding is consistent with earlier research that Kenya has become a preferred sex tourist destination because of the weak regulatory and policy framework to monitor or control the practice, Sindiga (1999) and Kibicho (2004 b). The implication of these findings is that prostitution is a secret activity in the hotel industry which might compromise the security standard procedures by some hotel staff on duty may colludes with some guests to allow sex workers into their hotel rooms without

registering their names at the reception areas, Kibicho (2005a). This is a security gap that must be addressed by hotel Management if this malpractice has to stop. However, what goes inside a guest's room is private and confidential, Kibicho (2005a). The guest's infringement of privacy vis-à-vis the hotel security is a contentious issue for hotel management as it creates a vulnerable environment for prostitution to flourish.

In many cases, comparatively cheaper sexual services motivate sex tourists to visit a given destination, Kibicho (2005). Kenya's coastal region is a cheaper tourist destination which makes it to be a preferred destination for sex trade according to the (United Nations Development Program, 1999). Kibicho (2005) concurs that cheapness is typical due to tourist travelling from an economically wealthy country to a poorer one. In many tourism destinations in developing countries for example, sex tourists indulge themselves in sexual fantasies of all kinds without fear of social stigmatization or harassment by law enforcers, Kibicho (2005). The contradictory laws on sex trade complemented by poor enforcement in Kenya serve as a key motivator for sex tourists to visit the country. This finding concurred with (Jallow, 2004) who stated that from the tourists view point, that sexual services in the developing countries are less expensive.

Drug dealing ranked second with an overall mean score of 4.5. A mean score of 5.0 was recorded in five star hotels and four star hotels (Table 4.8). The global drug trade is fostered by the general tendencies of globalization to reduce restraints on cross-border trade and capital flows and to uphold private property and bank secrecy. It thrives in an environment of secrecy, trade intensity, sophisticated finance and communications, anonymity, tax regulation and external and internal economic vulnerability. The Kenyan coast region closely fits this profile (United Nations

Development Program, 1999). This results confirms to the general public outcry of the rampant drug existence at the coastal region that has severely affected particularly the youth

According to United Nations Development Program (1999) money laundering-the conversion of drug profits into legal assets that cannot easily be traced to their illegal roots is an ingredient in the macro-economy along with drug transit. These deteriorating conditions have combined with other internal problems, notably the growth of a subculture of violent youth particularly at the coastal areas, daily aware of the “good life” from the tourist’s hordes, but lacking the education, skills, and motivation to participate in the mainstream. The drug trade worldwide flourishes in such urban areas with an underclass of unemployed youth.

The interviews conducted from the Kenya police tourist officers revealed that these drug flows are facilitated in part by lack of strict regulatory policies at airports and by sophisticated concealment methods. In addition to hidden compartments and fuel tanks in maritime vessels, drugs have been stashed in every possible human orifice, especially the swallowing of cocaine sealed in condoms and heroin in latex-wrapped pellets. They have been hidden in every type of clothing, foot wear, fruits, vegetables, furniture, appliances, vehicles, cigarette cartons, and false amputee limbs, bibles, and surfboards, live and dead animals. It is also believed that there is insufficient guest’s inspection and local corruption which facilitates the lucrative trade, the hotel industry is no exception insufficient guests inspection coupled with local corruption facilitates this lucrative trade.

The high cost of security, surveillance, and insurance costs in the hotel industry add to the already relatively steep price of tourism. This result is consistent with Harriott

(2002) which estimates the overall cost of violent crime in Jamaica to be 6% of GDP per capita on an annual basis. Harriott (2000) argues that criminal activities in a destinations breeds “insecurity among all segments of the population (including investors and developers) This leads to declining public confidence in the criminal justice system, and growing cynicism among its functionaries.

The kidnappings of a tourist in the coastal region of Kenya in 2011 drastically affected tourism activities and even social life curtailed.” Sustained criminality also produces a loss of human capital through the emigration immigration of middle-class professionals (accountants, bankers, realtors, planner’s hotel managers, etc.) and entrepreneurs who provide the skill base for the tourism economy. This finding indicates that the Coastal region has lagged behind in terms of human resource development as most of the Coastal indigenous people have no formal education and professional training due to drug related activities.

Some hotel Managers revealed that some hotels especially chain affiliated ones have responded by shielding visitors from harm by offering all-inclusive resorts with their full complement of on-site gift shops, restaurants, night clubs, and water sports for the convenience of a fixed daily fee. While these popular gated properties protect tourists and generate high foreign exchange and year round employment, they have also “triggered a new wave of resentment”. This position is further supported by Pattull (1996) who observed that among taxi drivers, small shopkeepers, and other vendors who feel shut out by the resorts, they turn to other illegal activities such as drug trafficking and prostitution to earn a living. The concept of gated properties especially in the hotel industry has led to other social ills amongst the main stakeholders. The feeling of being isolated commercially has attributed greatly to the growth of drugs

and prostitution especially during the low seasons in order to make a hard earned living.

Sexual harassment amongst the staff and customers was ranked third with an overall mean score of 4.3 while in five star hotels a mean score of 4.7 was recorded. In four star hotels recorded a mean of 4.0 was recorded while a mean score of 4.0 and 4.3 were recorded for four and three star hotels respectively. This practice is attributed to largely to lack of information on the Bill of Rights and cultural problems by the hotel male workforce who demeans women workers in the hotel industry.

4.7 Managers' Perception on Current Security Standards within the Hotel Facilities

A second objective of this study was to find out the current standards of security facilities within the hotels in 3-5 star hotels in both Nairobi and Coastal region of Kenya as a way of assessing the security facilities, employees' security training and the hotel security policy. The managers' perception on current security standards within the hotel facilities is presented in table 4.14.

Perceptions	3-Star	4-tar	5-Star
Average	30		30
Above Average	70	100	70
Below Average	-	-	-
Total	100	100	100

Table 4.14 shows the security rating by hotels. The respondents were asked to gauge their security status. Amongst five star hotels, 70% percent of the hotels were above average while 30 percent were average. While 70 percent of the respondents in 3-star hotels indicated that they were average, whilst 30 percent were above average. In four

star hotels all the hotels studied stated that they were above average in terms of security measures in place.

The implication of these findings is that most hotels were not willing to portray any security weaknesses in their premises. However, most of them may have security measures in theory without executing them and this may lead to a major security lapse which may be a challenge in the hotel industry. Interestingly, most hotels were non-committal to state their security status for fear of losing their business. Security of the hotels is confidential as it deals with guests' privacy; safety and protection within the hotel premises. However there are more elaborate security systems in chain affiliated hotels than sole proprietorship. Chain affiliated hotels have centralized and uniformed security systems that are applicable in their premises.

4.7.1 The Managers Perception on Distribution of Security Rating By Region

The managers' perception on current security standards within the hotel facilities is presented in figure 4.5.

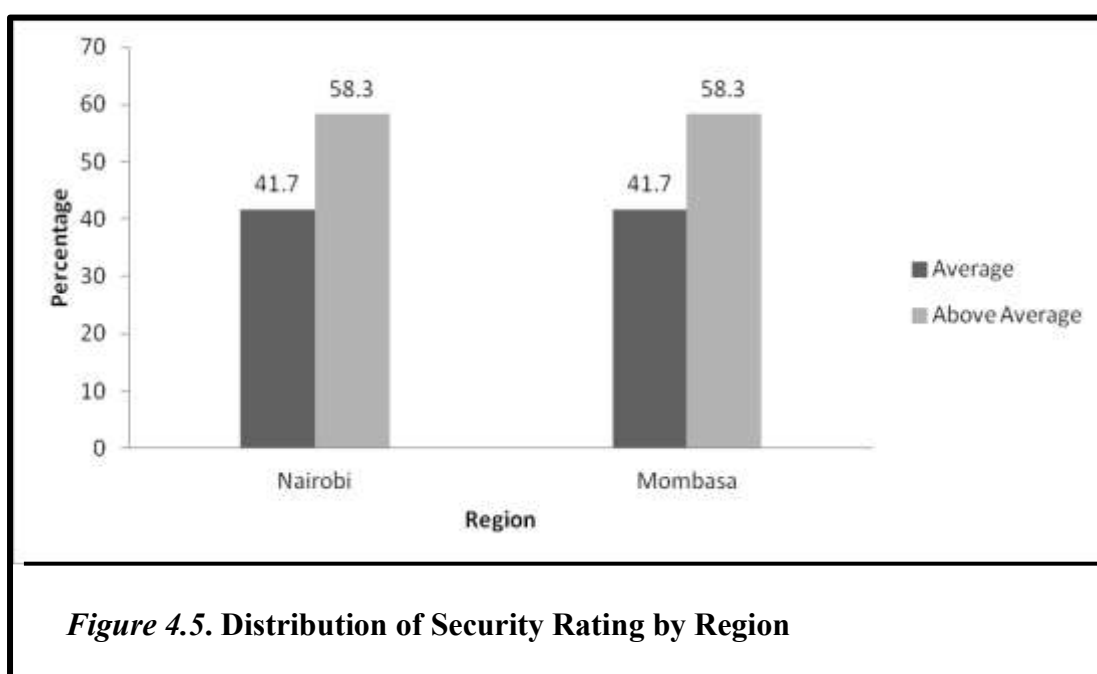


Figure 4.5 indicates a comparison of the two regions with 58.3 percent of all the hotels indicated that they are safe in both Nairobi and Mombasa, while 41.7 percent indicated that their security parameters are average. It is important to understand the geographical dimension of security incidents when handling security related tourism crises. First the host governments and the hotel industry will do their utmost level best to ensure that the impacts of security incidents will be confined to the location where the security incident actually took place, and will not spill over to other locations. It's critical to understand the relationship between the location where security incident occurred and the tourist destination overlap. Secondly, it's important to know the implication of security when there is a geographical proximity between these two regions and finally a situation when those two locations are far apart.

It is assumed therefore that the closer the two locations, the more severe the effect of the security incident would be the effect of the security incident in the hotel industry. However, this scenario sometimes tends to oversimplify the relationship between location and severity of effect on the tourism industry. There is only a marginal effect on tourism demand to these towns and only for a very short period of time. Mombasa and Nairobi are far apart such that any security severity in either region may be confined and may not spill over to one another. Therefore there is no geographical proximity between these two regions.

