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Antonis Charalambides



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Aims & Scope

Tourism Today serves as an international, scholarly, and refereed journal aiming to promote and enhance research in the fields of tourism and hospitality. The journal is published by the College of Tourism and Hotel Management in Cyprus. The journal is intended for readers in the scholarly community who deal with the tourism and hospitality industries, as well as professionals in the industry. *Tourism Today* provides a platform for debate and dissemination of research findings, new research areas and techniques, conceptual developments, and articles with practical application to any tourism or hospitality industry segment. Besides research papers, the journal welcomes book reviews, conference reports, case studies, research notes and commentaries.

Aims & Scope

The scope of the journal is international and all papers submitted are subject to strict double blind peer review by its Editorial Board and by international reviewers. The journal features conceptual and empirical papers, and editorial policy is to invite the submission of manuscripts from academics, researchers and industry practitioners. The Editorial Board will be looking particularly for articles about new trends and developments within the field of tourism and hospitality, and the application of new ideas and developments that are likely to affect tourism and hospitality in the future. The journal also welcomes submission of manuscripts in areas that may not be directly tourism-based but cover a topic that is of interest to researchers, educators and practitioners in the fields of tourism and hospitality.

Decisions regarding publication of submitted manuscripts are based on the recommendations of members of the Editorial Board and other qualified reviewers in an anonymous review process. Submitted articles are evaluated on their appropriateness, significance, clarity of presentation and conceptual adequacy. Negative reviews are made available to authors. The views expressed in the articles are those of the authors, and do not necessarily represent those of the Editorial Board of *Tourism Today*, nor the College of Tourism and Hotel Management.

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Foreign tourists' perceptions of safety and their future travel intentions to Nigerian cultural festivals

Adewumi I. Badiora¹ and Abdullateef I. Bako²

ABSTRACT

Cultural festivals provide Nigeria with a platform to showcase its uniqueness and attractiveness as an international tourist destination. However, issues over crime which has emerged recently has become a vital concern regarding travelling to the country. This study thus, examines foreign tourists' perceptions of Nigeria as a travel destination, particularly regarding safety and how this may influence their future travel intentions. A total of 232 international tourists answered a questionnaire while attending the 2019 Olojo and Osun festivals. In the overall, respondents generally had positive perceptions with regards to their safety. Nevertheless, majority of the respondents felt unsafe while going out in the night and using public transport. Some socio-demographic factors (such as gender, country of origin, length of stay, number and purpose of visits) were found to affect respondents' perceived personal safety. Besides, concerns for safety did not appear to adversely affect respondents' future travel intentions to return to Nigeria and recommend the country as a travel destination to others. These findings are useful to tourism management professionals and contribute to the improvement of major traditional festivals in sub-Saharan Africa specifically and globally, in general.

Keywords: Cultural tourism, Crime-risks, Perceived safety, Repeat visitation, International tourists

INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry is one of the rapidly growing sectors of the global economy and many countries have productively increased their significance in the world through the development of tourism business (United Nations World Tourism Organization [WTO, 2015]). As a developing economy, Nigeria is not left out of this global opportunity for economic diversification. The Nigerian government views tourism as one of its important industries as it contributes up to 34% annually to the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and 20% of the Nation's employment (National Bureau of Statistics [NBS], 2017). It is impossible to deny Nigeria its pride of place among the richly endowed potential tourist destinations in the world. It boasts of numerous tourist attractions, such as waterfalls, springs, hills, mountains, islands, excellent beaches, and a range of special and common species of tropical wildlife, diverse socio-cultural

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events, and heritage. According to UNWTO's 2015 evaluation, Nigeria is fast becoming a sensational destination for tourists from the UK, Brazil, Germany, Netherlands, France, Italy, and the USA among others.

Among many of its tourist attractions, culture tourism is fast developing. It is reported that about fifty-five percent of all international tourists visiting Nigeria are culture tourists, with about eighty percent of these being classified as viewers (Nigeria Tourism Development Co-operation [NTDC], 2018). The presence of numerous mega cultural events in Nigeria such as Olojo, Osun, Ojude-Oba, Argungu, Ayet-Atyap, Eyo, New Yam, Egungun, Durba, Oro, Ofala, and Sango festivals among others has further led to the growth and development of this sector (Agbabiaka, 2016). Mega-events such as these festivals have considerable impacts on the host townships and Nigeria at large. According to Cornelissen and Swart (2006: 100), mega-events are "complex affairs, which originate from a specific set of socio-economic objectives, but which have potential and social corollaries that usually extend far beyond". As Nigeria moves to diversify her economy, the strategy by the government is to use the numerous mega cultural events to gain international recognition with its economic, social, and political capacity (Agbabiaka, Omoike & Omisore, 2017) and these, particularly, "Olojo and Osun mega-festivals" present unique opportunities for Nigeria to showcase its tourism attributes to the world.