4.7.2 Distribution of Security Measures in Place by Region

The managers' perception on distribution of security measures in place by region is presented in figure 4.6.



The data in figure 4.6 shows that Nairobi region has generally put in sufficient security measures in the hotel industry. In Nairobi 66.7 percent of the hotels have surveillance cameras to record the flow of human traffic in and outside their premises. Mombasa region had 33.3 percent of surveillance devices in their premises. Few of the hotels have not installed functional surveillance devices. Both regions had 50 percent each for the application of private security services in their premises while 57.9 percent of the hotels in Nairobi had emergency evacuation preparedness plans, coastal region had 42.1 percent. In Nairobi 52.9 percent of the hotels had access control security in place, whilst 52.9 percent in coastal region. The implication of these findings is that hotels in Nairobi have better functional security devices and preparedness than hotels in the coastal region.

Power and Barrows (2006) argues that the largest technical commitment on the part of hotel operators has been the replacement of the metal key with electronic or card based locks, a practice that is now being mandated by many franchise system. The majority of the hotel Managers interviewed concurs that a new combination is electronically or mechanically encoded on the key card with each guest registration. The card contains a magnetic strip that allows it to work. The lock in the guest room door is reset electronically by the first entry of the electronic or card key. In the case of an outline system the door is reset from the front desk at the time of registration where installation of new key system is not economically feasible.

The implication is that most hotels were employing the services of security firms to beef up its internal security arrangements. This outsourcing of security services has its own challenges to both the hotel staff as well as guests. It is common knowledge that most of these private security firms employ unprofessional security personnel who have no security details required in the hotel industry. The in-house training they are offered is very basic which does not add any value to the hotel industry.

Since the hotel industry is an assembling of augmented players, the standards of security are not universal. This results in hotels having dis-enactment of security policies in their respective hotels which are not universally similar in its application(Power & Barrows, 2006). Most of these private firms have no legal policy regulatory framework to make their operations measurable. The level of educational status of these security agents is wanting (Power & Barrows, 2006).

Most of them are school dropouts while fewer others are ex-police or military personnel who may have been dismissed due to some misconduct in the course of their duty. These are the people who are being entrusted to secure the hotel property

and safety of guests. Their criminal background is rarely sought to establish their credibility status. These findings concur with a similar study carried out in United Kingdom by (Samantha, 2004) which indicated that a massive 74 percent of the major UK hotel groups are failing to carry out in-depth security checks on potential employees.

The hotel Managers were interviewed on whether they screen their security personnel to establish their criminal records. Majority of these hotels do not check their workers as they rely on recruitment agency, however, hotels rarely took notice of what the screening discovered but goes ahead to employ an applicant even if negative results came back, hotels rarely take notice of what the screening discovers and usually go ahead to employ an applicant.

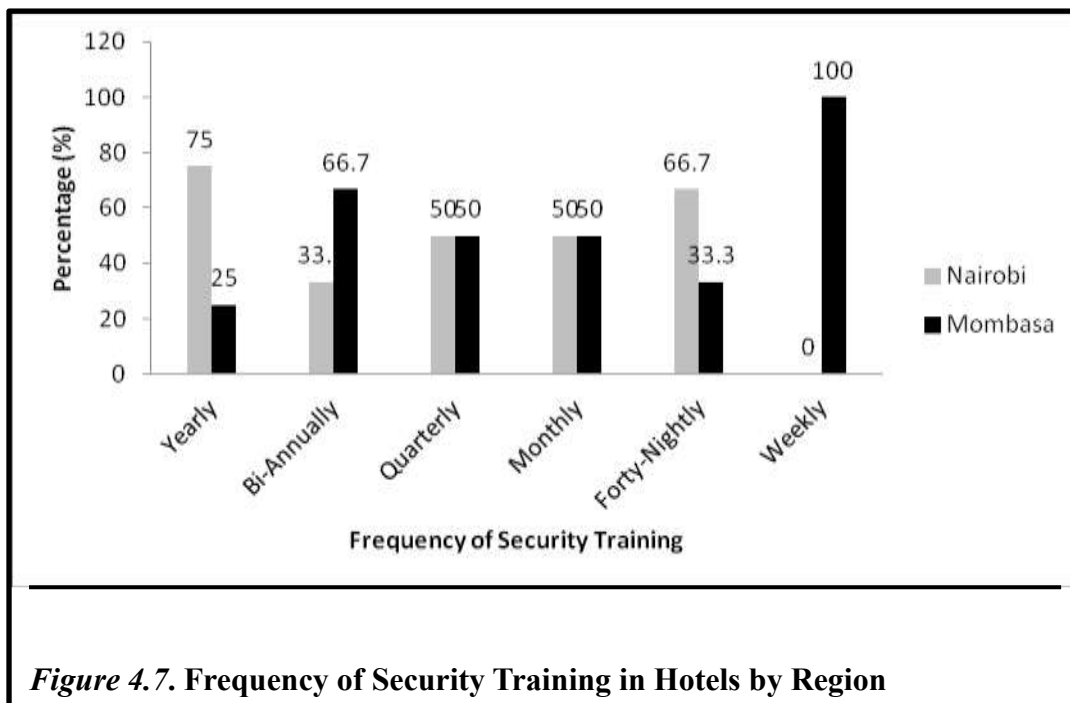
The managers interviewed stated that hoteliers were paying too much attention to personal references, absenteeism and academic qualification and too little to criminal records and court judgment checks. Majority of hotel chains conduct security checks on all staff they employ directly but added that the onus was on recruitment companies for any agency staff they employ. This has some security implications on those hotels which fail to screen new employees because of high staff turnover within the industry. Power and Barrows (2006) argues that many hotel chains have measured security with the elevated terror. The government of United Kingdom issues alert measures to hotel including increased security in the entrance, lodging docks, and in hotel garages and more scrutiny of unattended bags and cars at the highest alert level.

Some of the hotel Managers interviewed stated that guests today do not get alarmed by security measures taken by hotels. As hotels strive to provide high level comprehensive security, there are technical components that must be addressed. The

matter of security can be approached as a technical problem as well as a management problem.

4.7.3 Frequency of Security Training In Hotels by Region

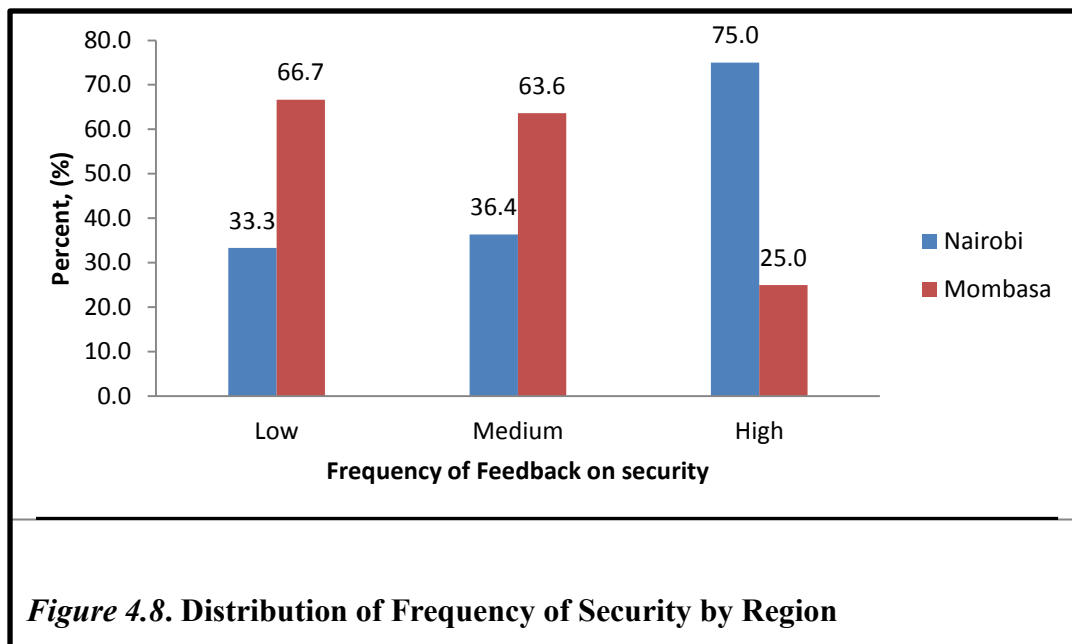
The managers' perception on frequency of security training by region is presented in figure 4.7.



The data in figure 4.7 shows the frequency of security training by region. The hotels in Mombasa region indicated that 100 of hotels perform their security training on a weekly basis. The hotels 66.7 percent in Nairobi undertake their security training fortnightly. On the quarterly and monthly training, Nairobi and the Coastal region had 50 percent respectively. However on bi-annually and yearly training, Coastal region had 66.7 percent and 25 percent respectively while Nairobi had 33.3 percent bi-annually and 75 percent annually. There was significant difference in training on security issues across the two regions with Mombasa doing it more frequent compared to Nairobi (p value < 0.001).

The implication of this finding is that hotels in the coastal region are constantly under security threat than hotels in Nairobi. The frequency of security training on personnel is more prominent in the coastal region owing to its location on the Indian Ocean making it accessible by Sea. The implication of this disparity is that high rated hotels have a security structure which is more effective and operational.

4.7.4 Distribution of Frequency of Feedback on Security by Region



The managers' perception on frequency of security training is presented in figure 4.8 which shows a comparison between Nairobi and the Coastal region on frequency of feedback on security matters. In Nairobi 75 percent were classified as having a high feedback on security matters from guests in the five star hotels while 25 percent on the same category of five star hotels in Coastal region stated that they receive feedback from guests on security matters. The four star hotels in the Coastal region, 63.7 percent indicated a medium feedback on security matters from guests while 66.7 percent of the hotels in the Coastal region indicated having a low feedback on security matters from guests. The 3 star hotels in Nairobi indicated 33.3 percent a low feedback status (p value < 0.001). The implication of this finding is that hotels in

the coastal region are constantly under security threat than hotels in Nairobi. The frequency of security feedback by both the guests and hotel personnel is more prominent in the coastal region owing to its location on the Indian Ocean coast which is porous and accessible by Sea.

The security managers were asked how they handle security incidences in the hotel industry. Majority of the security managers concurred that all security incidences are reported first to the relevant department, then to the security department and finally to the Kenya Tourist Police deal with a tourist/guests' issues. The incident has to be reported to the nearest police station for thorough investigations to take place. The Managers revealed that depending on the gravity of the matter, sometimes internal investigations begins as the matter is referred to the Police.

The hotel security managers further clarified that they work closely with the police officers. When probed further, the Security Manager said that there are clear security procedures to be followed on how to handle all security incidences in the hotel industry. The security manager also revealed that they do have pro-active strategies in place to prevent an incident from occurring. However, with the glaring of terrorism acts, stringent measures are being instituted to ensure that such cases are avoided. These include the beefing up the number of security personnel both in plain clothes and uniformed armed security personnel. It also revealed that all the hotels that were sampled on apply the use of private security services in their respective hotels. In the higher rated hotels, about 40 percent of the hotels engage the services of private investigators alongside the police and the in-house security. Security Aspects in the hotel industry

The respondents were interviewed to comment on the security in their hotels. Majority of them agreed that training of all hotel employees is extremely vital in security procedures and policy. Hotel General manager number 4 said;

“....Security is about educating all the staff working in the hotel industry that security is critical at all times in order to prevent any occurrence and putting in place stringent measures to tackle all the security issues, we have effective pro-active security strategy in our hotel.”

Some respondents said that the government should implement the overall national security in the country to enable the hotel to cut down the huge security investment which not only disrupts their core business but also depletes their resources. Others complained that this has made some hotels during the low season periods to send employees on compulsory leave to be able to make a break-even.

The researcher observed that international tourists, who have bookings in hotels, are not subjected to thorough security screening process. Most hotels especially the higher rating hotels have a mutual agreement with reputable tour operations that they trust. This practice is inconsistent with the hotel security policy and procedures for screening all guests' luggage when checking in.

The managers were asked how security incidents are handled and managed in the hotel industry. Almost all the hotel managers stated that they have a universal method of recording. Any incident is recorded in the security occurrence book. The same information is computed and documented for future references. The incident report is also in the form of the hard copy at least to ensure that it is not tampered with. If the incident involves the guest, the incident forms are filled by the affected guests giving all the personal information required and the description of the lost or stolen item(s) along with its costs. This information given by the guest is verified before it is acted upon by all the parties involved. The hotel managers concurred that sometimes

guests' cheats expecting that the hotel will be sympathetic enough and pay the guest in fear of loss of business and image of the establishment. If the hotel management are not convinced by guests responses investigation begins immediately depending on the gravity of the matter.

Majority of the security managers who were interviewed concurred that to prevent the loss of guest's item(s), hotel assets and staff safety, they believe that priorities should be on good electronic locking systems, a good camera and a good communication system. Research carried out by Bach (1996) concurs that a good security system is the one which allow the room access to be recorded and studied. Closed Circuit Television and the location of the cameras are important within the hotel premises so that vulnerable areas can be covered without the actual presence of security.

The hotel Managers were asked which measures they put in place to ensure that cases of crimes and insecurity do not rise. Majority of the Managers (90%) interviewed indicated that they enforce more security concerns on their weak security points. This enables them to increase the security staff or apply more security screening methods. Additionally, this result is consistent with research carried out by Pizam, et al. (1997) on issues of security in hotels, that it is important to establish close relationship with other members of staff so that they think of calling security when they see something suspicious. The functionality of the Closed Circuit Television cameras is very crucial as it monitors the flow of human traffic in and out of the hotel premises. This brings to a complex question of whether the hotel industry has the capacity of the security experts to interpret any occurrence using these security devices. When the security Managers were probed to state if the Closed Circuit Television devices was functional most of them were hesitant to admit.

The majority of the hotel Managers revealed that all workers in hotels are sensitized on the importance of being security conscious at all times when dealing with guests. This finding is consistent with the research carried out by Pizam and Mansfield (2006) who states that security is something that has to be part of the daily routine in the hotel. An important part of this is that honest members of staff are rewarded and openly praised, because they are the ones that provide the security with extra eyes and ears.

The Managers also indicated that when there are many functions within the hotel premises, they do hire extra security personnel to beef up the pressure of work with the normal routine security. A hotel hosts different functions including the attendance of the Very Important Persons who require more security attention. In view of this, the hotels make prior security arrangement with the police to provide uniformed police security to such guests. However, the presence of the armed policemen in the hotels is perceived differently by different guests. The perception of the presence of armed police within the hotel premises sends different signals. Some guests may perceive the hotel location as vulnerable or under threat from terrorism.

On the other hand, as the managers revealed, some guests will be content and satisfied with the level of security in that particular hotel. The presence of the armed police within the premises is in itself a deterrent to criminals or guests with bad intentions. Observations made by the researcher onto what extent hotels prepare for terrorism what extent are the hotels prepared on terrorism; there are numerous ways that the hotel operators can mitigate risks and make their facilities less appealing as soft targets. All the hotels studied have put up physical security measures such as check points which are believed to deter any attacks against them. Few of the hotels are in a

process to install protective window film. Most of the hotels have put in place employee training and protective counter-surveillance programs which are invaluable assets in security hotel facilities. Security legal policy in hotels

The hotel managers were interviewed on whether they have in place a legal policy and framework on security matters. The majority of the hotel managers agreed that all their staff be vetted whenever they report on duty for security reasons. Most of the chain hotels have strict code of conduct signed by all the employees, tour companies and the hotel management. Majority of hotel managers concurred that, they have a company lawyer who handles all the legal aspects for the hotel. The hotel managers also revealed that they have security inspection and training reviews for their operations on periodical basis. This enables them to identify any security lapse in the flow of customers that may compromise the check-in procedures.

As is the practice, all the hotel managers concurred that they liaise with the Kenya Police for ease of insecurity. The security policy in place is enforced to all without bias. The managers also stated that they refer any security matters to their advocate in consultation with the security officers and the Kenya police. The Managers interviewed revealed that there is a legal policy on how to deal with all security issues that arise from time to time. The registration of all guests is paramount. Guests are required to furnish the receptionist during the registration with all the personal details to enable the hotel industry not only to capture the data to provide high quality services but also for future security references.

In the five star hotels, the majority of the managers stated that they outsource their security services from the private agencies. Most of these hotels have an embedded type of security where by the hotel not only contracts the security services but also

employees to oversee the security operations. The managers of the chain hotels revealed that they prefer having security personnel who may have worked with the armed forces before. The assumption is that they have the expertise required to detect on any suspicious character within the hotel premises. The managers also stated that they have a health and safety policy in place to address any issues concerning the safety of guests as well working conditions.

The 26 hotels researched were all medium to large to five properties located in both Nairobi and Mombasa. These hotels typically have high average roommates and attract all major market segments. In every hotel, they employed a manager especially with the sole duty and responsibility for security. In many hotels these managers were former police officers with background in the forces. These hotels were selected specifically because they provide tourist destination with relatively sophisticated security procedure especially five star hotels. In each hotel out of the 25 hotels, the security manager interviewed using a semi-structured questionnaire based on the issues that arose from the pre-testing study. The interviews were asked both open questions such as how you go about security in this hotel. And a series of closed questions such as; does the hotel have closed circuit television (C.C.T.V) surveillance.

The interviews which lasted from 30-40 minutes were written down. In most cases, the managers also gave a tour of the hotel demonstrating different approaches to security on the premises. The recorded information of each interview was then analyzed to identify the management's opinion on each topic. In presenting the research findings the views of the respondents are presented almost as reported. No assumption is made as to the general feeling of the findings and where contrary evidence is presented reflecting the exploratory nature of the research. Quotes from

respondents have been selected solely on the basis of those that are articulated and succinct with respect to the topic of the study.

Although the main objectives of the security managers in all the 25 hotels are more or less the same, there are absolute differences in the way the respondents perceive security within a hotel. Security manager hotel number 14 puts it simply, “...*to create a conducive, safe and secure hotel environment...*” Security manager hotel number 15 puts it slightly differently, “...*protecting of the guests, staff and assets within the hotel and the hotel itself...*”

Security manager hotel number 8 was of the opinion that the main objective is to re-identify the role of the security department in a modern hotel. The scope of security in hotels is changing. Security manager hotel number 8 feels that the main objective should be to reassess the security department and re-define the roles and responsibilities it should have health and safety issues should be part of the function of the security manager. Some security manager hotel number 5 even believes it to be a bigger part of their job than just crime prevention on a day to day basis.

“...Many hotels are now devoting much of their resources on health and safety issues to be undertaken by the security manager because, health and safety issues are obviously becoming a global concern in travel industry...”

Security manager hotel number 2 thinks that the laws and regulations regarding safety and health have become quite complete. Most hotels have realized that they have to get people to deal with all the legislation. He states that half of his job has to do with crime prevention and the other half with safety and health. Security managers' hotel numbers 1, 3, 4, 5, 10, 13, 14, 16, and 25 all mentioned the crystal value of the safety and health as part of their job. According to security hotel manager number 8 states that security accounts for only 20 percent of his work on a day to day basis.

Most of the hotel security managers confirm that the hotel environment is one which is difficult to make completely secure, Ten of the security hotel managers made reference to this, as it is illustrated by security manager hotel number 11 who said that we have all the facilities at the bars, the houses and banks. Everything that can happen on the streets ultimately can happen in a hotel. The problem is that a hotel is open 24 hours a day, seven days a week and all year round.

Moreover hotel managers deliberately set out to create the atmosphere of a safe hotel, customers often have their guards as soon as they enter a hotel premises according to security manager number 16: Security manager hotel number 7 noted that the problem of security in a hotel is that it is a public place where everyone can come in and walk out. This may create an opportunity for undesirable people to come in; besides being hospitable the security must be in place to prevent any problem that may arise. Security manager hotel number 1 said that the key ingredient is to find the fine balance between making guests to feel secure and being obtrusive;

“..The hotel can go to the extreme to provide a uniformed security officer at each door, but what would you achieve? I am not going there, because there is an absolute problem.”