The hosting of a mega cultural festival offers an increase in employment, tourism, spending, and media coverage (Kim *et al.*, 2006). For instance, temporary employment in Brazil has increased over time following the hosting of the biggest festival (Brazil-Carnival) in the world (Alessandro, 2016). Similarly, the annual Oktoberfest, Munich, allows Germany to constantly change any negative global views to those which distinguish it as hospitable and friendly (Harrington, Ottenbacher, von Freyberg, Paraskevas, & Schmidt, 2020). Additionally, the Knysna Oyster Festival in South Africa attracts thousands of visitors. An impact study conducted in 2016 shows that the festival made a significant contribution of 124million rand (the equivalent of USD7.6million) and the creation of about 2500 employment (Pick n Pay Knysna Oyster Festival, 2016). However, it is further cautioned that major cultural events have negative impacts on host destinations, including socio-cultural impacts such as crime (Crompton & Love, 1995; Agbabiaka, *et al.*, 2017). Although the attractions of the tourist destination are showcased in mega cultural events, some of the more negative features are also highlighted. Perceptions of high crime rates and incidents of crime involving tourists are likely to tarnish the image of the host destination (Kim *et al.*, 2006).

Nigeria recently developed an ill reputation for being an unsafe destination. This is not surprising as the country suddenly has an unusual increase in violent crimes such as kidnapping, homicide, robbery, and terrorism. This is supported by The World Bank (2016), which indicates that the country is gradually becoming home to a substantial network of organized crime. Besides, Overseas Security Advisory Council [OSAC], 2019 indicated that Nigeria has an exceptionally high level of kidnapping compared with those a multitude of countries in Africa, Latin and North America, and Europe. The report shows that there were 118 killings in Nigeria per 100000 of the population. Nigeria's record of kidnapping (for ritual and/or ransom or financial gain) stood at 309 incidents per 100000 of the population. Furthermore, several abductions involving foreign citizens occurred in 2018. For instance, two Canadians and two

Americans: Nate Vangeest, John Kirlin, Rachael Kelley, and Dean Slocum were abducted. Also, four British citizens (Alanna Carson, David Donovan, Ian, and Shirley Squire) were kidnapped: unfortunately, Shirley Squire died in the ordeal. Furthermore, an Italian Catholic priest, Maurizio Pallu was abducted in broad daylight. The same year, some South Africans, Thomas Arnold, and Hendrick Gideon were also abducted on January 23, 2018. A majority concluded with some form of ransom paid before the release (OSAC, 2019) made national and international newspaper headlines and emphatically highlighted Nigeria's security problem. Indeed, such crime information has led to Nigeria being labelled "unsafe". Based on the 2018 crime prevalence, OSAC published and warned that travelers should carefully reconsider travelling to the country due to violent crime, terrorism, civil unrest, and kidnapping.

While many of these crime stories are undeniable, the approach taken to convey the news can, at times, seem suspicious, hypocritical, or even as if it was part of a partisan agenda to scare tourists away or negatively affect destinations. The implications such a media racket has on potential travel to a destination can be weighty and beg the empirical validation. Besides, many studies have been found (e.g. An, Lee, & Noh, 2010; Artuğer, 2015; Cetinsoz & Ege, 2013; Crompton & Lovel, 1995; George, 2012; Lee & Chi, 2014; Quintal, Lee & Soutar, 2010; Sohn, Lee, & Yoon, 2016) investigating the relationship between tourist risk perception and their revisit and recommend intentions. Nonetheless, only a few (Crompton & Love, 1995; Sohn, *et al.*, 2016) are related to traditional festivals and they are from the west. There is a paucity of studies in Africa (despite having more cultural festivals compared to other continents [Idang, 2016]), except for the effort in South Africa (e.g. George, 2012) which focuses on a sporting event. Whereas different geographical areas and tourism products affect perceived risk, revisit, and recommend intention differently (Chew & Jahari, 2014). Thus, cross-cultural and specific tourism brands' understanding is essential. This is because findings from developed nations and one tourism type are not automatically transferable to the developing nations (Adu-Mireku, 2002) and another brand of tourism (Fuchs & Reichel, 2011); thus limiting the generality of results.