This are the sentiments of most of the security managers interviewed. Guests and staff will have to know that there is security if they want it. They do not feel that the visible presence armed of security personnel and security systems is jeopardizing the hospitality feeling. Security manager hotel number 13 stated that, it is not possible to ensure maximum security while at the same time maintaining high hospitality standards; there always has to be a compromise. Security manager hotel number 9 thinks that in the recent years it has become more acceptable to use overt security systems in place and that due to the technical advances in technology the systems will

become invisible or discrete and unobtrusive to guests. This will make the issue of security versus hospitality a lot less cumbersome. This creates an unethical infringement of penetrating the guest's privacy by using invisibility security devices to monitor what goes on inside and outside the guest's rooms.

Security manager hotel number 15 agrees that it is all about balancing. He states that "if you display too much of security to your guests, you can invite more crime" because there is always someone who thinks they are better than you, and you are revealing that there is a lot of crime in your hotel. All the security managers concurred that security is a lot more accepted in hotels now than it was 20 years ago. This is because security has become so critical part of life and cameras can be found in many shops, stations and at street corners. To have therefore cameras in the hotel premises is no longer a big issue.

Security manager hotel number 17 said that most guests do not complain about cameras in the hotels and when they do it usually means that they have something to hide which is the general opinion among the security managers. Some security managers noticed that old fashioned approach of the general managers toward security expenses, as the security department does not bring in any revenue is now changing. Security manager hotel number 12 agrees with these sentiments. He believes that most general managers do not like paying out for security because it is low-productive as far as revenue is concerned. However, the majority of security managers do feel that the general managers of the hotels in which they are currently working view security as an important department.

4.7.5: Correlation between Security Training Versus Security Measures in the Hotel Industry

The correlation between security training versus security measures in the hotel industry is presented in table 4.15.

Table 4. 15. Security Training Versus Security Measures in the hotel industry						
	Training Frequency				chi-square	p value
	Often		Not Often			
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent		
Security Measures						
Increased Surveillance	5	45.5	2	14.3		
Perimeter Wall	1	9.1	1	7.1		
Screening	0	0.0	4	28.6	6.1	0.198
Awareness Creation	1	9.1	3	21.4		
Enhanced Security	4	36.4	4	28.6		

Table 4.15 indicates that there was no significant association between the training on security aspects and the measures used by the hotels (p value = 0.198). Therefore the hypothesis is accepted. Therefore there was a gap between the training and the application of the security procedures in the hotels. The hotel managers interviewed on this issue revealed that they do not subject their security checks to their guests' for fear of losing business in their operations. They have trusted on few selected tour agents who pick up their guests from International Airport and take them directly to hotel premises. An observation made by the researcher confirms this important security lapse that hotel staffs rarely screen the guests' luggage to establish its authenticity despite stringent security policy whereby all guest are supposed to be screened without discrimination.

4.8 Evaluation of the Effects of Insecurity on the Hotels' Performance

The third objective was to evaluate the effects of insecurity on the hotels' performance in the hotel industry in Nairobi and Mombasa region. Additionally, in this section, the following hypothesis is tested. The Managers' perception on the distribution of cost of security in hotels by Region and star rating hotels is presented in table 4.16.

Cost on Security on Yearly basis Figures in Kenyan Shillings per Year				
Region	Star Rating	Mean	Median	Std.
Nairobi	Three	7,120,000	6,000,000	3,141,974
	Four	N/A	N/A	N/A
	Five	8,169,365	7,000,000	5,010,380
Mombasa	Three	3,974,104	4,000,000	1,951,730
	Four	7,500,000	7,500,000	3,535,534
	Five	8,500,000	8,500,000	4,949,747

The data in table 4.16 shows the cost of security in the studied regions. In Nairobi the mean average cost of security in a 3 star hotel is Kshs. 7,120,000 million per year. Whereas in a five star hotel its Kshs. 8,169,365.00 million. In Mombasa region, the mean average cost of security is Kshs. 3,974,104 million in a 3 star hotel whereas it's Kshs. 8,500,000 million in a five star hotel annually. The mean cost of security in a three star hotel is Kshs. 3,974,104, which is a significant difference of Kshs.3, 145,896 million between a three star hotels between Nairobi and Mombasa. Therefore hotels in a 3 star category in Nairobi spend more by 56 percent than the Coastal hotels in the same category.

Hotels are increasingly seen as soft targets by terrorists for being open and accessible but the industry is determined to deal with the terrorist threats in a way that is sensitive to the needs of its guests, Parton (2007). Hotel managers know that

biometric technology clearly has a role to play in their operations and future developments like biometrics will bring benefits. But at the same time, to retain their appeal, hotels need to safeguard guest comfort and convenience that make them desirable places to stay.

Hotels are expected to use biometrics to improve room security, improve customer convenience, control access to restricted areas, and limit access to customer data, Jones and Rustenburg, (2006). Also, the reliability of biometric systems is an issue with hoteliers and according to one very recent study cost still seems to be one of the major barriers to adoption of biometric technology applications (Cobanoglu, 2010).

Most studies done on biometrics involve the industry, authentication and security Willis (2008). It has been shown that negligence of innovation technologies produces consequences that foster bad impressions from guests. Strong evidence suggests that innovation technologies and its negligence engage in a reciprocal relationship that has a short and long-term effect on the guest's future opinion regarding the service quality of hotel establishments, (Cobanoglu, 2010).

The market for biometrics in the hotel industry especially in the Kenyan hotels was in the infant stages with only a few of hotels adopting biometric technology so far. Continued security concerns, declining hardware and network technology prices, and guest comfort with the technology will lead to advances in market adoption (Jones & Rustenburg, 2006).

4.8.1 Managers' Perception on Distribution of Expenditure Cost on Security in Hotels by Region

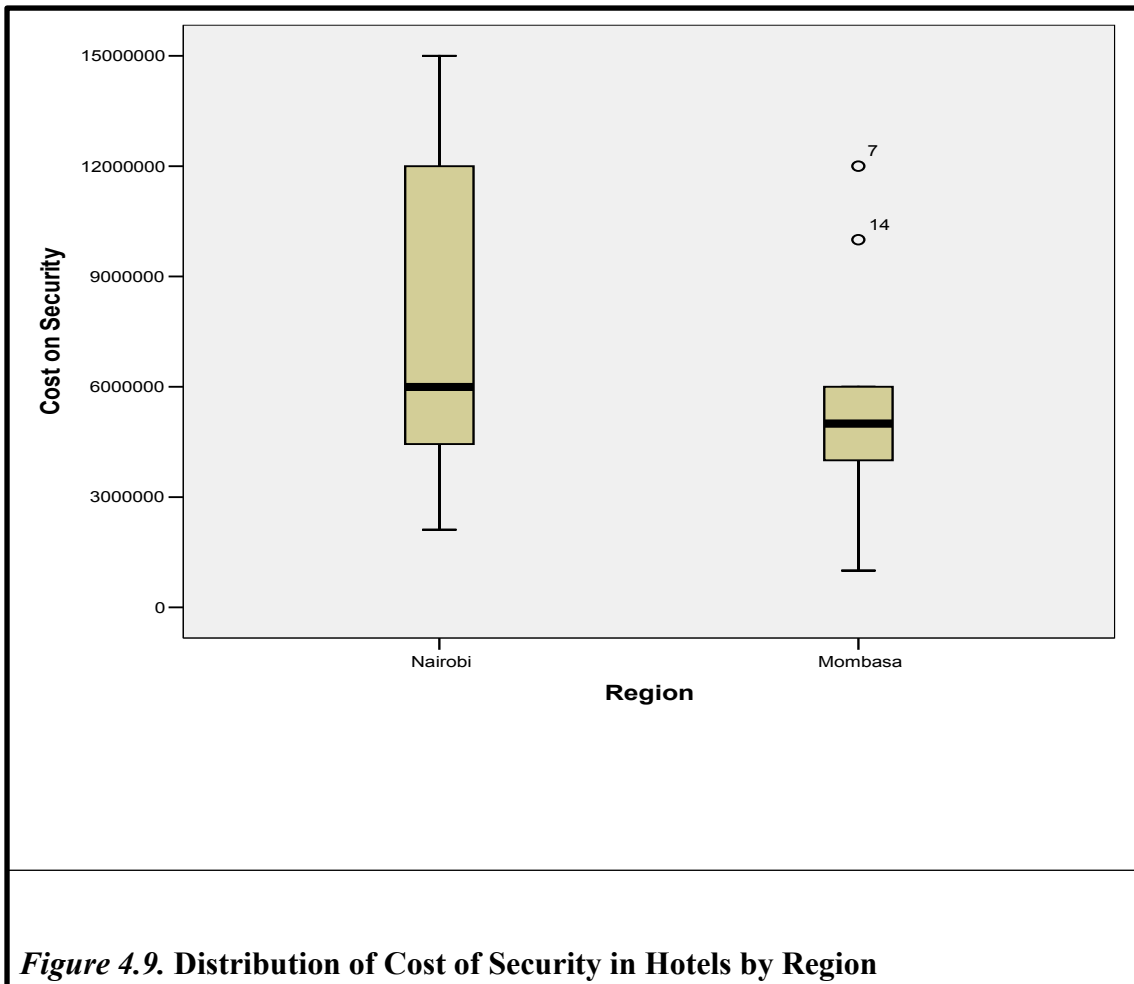
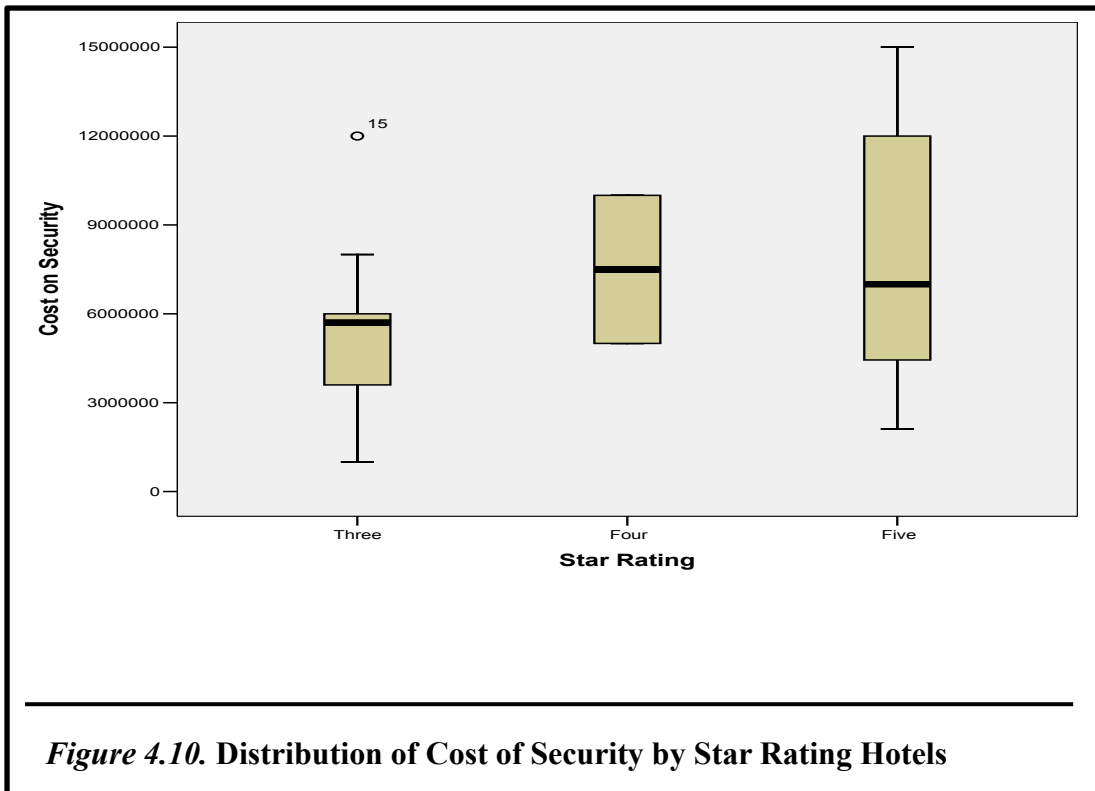


Figure 4.9. Distribution of Cost of Security in Hotels by Region

Figure 4.9 shows data of the cost of expenditure on security in the two regions. From the said data, Nairobi spends huge investments on security matters as compared to the Coastal region. Nairobi city hosts many international embassies and also is the headquarters of United Nations Environmental Programs. The majority of both international and domestic tourists seek their accommodation in at least these star rating hotels. The Mombasa region has not invested much in security devices, however, there were two hotels which were outliers; hotel numbers 7 and 14. The reason for this variation is that these are chain hotels with similar security standards whose headquarters' is based in Nairobi.



As noted from figure 4.10 the higher the star rating hotel, the more the cost of security invested in the hotels regardless of the region. The five star hotels had heavily invested in security in terms of surveillance devices, hiring of extra private security personnel as well as security personnel disguised as staff. Equally the same are 4-star hotels who have also upgraded their security status to measure up with the challenges of insecurity and crimes. However, there was a hotel number 15 under the three star hotels which has invested highly in security arrangements.

Nevertheless, within the lower hotel ratings stars (3 and 4) there was a notable variation within the amount spent on the security with 3 stars having the highest variation. Many hotel managers agree that some hotels have been unwilling to risk alienating their clients by incorporating more cumbersome security measures such as identity and key checks upon entry, baggage screening, and more extensive standoff areas. Guests might consider those measures inconveniencing and thus they could

directly and negatively affect business. Moreover from a business perspective, it can be difficult to justify the investment of millions of dollars in security precautions when the returns cannot be quantified. Given the highly competitive nature of the industry and guests reluctance to accept inconvenient security practices hotel owners often have been forced to take the calculated risk that their businesses will not be targeted.

Hotel security has traditionally focused on safety of guests and their property, fire prevention and natural disaster contingencies. Due to escalating cases of terrorism, many hotel managers interviewed stated that they are grappling with new concerns of the travelers globally. Majority of the managers interviewed concurred that the increase of security costs in the hotel industry has led hotels to increase their rates to recover from cost of security investment. This view is consistent with another study by Power and Barrowe (2006) which showed that some business travelers were willing to pay \$7.73 more on average in a room rate for a more secure lodging property \$ 10.75 extra per day for tighter security combined. The rate premium was \$9.97 for all respondents.

4.8.2 The Managers' Perception on Frequency of Feed-back on Security Matters from Guests

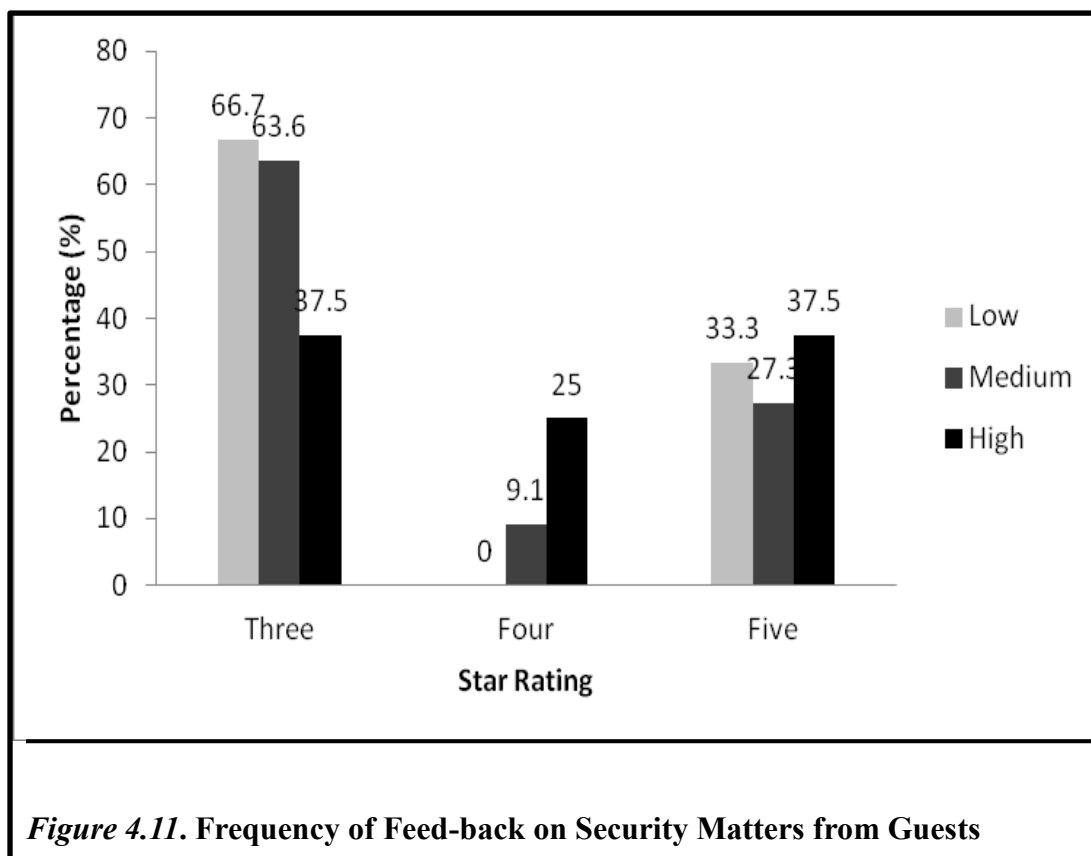


Figure 4.11 indicates the frequency of feedback on security matters from guests. About 66.7 percent of the three star hotels indicated that they get guest feedback while 50 percent bi-annually and 33.3 percent perform training on monthly and quarterly basis respectively. In the four star category of hotels, 50 percent indicated that they undertake training on weekly basis. 33.3 percent and 16.7 percent indicated that they do their training fortnightly and monthly respectively. This finding indicates a worrying pattern in security training which appears to be of less concern in particularly five star hotels. However, these hotels showed high level of contention on security matters in both Nairobi and Coastal region. In the 3 star category, 66.7 percent of hotels stated that they undertake their training on quarterly and yearly basis

respectively. On the other hand, 50 percent of the hotels do training on weekly, monthly and a yearly basis respectively.

4.8.3 Research Hypotheses

H₁: A direct positive relationship exists between investment in security management systems and high guest turnover in the hotel industry.

A Pearson correlation between investment in security management systems and guest turnover in the hotel industry is presented in table 4.17. The investment in security aspects were not replicated into the hotel increase in occupancy. The might be a short cyclic event which might need time to observe the results of investment. Maybe this is a long term effect.

Region	Statistics	Cost on Security
Nairobi		
Occupancy Rate	Pearson Correlation	0.12
	p value	0.701
Mombasa		
Occupancy Rate	Pearson Correlation	0.30
	p value	0.371

A Pearson Correlation was performed to establish if a relationship existed between investment in security management and guest turn-over ((P-value; 0.701, 0.371) in Nairobi and Mombasa respectively. Both regions had appositve correlation between occupancy and security investment. The hypothesis is therefore accepted. This indicates that as the hotel invested more, the higher the occupancy rate. However, this was not statistically significant. It portrayed a weak correlation (P-value >005).A Pearson correlation by star rating between investment in security management systems and guest turnover in the hotel industry is presented in table 4.18.

Star Rating	Statistics	Cost on Security
Three		
Occupancy Rate	Pearson Correlation	0.57
	P value	0.051
Four		
Occupancy Rate	Pearson Correlation	-0.87
	P value	<0.001
Five		
Occupancy Rate	Pearson Correlation	-0.05
	P value	0.887

The positive correlation established in the table 4.18 to portrayed an inverse correlation in some of the stars. For instance, higher stars (4&5) had a negative relationship of -0.87 and 0.05 respectively. For the correlation was evenly significant (p-value of > 0.05). The higher the occupancy rate the lower the investment of security in the hotel industry. The regression on occupancy rate against star rating and regions is presented in table 4.19.