The goal of this study is, therefore, to investigate foreign visitors' views of Nigeria as a travel destination while attending mega cultural festivals. The study focuses on the tourists' perceptions of safety and their likelihood of returning to Nigeria and recommending the country as a travel destination to others. Moreover, the study aims to determine whether respondent's perceptions of safety are linked to socio-demographic factors (such as age, gender, nationality, and previous travel experience) and environmental factors (such as general view of the country, use of public transport, media and going out in the night). The results will contribute to the understanding of behavioral patterns of cultural festivals' visitors and help with practical recommendations for promoting Olojo, Osun, and similar festivals. Besides providing an empirical outlook of Nigeria regarding perceived crime-risk in the global debate, this study is also helpful in contributing to the literature on the less considered area of the tourism industry in sub-Saharan Africa. Before the findings of the study are discussed, the literature on the topics of culture tourism, tourism-crime, perceived risk, and tourist behavior is appraised.

CULTURE TOURISM

The study of cultural tourism has become increasingly important, both as a tourism product itself and as an academic field of study (Sohn, *et al.*, 2016). Generally, tourism is a human activity comprising travel (e.g. the transfer and temporary stay) to one or several places different from the place of permanent residence and the particular activities that a person engages in during the trip (Koutoulas, 2001). According to the Wales Tourist Board ([WTB], 2003), culture consists of all distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features which characterise a society or group, such as performing, visual and literary arts, museums, built and social heritage, historic landscapes and gardens, crafts, architectural design, film, religion, broadcasting, food, sport, languages as well as traditional, contemporary and emerging professional and amateur forms of cultural expression.

There is no widely accepted definition regarding culture tourism. Instead, many approaches stressing different aspects of cultural tourism. Some of the definitions dealing with the subject view all tourists visiting cultural attractions as cultural tourists, without taking into consideration their main travel purpose. An example of this approach is the Eurostat and European Commission (1998) which defines cultural tourism to encompass all cultural activities undertaken by visitors and the supply of products for cultural visitors during their visit. Another example is proposed by the European Centre for Traditional and Regional Cultures (ECTARC, 1991) as tourism related to the artistic and intellectual heritage of an area. Other definitions are more focused on the motives of the tourists. For example, United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 1985) define culture tourism to include the movement of persons for essentially cultural motivations such as study tours, performing arts and cultural tours, travel to festivals and other cultural events, visits to sites and monuments, travel to study nature, folklore or art, and pilgrimages. Koutoulas (2004) defines culture tourism as a human activity comprising travel to one or several places different from the place of permanent residence as well as the cultural activities that a person engages in during the trip as their main purpose of travel to satisfy some of their needs.

Cultural tourism takes several forms. Its main manifestations are either heritage-related journeys or travel connected with artistic creation. The former corresponds to heritage tourism, with heritage meaning a legacy or things of value that have been passed from one generation to another (Prentice, 1994). This comprises landscapes, natural history, buildings, artefacts, cultural festivals, traditions among others (Prentice, 1994). The latter constitutes arts-related travel including music, drama, dance, creative writing, folk-art, industrial design, architecture, painting, sculpture, craft arts, costume design, fashion design, motion pictures, tape and sound recordings, photography, TV, and radio (Horner & Swarbrooke 1996).

Whether heritage or art-related travels, economic impacts have been established (see for instance: Cudny, Korec, & Rouba, 2012; Lee, Arcodia & Lee, 2012; Diederling & Kwiatkowski, 2015). Nonetheless, it is not only the economic impacts that are of significance but also the number of other impacts that may have both positive and negative long-term effects on the host town or country. Cultural festivals and traditions are considered the most prestigious occasion that promises high awareness through extensive media coverage, higher and

continuous tourism demand, and increased investment through human and capital development (Manolika, Baltzis, & Tsigilis, 2015). Cultural tourism events can serve as part of the set of attractions a destination offers consumers (Lee, *et al.*, 2012). They can be viewed as a significant element for the branding of destinations as desirable locations for tourism and investment. Diedering & Kwiatkowski (2015) highlights that the media plays an important role in achieving destination image-making. However, this is particularly challenging for Nigeria (perhaps, Africa generally) as the destination is often associated with negative images (Agbabiaka, *et al.*, 2017).