Table 4. 19. Regression on Occupancy rate against Star Rating and Regions

Factors	Coef.	Std. Err.	t- statistic	p vale	95% CI (Coef.)	Interval]	R square
Occupancy Rate	42,787.3	54,464.7	0.79	0.442	-71,209	156,783	
Star Rating					-		
Four	2,608,866.0	2,991,783.0	0.87	0.394	3,653,007	8,870,739	0.17
Five	1,862,076.0	1,773,323.0	1.05	0.307	1,849,532	5,573,684	
Region					-		
Coastal	1,724,918.0	1,799,349.0	-0.96	0.35	5,490,998	2,041,162	
Constant	3,898,202.0	3,664,554.0	1.06	0.301	3,771,799	11,600,000	

There was no significance relationship between Nairobi and Mombasa regions.

None of the factors significantly explained the Security Investment among the hotels (p value > 0.05). The three factors (occupancy, star rating and region) explained only

17% of the total security investment in the hotels, leaving 83% of the investment unaccounted for. This indicates that investment in security among the hotels is explained by factors other than occupancy, star rating or region.

4.9 Profiling Crime Trends and Security Threats in the hotel industry

The fourth objective was profiling of crime trends and security threats in 3-5 star hotels in Nairobi and Mombasa region, Kenya.

4.9.1 Distribution of Security Threats in Hotels by Star Rating

The Managers' perception on distribution of security threats in hotels by star rating is presented in figure 4.12.

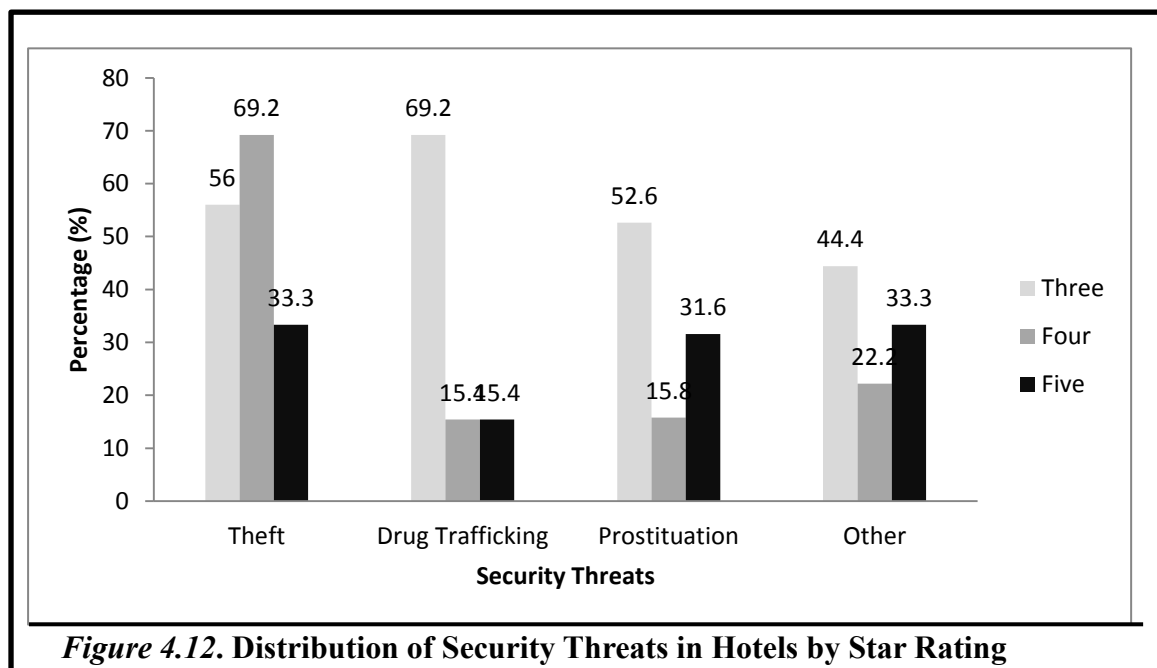


Figure 4.12 shows that 69.2 percent of 3 star hotels are involved in drug trafficking, closely followed by theft with 56 percent and 52.6 percent on prostitution respectively. In the five star hotels 32 percent and 31.6 percent had theft and prostitution respectively. On the other hand, 15.8 percent and 15.4 had prostitution and drug trafficking respectively. However, there were 12 percent cases of theft in four star hotels. It is important to note that all the four star hotels were found at the

coastal region according to the Kenya Gazette of 2003 Hotels and Restaurant classification.

4.9.2 Distribution of Security threats in hotels by region

The managers' perception of security threats in hotels by region is presented in figure 4.13.

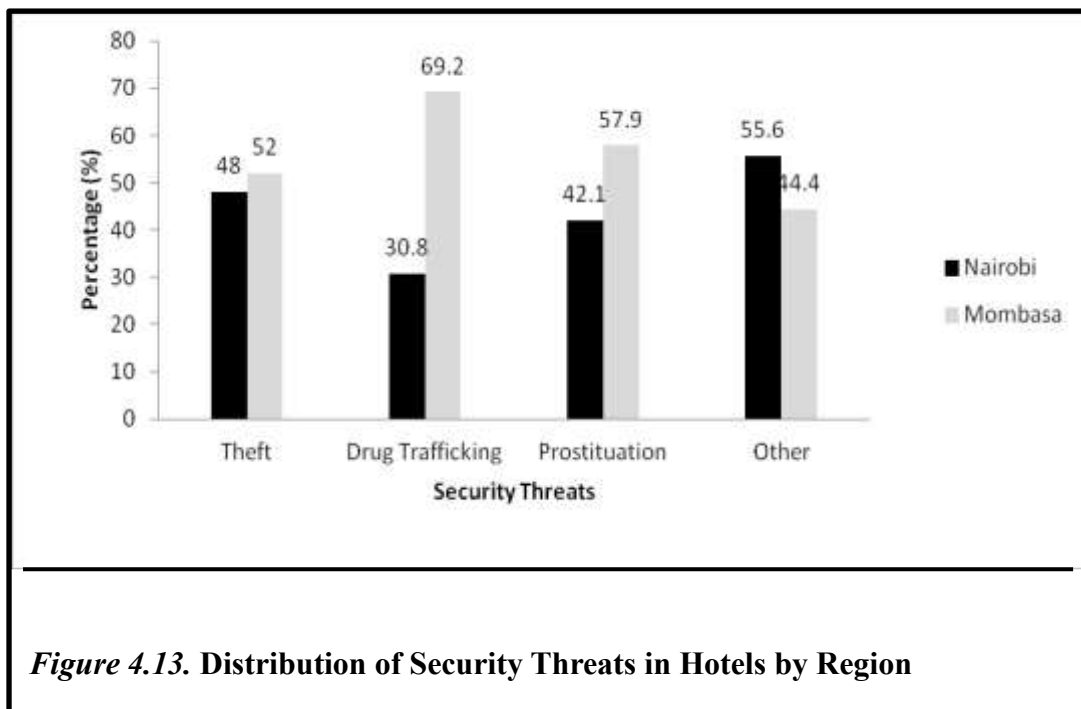


Figure 4.13 shows security vulnerabilities in the two regions. The Mombasa region had more cases of security threats than Nairobi. The hotels in Nairobi have invested more resources in security devices and training as it's the regional hub not only in East Africa but also in Africa as a whole. In Mombasa, 69.2 percent had drug trafficking, while 57.9 percent and 52 percent had prostitution and theft respectively. The coastline is extensive and unmonitored which makes the region to be vulnerable. In Nairobi, 48 percent and 42.1 percent had theft and prostitution respectively. However, 30.8 percent had cases of drug trafficking.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

The following chapter includes summary of information from the key findings of this study and the conclusion thereof. In addition, it includes some recommendations and implementations for future research.

5.1 Summary of Study Findings

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of insecurity in the hotel performance. Generally, there are some demographic characteristics that did not vary in the two regions such as age of the respondents, work experience and highest level of education as well as gender.

Male gender constitutes a significant number of the hotel employees in the top management positions where critical security decisions are made. The findings from this study indicated that employee population is predominantly youthful. This youthfulness is attributed to the fact that a majority of the work force is within the labor productive in employment.

Generally city hotels are more vulnerable to security threats than hotels located at the Airports and resort areas. On hotel ownership, majority of hotels are owned by foreigners which has revenue leakage outside the country. Thus their security checks and structure are more organized than security in individual ownership hotels.

The study found that age of the hotels does not affect the security levels; other factors such security guest procedures and personnel training showed a weaker evidence to infer that age of the establishment affects the levels of security in the hotel working.

The majority of the hotel managers interviewed emphasized that they refurbish their hotel premises to meet international security standards especially affiliated hotels.

To safeguard tourists from harm and army security threats some chain affiliated hotels have responded by offering them of all-inclusive resorts with year full complement of onsite, However, this has also triggered a new wave of resentment from other stakeholders who feel shut out and resort to other illegal activities such as drug trafficking and prostitution to begin a living. On the distribution of security measurement the hotel industry, most hotels in Nairobi were found to have security surveillance cameras than the coastal hotels.

This research established that majority of the hotels do not screen their workers and guests as they rely mostly on recruitment agency. The implication to this laxity is that managers are paying too much attention to personal references, absenteeism and academic qualifications and too little to criminal records and court judgment checks. The security managers revealed that they do have pro-active strategies in place to prevent any incident from occurring. Most hotels are beefing up with more security personnel both in plain clothes and uniformed. Majority of the hotel managers interviewed indicated that they enforce more security concerns on their weak points, enabling them to increase the security staff or apply more security screening methods.

There was no significant association between the training on security procedures and the measures applied by the hotels. This implies that there was a gap between the training and the application of the security procedures in the hotels. Therefore the null hypothesis that states security training does not significantly influence security measures taken in the hotel industry was acceptable.

In Nairobi, the mean average cost of security in a 3 star hotel is higher than the cost of security in the coastal region. This high cost of security has a bearing on the costs of goods and services offered to guests. This cost of security investment is handed over to the customers to meet.