Much of the cultural tourism studies have focused on the economic impacts (Alessandro, 2016; Diedering & Kwiatkowski, 2016); opportunities to improve quality of life (Cudny, Korec, & Rouba, 2012); learning, sensory, and emotional stimulations (Getz, 2015) and socio-demographic and governance factors influencing patronage (e.g. Lee, Liu, Chung & Ho, 2015; Agbabiaka *et al.*, 2019). There are, however, gaps in the cultural tourism literature focusing on tourists' experiences, particularly as it relates to crime victimization experience and feeling of safety. Few attempts such as Crompton and Love (1995); Sohn, Lee, and Yoon, (2016) are from the west, thus limiting the generalization of findings. Koutoulas, (2004) and Agbabiaka *et al.* (2016) suggest that future research needs to be conducted to explain the needs, expectations, and behaviours of cultural tourists. Moreover, Sohn, *et al.*, (2016) highlight the importance of ensuring that cultural tourism research remains relevant within the face of changing global issues. There is a dearth of research that has been conducted on crime risk during mega festivals in developing countries. With more countries hosting and showcasing mega festivals annually (e.g. Nigeria, Kenya, Ghana, India, Brazil, South Africa among others), more opportunities are presented for further cultural tourism research. This article does not only contribute to culture tourism research within the global south context but also addresses crime risk views arising from Nigeria's infamous image as "unsafe".

TOURISM AND CRIME LINK

The relationship between crime and tourism has been examined widely. The impact that crime has on a tourist's decision-making while on a trip and their post behaviour mean that it is a vital risk factor to examine (Barker, Page, & Meyer, 2002; Mawby, 2014). The majority of research has examined the impact of crime on tourism demand and whether or not tourism has an effect on crime rates at a particular destination. Many scholars have focused their studies on the impact of crime on tourism (e.g. Barker & Page 2002; Boxill, 2003; George, 2003; Sarah & Nick 2007; Mawby, 2014; Drawve, Kennedy, & Caplan, 2020). Although crime against tourists is not new, scholars had difficulty linking the crime to tourism demand. Hence, factors such as economic concerns, accessibility, climate, and changes in consumer taste and trends affect the behaviour of tourists (George, 2003). Besides, the collection of accurate data to measure crime is difficult (George, 2003) and this prevents researchers from providing substantial proof that directly links crime to tourism demand (Fujii & Mak, 1980).

Another set of studies have focused on tourist crime victimisation at different tourist destinations. For instance, studies have examined whether tourists are more vulnerable to crime than

locals (Harper, 2001; Crotts, 2003) and suggested that residents and tourists stand an equal chance of becoming a victim. Remarkably, Harper (2001) notes that the crime experience of residents was greater than that of tourists contrary to Schiebler, Crotts, and Hollinger's (1996) Florida study. Nevertheless, Harper, (2001) concludes that as the crime experience increases for residents, it also tends to increase for tourists. This is consistent with most of the studies, which shared the consensus that crime against tourists is more likely to happen in areas that experience high crime rates. Prideaux (1996) proposes that in the normal course of the event, tourists may expect to have at least, the same chance of becoming victims of crime as residents of the area they are visiting.

Previous findings also suggest that tourism does contribute to an increase in crime. For instance, Fukunaga (1975) notes that increased visitor rates correlated to the increased number of arrests to a holiday resort. Similar results have been found by Nicholls (1976) as well as Fujii and Mak, (1979) that increased crime rates in rural areas of Hawaii are linked with the growth of tourism. Nevertheless, most of these scholars noted the difficulty in assessing the impact of tourism on crime. As Mathieson and Wall (1982) submitted, the causes of crime, thus, may not solely be limited to tourism. Increased crime rates at specific destinations may also be a result shared by other industries at the destination (George, 2012), such as crude oil mining in Nigeria. For instance, local labourers, foreign oil, and traveling workers might participate in or become a victim of crime. Nevertheless, tourism offers itself to being blamed, since this places the fault on "others" and turn-away the inquiry from more vital problems in the society (George 2003). Besides, tourism-related crimes are highly broadcast, resulting in an unhealthy emphasis on tourism as the reason. Panhandling, gambling, and prostitution, which are often social consequences of the tourism industry (Mayby, 2014), are also associated with crime in certain destinations. Another factor that should be noted when examining the link between crime and tourism is that tourism growth is usually complemented by an increase in the local population, which means that the actual crime rates might increase without any actual growth in the per capita crime rate (George, 2003).