A correlation was tested between security management systems and high guest turnover in the hotel industry. The result was that there was a positive correlation between security investment and the guest turnover (occupancy rate) in both regions. This indicates that the cost of investment among the hotels has other indicative factors which dictate the amount to be invested on security matters.

The hotels in Mombasa had the highest concerns of prostitution in their premises which compromises security in the hotel industry. Due to the weak regulatory framework on prostitution in the Kenyan's constitution, coastal beach hotels experiences highest number of sex workers due to tourism especially during the high season when there is high disposable incomes from tourists. This implies that Mombasa is more vulnerable to security threats than Nairobi.

5.2 Conclusion

Based on the study findings, the following conclusions are drawn:

- a) The hotels in Nairobi were less vulnerable than hotels in Mombasa. This implied that investors have invested more in high- end establishments in Nairobi than Mombasa due to favorable conditions such as safety and security of guests;
- b) The age of the hotel did not affect security levels of the establishments; other factors might be the cause of deteriorating security factors. The implication is

that security is a multiplicity of factors interaction and not a single consideration;

- c) The hotels that are safe and secure are those less than 7 years old and worst security rating are those over 20 years old. However, older hotels would require higher costs of operation and maintenance;
- d) The quality, security, age and occupancy rate of hotel are potential factors affecting the costs for operating and maintaining the hotel premises. It is worth noting that most of the sampled hotels were 20 years and above;
- e) In self-evaluation of the hotels, most of the managers indicated that their hotels were above average in terms of security measures in place. This appeared to suggest that most hotels were not willing to portray any security weaknesses in their premises. The majority of the hotels were employing the services of security firms to beef up its internal security arrangements;
- f) The outsourcing of security services has its own challenges to both the hotel staff as well as guests. This could be attribute to the impression that most of the hotels employ unprofessional security personnel who have no formal security details required in the hotel industry;
- g) The hotels in Mombasa region indicated that 100 percent of hotels perform their security training on a weekly basis. There was significant difference in training on security issues across the two regions with Mombasa doing it more frequent compared to Nairobi (p value<0.001);
- h) The frequency of security training on personnel is more pronounced in Mombasa region than Nairobi owing to its location and extensive coastline which makes the region porous. The implication of this finding is that hotels in

Mombasa region are constantly perceived to be under security threat than hotels in Nairobi;

- i) The security managers revealed that they do have pro-active strategies in place to prevent an incident from occurring. However, with the glaring of terrorism acts, stringent measures are being instituted to ensure that such cases are avoided. These include the beefing up the number of security personnel in plain clothes and uniformed armed;
- j) There was a gap between the training and the application of the security procedures in the hotels. The hotel managers interviewed on this issue revealed that they do not subject their guests' to detailed security checks for fear of losing business in their operations;
- k) On the cost of security expenditure in hotel industry, Nairobi had invested more than Mombasa. Nairobi is the capital city as well as the regional hub in East Africa therefore foreign investors have invested more in Nairobi than Mombasa;
- l) There are few hotels that have attempted to use biometrics to improve room security, improve customer convenience, control access to restricted areas, and limit access to customer data;
- m) Majority of the managers interviewed concurred that the increase of security costs in the hotel industry has led to increase of recovery rates from the cost of security investment;
- n) Nairobi and Mombasa regions had a positive correlation between occupancy and security investment. This indicated that as the hotel invested more in security devices, there was an increase in the occupancy rate. However, this was not statistically significant;

- o) Within the star hotels for the two regions, there was an inverse correlation in some of the stars. For instance, higher stars (4 &5) had a negative relationship of -0.87 and 0.05 respectively. The higher the occupancy rate the lower the investment of security in the hotel industry;
- p) None of the factors significantly explained the Security Investment among the hotels (p value > 0.05). The three factors (occupancy, star rating and region) explained only 17% of the total security investment in the hotels, leaving 83% of the investment unaccounted for. This indicates that investment in security among the hotels is explained by factors other than occupancy, star rating or region;
- q) Hotel staff needs to have specialized training on security matters in high levels to be able to respond to different threats in the hotel industry.
- r) The overall national security in the country is insufficient particularly in the hotel industry. Hotels therefore engage private security firms however, this increases the cost of business in the hotel industry.

5.3 Recommendations of the Study

Based on the outlined conclusions, the study makes the following recommendations;

- a) The hotels in Mombasa need to invest more resources in security to attract more international tourists and make it more favorable;
- b) The age of the hotels is not a determinant factor that affects the security but a multiplicity of factors and not a single consideration;
- c) Despite the majority of hotels being twenty years and above, there is need for the hotel industry to continuously refurbish them not only to make them aesthetic but also to comply with internationally security standards;

- d) The majority of hotels spend a lot of resources for operating and maintenance to make them competitive. Along similar lines, the government should complement security services in the hotel industry to enable hotels not to hand over security costs to customers;
- e) There is a fundamental gap between hotel businesses and the Kenyan police security, therefore the training should commensurate to the needs of the hotel industry;
- f) There is need to capacitate the security guards to be able to expand their scope of security within the hotel industry;
- g) There is need for the hotels to continually develop security strategies to meet the evolution of security challenges in the industry;
- h) There is need to legalize special security agencies within the hotel and tourism industry to deal with terrorism acts and all arms of the security needs to work in sync;
- i) There is need for a uniform platform of security procedures in the hotel industry to be consistent with stipulated internationally security standards;
- j) The government should put more security measures at the coastal region as the hotels feel vulnerable. It's the mandate of the government to provide adequate security to the public;
- k) There is need for the hotel industry to comply with the use of biometrics in all hotels to improve security;
- l) Hotels should be encouraged to invest more in security as this leads to high occupancy rate;
- m) The lower rated hotels should be encouraged to invest more in security as this has long term benefits;

- n) The hotel industry has other critical factors apart from occupancy, star rating and region which needs to be identified. Security is a complex issue that needs to be explored.
- o) The government should implement the overall national security in the country to enable the hotels to cut down the huge security investment which not only disrupts their core business but also depletes their resources.

5.4 Recommendations for Further Research

Further research needs to be done to address some of the gaps identified by this study.

The study recommends further research in the following areas:

- a) This study used data on the hotels performance in 3-5 star hotels. A similar study needs to be carried out to establish the effects of security on hotels performance in other towns and recommend accurate intervention measures;
- b) A similar study also needs to be carried out on other accommodation sectors that include lodges and tented camps located in National parks and game reserves;
- c) A study needs to be done on the role of private security services in the hotel industry;
- d) A study needs to be carried out on the safety of guests in the hotel industry;
- e) A study needs to be done on the recruitment and selection of security personnel in the hotel industry;
- f) The study used descriptive cross-sectional survey designs in sampling and data collections. The research was interested with the status quo of hotel security. Therefore, another study needs to be conducted using longitudinal design to establish the security dynamism over a period of time.

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APPENDICES**Appendix I: Introduction Letter**

Dear Respondent.

I'm a PhD student from the School of Hospitality and Tourism Management, of Kenyatta University. I am carrying out research on "*Manager's Perception towards security factors: a comparative examination of 3-5 star hotels in Nairobi and Mombasa counties-Kenya*". You have been selected as one of the participants in the study. Please assist me in answering the following questions as accurately as possible. You are assured of absolute confidentiality of any information you give. The information will be used for academic purposes only.

Thank you.

Sign.....

Name: Maranga

KENYATTA UNIVERSITY

DEPARTMENT OF HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT

Appendix II: Study Questionnaire for the Hotel Manager

Part I

1. Security Personnel/Hotel Manager/Supervisor/Front Office Manager/Housekeeper

2. Questionnaire Number:

--	--	--

3. Name of the Establishment _____

4. Star Rating

- a) One
- b) Two
- c) Three
- d) Four
- e) Five

5. Region

- 1. Nairobi
- 2. Mombasa

6. Category of Respondent

- 1. Hotel Security Manager 2. Hotel Manager 3. Front Office Manager
- 4. Executive House Keeper 5. Food & Beverage Manager
- 6. Security Supervisor 7. Security Guard

7. How would you classify your property?

- a) City hotel
- b) Airport hotel
- c) Beach resort
- d) Ski resort
- e) Spa resort
- f) Other
(specify) _____

8. Which of the following describes ownership structure at your property the best?

- a) Wholly owned by (the firm's name).
- b) Partly owned by (the firm's name) (i.e. a joint venture).
- c) Non-equity involvement (i.e. a management contract).
- d) Others (specify): _____

9. The age of the of Hotel Premises in years []

- 1) 0-5 years
- 2) 6-10 years
- 3) 11-15 years
- 4) 16-20 years
- 5) 21 years and above

10. How many guest rooms does your hotel have? []

11. What is the security arrangement in the hotel (please tick all that apply)

Category	Explanations
[] Outsourced	_____
[] In-house	_____

12. How many employees does your hotel have?

Full-Time _____

Part-Time _____

Part II: Individual Questions (Demographic information)

1. Gender []
 - a) Male b) Female
2. How old are you? []
 - 1) 18-25
 - 2) 26-35
 - 3) 36-45
 - 4) 46 and above
3. Indicate the highest level of education attained? []
 - 1) Primary and below
 - 2) Secondary 'O' level only
 - 3) Secondary "A" level only
 - 4) University Undergraduate
 - 5) Postgraduate
4. How long have you been working? []
 - 6) 0-5 years
 - 7) 6-10 years
 - 8) 11-15 years
 - 9) 16-20 years
 - 10) 21 years and above

12	Carjacking								
13	Destructive action of walk-in thefts								
14	Robbery of the hotel								
15	Robbery of the guest								
16	Burglary of the hotel								
17	Burglary of the guest								
18	Perpetuating a scam on a guest (e.g. "good Samaritans" scam)								
19	Employee theft								
20	Collusive theft (i.e. theft committed in an association with hotel employees)								

Part II: Investments in Safety and Security

1. Compared to other major Hotels, how safe is your security in general? []
 - a) Below average
 - b) Average
 - c) Above average
 - d) Other (specify) _____

2. Which security measures are already in place at your hotel? (tick all that apply)
 - Security cameras []
 - Private security []
 - Access control systems []
 - Emergency evacuation plan []
 - Other (specify) _____

3. During the past 5 years, has your hotel invested in at least one of the above safety and security improvement project? []
 1. Yes []
 2. No []

4. Please share any comment or concern that you may have regarding hotel safety and security in the space provided below.