The research has shown that perceptions of crime have a detrimental effect on tourism demand, and on tourists' behaviour (Demos, 1992; Barker, Page, & Meyer, 2003; George, 2003, 2010). This may be because perceived crime is a major, overriding factor in the decision-making process and tourists will choose the safer alternative when given the choice between two destinations offering similar benefits (S ö nmez and Graefe, 1998). Nonetheless, Holcomb and Pizam (2006) have found that personal theft or knowing someone that has been a victim of theft while on a tour, did not affect the likelihood of visiting a destination where the theft occurred. Particularly, how the crime report was handled by authorities was found to be the only factor to have a statistical effect on the likelihood to travel to the affected destination. In the same way, Mawby, *et al.*, (2000) and George, (2003) find that visitors who experience personal theft would still return to the same destination. Tourists may develop a negative image towards a destination if they feel that their safety will be at risk (George, 2012; Boakye, 2012). This may cause a decrease in tourism demand in the following ways. First, potential visitors may be discouraged from visiting as a negative opinion may have been formed. Second, tourists may not feel at ease to partake in activities based outside of their lodging, and third, tourists may not return or recommend the destination based on their experience

(George, 2003; 2012). Tourists' perceptions of safety and how they form these views may vary depending on factors such as the frequency of visits and the demographic characteristics (Demos, 1992; George, 2012; Boakye, 2012). These safety perceptions may also be affected by a person's conditioning to crime-safety, the image portrayed of a destination, and how the media influences risk perceptions (Barker *et al*, 2003).

In their work on Routine Activity (RA), Cohen and Felson (1979) explain crime occurrence as the coming together of several situations. These situations include a motivated offender, a desirable target (victim), and the absence of capable guidance. It is suggested that at tourist destinations, these critical elements are particularly significant owing to the nature of the tourism environment (Drawve *et al.*, 2020). A tourist's destination site brings together large amounts of people simultaneously. Those people can be composed in a couple of different ways. First, people could be composed of all suitable targets. These targets travel to where offenders can victimize them. Secondly, tourists can be composed of both suitable targets and potential offenders. This development is most likely at peak times when the tourist population is at its highest. Although capable guardians are indeed present within these groups identified above, it can be argued, however, that at least, one of potential victims and offenders is always present, but a guardian needs not to be but does exist, nonetheless. It should be noted that the tourists do not all share the same trip's end; hence, they would disperse eventually. So, the capable guardians amongst the tourists get filtered out. As the group of tourists separates, the probability that capable guardians would hinder crime reduces, simply because of their decreased presence.

Large events, such as festivals attract large spectators to the host community. Such events also provide an increased opportunity for criminal activity at a host destination (Barker, *et al.*, 2003). In a study by Jarrel and Howsen (1990) on the effect of transient crowds into an area on crime rates in the area, they expected an increase in crime because of several factors. First, as the number of unidentified people increases to an area; criminals are less likely to be easily identified. Second, a large number of strangers in an area provides a large pool of potential victims. Third, identical with the literature (see Sarah & Nick, 2007; Mawby, 2014; Drawve, *et al.*, 2020), these unidentified people are attractive targets from obvious signs of wealth as they may carry money and easily transportable items that might attract offenders: smartphones, laptops, credit cards, hi-tech equipment among others. Large events including the Olojo and Osun festivals could have a compounding effect on crime, where the impacts may be specific to the event itself. This makes it difficult for event planners to forecast when hosting such events. The research on festival visitor's behaviour at host towns is limited, as is the understanding of tourists' views of safety during a special event. Such views influence tourists' decisions to participate in certain activities; go-out at certain times, and tourists' overall satisfaction with an event (Barker *et al*, 2003). The social changes that may occur as a result of an event will effect on tourists' perceptions of crime, and their decision as to whether they will attend the event (Barker *et al*, 2003).

It would be logical to submit that there is a link between crime and tourism, especially given the increased numbers of people attracted to a tourism event during a defined season, and also that tourists represent the easy and rewarding victim. Moreover, as Olsen and Pizam (1998)

point out, the changing demographics resulting in an older and some believe, a more vulnerable traveler may contribute to an increase in crime. Tourists and certain tourism-related events as well as host towns, thus, are susceptible to crime. Tourists, regarded by criminals as “easy targets” or those that happen to be in the wrong place at the wrong time, may become victims, and ensuing media attention may harm potential tourists’ views and ultimately on numbers of visitors to such destinations.

TOURISTS’ PERCEPTION OF CRIME RISK

The concept of risk was first introduced by Bauer (1960) when he observed that consumer behaviour involves risk in the sense that any action of a consumer will produce consequences which he cannot anticipate with anything approximating certainty, and some of which at least, is likely to be unpleasant. Since then, consumers’ risk perceptions towards the products and services are considered as the central point of their choice, evaluation, and behaviour. Risk is defined by Richter (2003) as an individual’s view toward uncertainty and exposure to the possibility of loss or injury. Risk perception is defined as the consumers’ perceptions of uncertainty and the magnitude of the possible adverse consequences (Sohn *et al.*, 2016). In consumer behaviour research, risk perception is defined in terms of uncertainty and consequences (Campbell & Goodstein, 2001), and perceived risk increases the level of uncertainty as well as the chance of greater negative consequences (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006; Fuchs & Reichel, 2006, 2011). Tourism risk perception consisting of multiple dimensions mainly refers to negative consequences or negative impacts that may occur during travel (Cui, Liu, Chang, Duan, & Li, 2016).

In tourism studies, Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) have pioneered the research on tourist risk perception and argued that every travel process, tourist destination and tourism activities involve a certain level of risk (Cetinsoz & Ege, 2013). Since then, many studies (e.g. Bokserberger; Casidy & Wymer, 2016; Cetinsoz & Ege, 2013; Chew & Jahari, 2014; Cui *et al.*, 2016), have used the concept of risk perception to explain the appellation of risk perception dimensions and their connotation in different contexts of tourism.

Perceived risk is a key factor for tourists when selecting a destination (Mawby, 2014). Making tourists feel safe and secure before and during a holiday is becoming increasingly important for international destination competitiveness, as tourists usually consider several alternatives (George, 2012). The negative image formed through the lack of security may harm the tourism industry. The literature reveals that tourists’ risk perceptions have a significant impact on their behavioural intention (Artuğer, 2015; Cetinsoz & Ege, 2013). Tourists may view risk issue differently due to the differences of environment and culture (Law, 2006), psychology (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005), and travel experiences (Kozak, Crotts, & Law, 2007), which may affect their behavioural intention differently (Quintal & Polczynski, 2010).

Many researchers in tourism studies have linked travel-associated risks with various factors. These include terrorism (Araña & León, 2008; Fuchs & Reichel, 2011), warfare and political instability (Gartner & Shen, 1992; Artuğer, 2015), health threats (Rittichainuwat &

Chakraborty, 2009; Li, 2010; Cetinsoz & Ege, 2013), natural disasters (Faulkner and Vikulov, 2001; Floyd, Gibson, Pennington-Gray, & Thapa, 2003), travel inconvenience and deterioration of tourist attractions (Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009) and crime (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1996; Fuchs & Reichel, 2011). If consumers perceive the possibility of any threat from these risk factors, they may change their choice of travel destination (Kozak *et al.*, 2007). For instance, the 9/11 terrorist attacks in New York led to a 6.8% decrease in foreign visitors to the United States during the year following the attacks (World Trade Organization, 2005). Similarly, political instability in Zimbabwe led to the death of the Zimbabwean tourism industry (Lepp & Gibson, 2003). Besides, nations with high crime rates have also affected tourist influxes and have led to negative perceptions being formed by foreign tourists (George, 2003). Some of these factors may have a lasting effect when they happen. Thus, as the prospect of these factors increases, it becomes essential to know the nature, predict their possible impacts, and manage their consequences on the tourism industry.

Researchers have found that tourists' perceptions of threats are affected by some personal factors such as age, income, gender, social class, education, nationality, among others. For instance, Gibson and Yiannakis (2002) report that age influences risk perception such that the preference for risk in tourism decreases with age. While Sönmez and Graefe (1998) could not find gender to influence an individual's perceptions of risk, Carr (2001) observes that women have greater risk perceptions when it comes to the threats associated with the city at night time. Likewise, Gibson and Jordan (1998) note that women are more vulnerable to risk than men. Pizam, *et al* (2004) also found that men were more likely to seek adventure-filled experiences and were less likely to change their travel decisions when met with risks such as terrorism, health, and natural disasters. Furthermore, Qi, Gibson, and Zhang (2009) posit that women perceived higher violence risk than men, whereas men expressed more concern about health risks.