Appendix IV: Hotel Security Manager –Interview Schedule

Part I: SECURITY AND SAFETY KNOWLEDGE, ATTITUDE AND PRACTICES

1. What do you consider as security threats/issues in your hotel? (Tick all that apply)?

- 1. Theft []
- 2. Drug trafficking []
- 3. Prostitution []
- 4. Other (specify) []

2. Are there standard procedures you apply for safety and security in your hotel?

3. Ever had training on security and safety issues

4. If yes, how frequent?

5. How does your hotel handle security incidences?

6. In the recent past, what measures have you put in place to curb this?

7. Do you have guest feedback on security matters?

8. What has been the rate?

9. How do you maintain security incidence records?

10. Please rate your ability to handle security issues

Part II: SECURITY AND SAFETY LEGAL AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

1. Does your hotel have security policy in places?

a) Yes []

b) No []

2. Is the legal provision in place adequate to address the safety issues?

a) Yes []

b) No []

3. If yes, (2 above) explain

4. Are there in the legal framework?

5. Who are the main stakeholders in security aspects?

6. Do you have insurance for safety and security to address such liability?

a) Yes [] b) No []

Appendix VI: Questionnaires for Tourism Organizations

(KTB/ Kenya Tourist Police/ Kenya Association of Hotel Keepers/ Provincial Security Committee/ Kenya Navy)

SECURITY AND SAFETY

1. What do you consider as security threats/issues in the hotel industry? (Tick all that apply)?

1. Theft []

2. Drug trafficking []

3. Prostitution []

4. Terrorism []

5. Other (specify) []

2. Are there standard security procedures you apply for safety and security to tourists in Kenya?

3. Do you have security policy in place?

a) Yes []

b) No []

4. How do you ensure that security policy is implemented by all stakeholders?

5. How do you handle security incidences touching on tourists in Kenya?

6. In the recent past, what measures have you put in place to curb insecurity incidences?

7. How do you maintain security incidence records?

8. Please rate your ability to handle security issues in the hotel industry?

12. Is the legal provision in place adequate to address the security and safety issues?

a) Yes []

b) No []

9. If yes, (2 above) explain

10. Are there in the legal framework?

11. Who are the main security stakeholders in the hotel industry?

12. How much does your department/organization spend on the cost of security for the last two years annually

a) 2010 Ksh.....b) 2011 Ksh.....

10. How much does your establishment spend on the cost security annually
.....in Kshs.....

11. Does your establishment use screening methods before recruiting security
personnel

Yes

No

**Appendix VIII: List of All Three to Five Star Hotels in Nairobi and
Coastal region**

<u>Name of hotel</u>	<u>No of beds</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Size</u>
<u>Five star</u>			
Hotel intercontinental	770	Nairobi	Large
1. Laico Regency Hotel	388	Nairobi	Large
2. Hilton Hotel	353	Nairobi	Large
3. The Norfolk Hotel	334	Nairobi	Large
4. Nairobi Serena	283	Nairobi	M. Sized
5. The Stanley	434	Nairobi	Large
6. Safari Park Hotel	285	Nairobi	M. Sized
7. Whitesands Resort	716	Mombasa	Large
<u>Four Star</u>			
8. Severin Sea Lodge	380	Kilifi	Large
9. Nyali Beach Hotel	240	Mombasa	M. Sized
10. Mombasa serena	348	Mombasa	Large
11. Indian Ocean Beach club	200	Ukunda	M. Sized
12. TravellersTiwi Beach H.	420	Kwale	Large
<u>Three Star</u>			
14. Bounty Hotel	100	Nairobi	Family
15. Fairview Hotel	163	Nairobi	M. Sized
16. Marble Arch Hotel	77	Nairobi	Family
17. Landmark Hotel	242	Nairobi	M. Sized
18. Holiday Inn	342	Nairobi	Large
19. Windsor G. and C. Club	260	Nairobi	M. Sized
20. Nairobi Safari Club	282	Nairobi	M. Sized
21. Ambassadeur Hotel	190	Nairobi	M. Sized
22. Mombasa Beach hotel	302	Mombasa	Large
23. Diani Sea Resort	340	Ukunda	Large
24. L.T.I Kaskazi B. Resort	382	Ukunda	Large
25. Diani Reef Grand Hotel	600	Ukunda	Large
26. Baobab Beach Resort	230	Ukunda	M. Sized
27. Indiana Beach Apt Hotel	398	Mombasa	Large
28. Southern Palms B. Rst.	398	Ukunda	Large
29. KilifiBaharini Resort	54	Kilifi	Family
30. Reef Hotel	252	Mombasa	M. Sized
31. Bahari Beach Hotel	200	Mombasa	M. Sized
32. Leisure Lodge	506	Ukunda	Large

Appendix IX: Observation Checklist

	YES	NO
Installation of CCTV		
Wall perimeter at the beach		
Alarm systems		
Uniformed security		
surveillance		
Screening of guests		
Extinguishers		
Watch clock		
First Aid kit		
Fire extinguishers		

Appendix X: Research Authorization Letter

Appendix XI: Security Indicators in Competitiveness Index, 2008

	Reliability of Police Services	Organized crime in public Institutions	Business costs of terrorism	Business cost of crime and Violence
Year	2007	2007	2007	2007
Measure	Rank/131	Rank/131	Rank/131	Rank/131
Argentina	125	90	106	12
Botswana	65	55	87	33
Brazil	120	125	121	10
Chile	26	28	65	28
China	59	99	73	109
Egypt	57	32	49	106
Ghana				
India	60	68	45	93
Indonesia	93	37	24	30
Ireland	25	29	43	35
Kenya	96	113	124	125
Korea	27	50	40	78
Malaysia	31	42	46	59
Mauritius	64	21	48	6
Seychelles				
Singapore	4	8	10	85
South Africa	104	112	126	43
Taiwan	38	51	28	63
Tanzania	83	63	88	71
Tunisia	23	46	25	39
Uganda	90	100	100	126

Reliability of police services: The rating is done on police services (1=cannot be relied upon to protect businesses from criminals, 7=can be relied upon to protect businesses from criminals) (Source: World Economic Forum).

Business cost of crime and violence: This rates the country on incidences of common crime and violence, for example street muggings, firms looted (1= imposes significant costs on businesses, 7 =does not impose significant costs on businesses) (Source: World Economic forum).

Business costs of terrorism are derived from a survey on the threat of terrorism in a country (1=imposes significant costs on business, 7=does not impose significant costs on business) (Source: World Economic Forum).

Organized crime: The level of organized crime, e.g. mafia-oriented racketeering, extortion in a country (1=imposes significant costs on businesses, 7=does

Appendix XII: Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index, 2008

Overall Index		Regulatory framework		Business Environment & Infrastructure		Human, Cultural & natural resources		
Destination Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	
Singapore	16	5.06	7	5.67	13	5.13	37	4.39
South Korea	31	4.68	38	5.02	34	4.52	29	4.49
Malaysia	32	4.63	37	5.04	39	4.31	23	4.55
Tunisia	39	4.41	25	5.28	49	3.86	57	4.08
Mauritius	41	4.38	29	5.23	44	4.14	76	3.78
Thailand	42	4.37	63	4.46	42	4.17	30	4.49
Chile	51	4.27	45	4.86	54	3.82	54	4.14
South Africa	60	4.11	70	4.31	51	3.85	52	4.18
China	62	4.06	103	3.91	70	3.45	13	4.81
India	65	3.99	107	3.78	59	3.70	26	4.50
Egypt	66	3.96	58	4.54	69	3.47	70	3.86
Indonesia	80	3.70	108	3.78	86	3.16	53	4.17
Botswana	87	3.65	82	4.20	76	3.31	103	3.45
Tanzania	88	3.65	89	4.07	117	2.65	48	4.23
Kenya	101	3.53	100	4.00	102	2.82	77	3.76

Appendix XIII: Research Participation Consent Form

Consent to Participate in a Research Study Kenyatta University

Title of Study: manager's perception towards security factors: a comparative examination of 3 to 5 star hotels in Nairobi and Mombasa counties-Kenya

Investigator: Vincent Nyamari Maranga, Cell-Phone: 0725444187

Introduction

- You are being asked to be in a research study regarding manager's perception towards security factors: a comparative examination of 3 to 5 star hotels in Nairobi and Mombasa counties-Kenya;
- You were selected as a possible participant because of the beneficial information you may offer towards the completion of this study;
- I ask that you read this form and ask any questions that you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

Confidentiality

- This study is anonymous. I will not be collecting or retaining any information about your identity;
- The records of this study will be kept strictly confidential. Research records will be kept in a locked file, and all electronic information will be coded and secured using a password protected file;
- I will not include any information in any report we may publish that would make it possible to identify you.

Right to Refuse or Withdraw

- The decision to participate in this study is entirely up to you. You may refuse to take part in the study *at any time* without affecting your relationship with the investigator of this study or Kenyatta University. Your decision to refuse will not result in any loss. You have the right not to answer any single question, as well as to withdraw completely from the study at any point during the process; additionally, you have the right to request that the researcher not use any of your study material.

Right to Ask Questions and Report Concerns

- You have the right to ask questions about this research study and to have those questions answered by me before, during or after the research. If you have any further questions about the study, at any time feel free to contact me, [*Vincent Nyamari Maranga*] or by telephone at [0725444187]. If you like, a summary of the results of the study will be sent to you;
- If you have any problems or concerns that occur as a result of your participation, you can report them to me at the number above.

Consent

- Your signature below indicates that you have decided to volunteer as a research participant for this study, and that you have read and understood the information provided above. You will be given a signed and dated copy of this form to keep, along with any other printed materials deemed necessary by the study investigator.

.....

Name of Participant: _____

Signature of Participant: _____ Date: _____

Signature of Investigator(s): _____ Date: _____

I agree to be interviewed:

Name of Participant (print): _____

Signature of Participant: _____ Date: _____

Signature of Investigator(s): _____ Date: _____