Previous studies have shown that nationality could explain variance in perceptions of travel-related risks. For instance, Richardson and Crompton (1988) argue that travellers of different nationalities may perceive the same risk differently. In another instance, Tremblay (1989) find that tourists that originate from the United State of America (USA) may have a greater perception of risk when considering terrorism. This is because of their increased exposure to terrorism and media relating to terrorism. The perception of risk increased among the Americans after the September 11, 2001 terrorists attack on the World Trade Center in New York City (World Bank, 2016). Furthermore, Barker *et al* (2003) note that overseas tourists attending the 2000 America's Cup tournament in Auckland placed a higher emphasis on safety. Similarly, George (2010) finds that domestic tourists were more aware of crime-risk and feared for their safety than foreign tourists at Table Mountain National Park in Cape Town, South Africa. Furthermore, Reisinger and Mavondo (2006) establish that the USA and Australian tourists are more likely to perceive travel as risky compared with British, Greek, and Canadian tourists.

Past studies show that an individual's perception of travel risk is affected by some behavioural characteristics. These include the purpose of visit (Rittichainuwat, Qu, & Mongkhonvanit, 2002; George, 2010), length of stay (Barker *et al*, 2003; George, 2003), past travel experience (Chen and Gursoy, 2001; Lepp and Gibson, 2003) and available travel information and

sources (Pizam, Jeong, Reichel, Van Boemmel, Lusson, & Steynberg, 2004; Kozak *et al.*, 2007). For instance, Sönmez and Graefe (1998) noted that tourists that have experiences of international travel may perceive tourism as less risk because that they have confidence from their past experiences and are more likely to return because their feelings of safety were increased. Likewise, Lepp and Gibson (2003) note that experienced travellers were less risk perceptive specifically when considering health and terrorism compared to inexperienced tourists.

There is a paucity of research conducted on the relationship between crime-risk perceptions and culture tourism. Only a few studies have been able to establish some links. For instance, Crompton and Love (1995) in their study of the Victorian Christmas Festival celebration established that perceived safety and security have influenced patronage. Sohn, *et al.*, (2016) in their study of visitors attending the Wild Ginseng Festival (WGF) in Hamyang, South Korea found that risk may lead to a negative perception of a festival, but does not affect subsequent behavioral intention. Besides, they found that direct causality exists between perception, satisfaction, and future intention. Furthermore, decisions about whether to participate in a festival are commonly influenced by perceived risk (Chew & Jahari, 2014). To sum up, perceived safety is expected to influence tourism experience and future behavior, including revisit and recommendation intentions.

REPEAT VISITATION

Mega festivals such as the “Olojo and Osun” that is held every year attract a significant number of tourists and media attention. Hence, such events have a huge potential for a long-term impact on tourism through repeat visitation which is defined as the post-purchase decision made by tourists to travel to a specific destination again, after already having visited there (Rittichainuwa, Qu & Leong, 2003).

Studies have been found (e.g. Artuğer, 2015; Cetinsoz & Ege, 2013; Lee & Chi, 2014; Sohn *et al.*, 2016) investigating the link between tourist risk perception during travel and their post-visit behavior such as revisit and recommend intention. Tourist’s risk perceptions influence their tourism product choice, purchasing, and behavioural intention to repurchase in the future (Artuğer, 2015; Cetinsoz & Ege, 2013). Moreover, tourists’ risk perceptions have an effect on destination image (e.g., Chew & Jahari, 2014; Lepp, Gibson, & Lane, 2011), satisfaction (e.g., An *et al.*, 2010; Jin, Line, & Merkebu, 2016), attitude (e.g., Baker, 2014; Lu, Yeh, & Chen, 2016), purchase and repurchase intention (e.g. Artuğer, 2015; Chew & Jahari, 2014; Sohn *et al.*, 2016). Nonetheless, satisfaction is the most common dimension used to explain repeat visitation (Jin *et al.*, 2016; Hasan, Ismail & Islam, 2017). A few studies (e.g. Ekinci, Dawes, & Massey, 2008; Huang & Hsu, 2009; Suh & Pedersen, 2010) have demonstrated customer satisfaction as one of the significant predictors of customer attitude that influences behavioural intention. The term satisfaction has conceptually been viewed as the tourist’s emotional state or extent of overall pleasure after experiencing the trip (Quintal & Polczynski, 2010). It is regarded as a post-purchase or post-consumption measure of each and entire attributes of a travel destination (Um, Chon, & Ro, 2006).

Studies show that tourist satisfaction affects the likelihood of a return visit to a destination. Studies in this context (e.g. Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Yoon & Uysal, 2005) have demonstrated that satisfied tourists are more likely to spread word-of-mouth and willingly recommend a destination (Huang, 2007). Tian-Cole and Crompton (2003) opine that satisfaction is the affective psychological response to a destination. Thus, overall satisfaction contributes to the formation of attitude, which includes both cognitive and affective components. The findings of Huang and Hsu (2009) postulate that mainland Chinese visitors' satisfaction had a strong positive effect on their attitude and intention towards revisiting Hong Kong. In this study, attitude towards revisit was found to play a significant mediating role in the total effect of satisfaction and revisit intention. Suh and Pedersen (2010) reveal that fantasy sports participants' attitude mediates the relationship between satisfaction and actual use.

Tourist satisfaction with a destination is thus a complex concept, based on tourist perceptions of different aspects of the destination (George, 2012). Tourists' experience of a destination is also found to be a significant influencer of repeat visitation (Court & Lupton, 1997; George, 2012). Many studies have found that repeat visitors have a higher probability of returning to a destination than first-timers (Sönmez & Graefe, 1998; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000). Alegre and Cladera (2009) find that both satisfaction and the number of previous visits have a positive effect on the intention to revisit a destination. As with destination image, past travel experience strongly influences potential tourists' information search in the decision-making process; first-time and repeat travellers obtain their information from different sources, and place different weightings on those information sources (Fodness & Murray, 1999). First-time visitors have no prior experience with the destination, so they rely on external information sources such as travel agents, event brochures, and the internet. However, repeat visitors can rely on their experiences as a source of information (Chen & Gursoy, 2000).

To sum up, satisfaction influences attitude, and in turn, attitude affects actual use (Hasan, *et al.*, 2017). Here, attitude towards a revisit is a conditioning behavioural intentions towards a destination (Deng & Li, 2013), that is conceptualized as an affective predisposition to a future visitation of a destination (Huang & Hsu, 2009). The attitude towards revisit might propel travellers towards behaviour or repeal them away from that behaviour (Deng & Li, 2013). This study also expects that a positive perception of safety will have a positive link with future behavioral intention.

OLOJO AND OSUN FESTIVALS

Olojo and Osun festivals are mega cultural events in Osun state, Southwest, Nigeria. Olojo is a communal festival initiated by Oranmiyan; an Ile-Ife prince. The festival is meant to commemorate Ogun (the god of iron). The festival serves as an annual event for every king enthroned in Ile-Ife from the reign of Oranmiyan to date. The Olojo colourful cultural festival has a display of colour symbols that bring to mind the mythical story that connects Oranmiyan with Ogun and Oduduwa. Besides, the festival features rituals for Ogun; traditional drums and

songs such as “agere or keregidi” the hunter’s drum, “Osirigi” the indigenous drum in Ile-Ife and the adorning of “Are” crown by the Ooni of Ife to the Ogun’s shrine among other activities. Olojo runs for two weeks in the month of October every year.

Osun festival historically began when a group of migrants settled on the River Osun bank. At the riverside, Osun (the River Goddess) appeared and requested them to move to a place (now Oshogbo town). The goddess promised to protect them and bring them wealth in return for an annual sacrifice to her and the migrants accepted the proposal. Today, the annual sacrifice to the Goddess is what is celebrated as the Osun festival. The festival is a two-week-long programme in the month of August every year. It starts with the traditional cleansing of the town called “Iwopopo”, which is followed by the lighting of the ancient 16-point lamp called “Ina Olojumerindinlogun”. After this, is the “Iboriade”, an assemblage of the crowns of the past kings of Oshogbo for blessings. This event is led by the sitting king and the “Arugba”, “Yeye Osun” and a committee of priestesses. During the festival, people appease the goddess daily with different performances which include rituals, playing the drums, singing, and dancing.

These festivals are considered to be the largest annual traditional events of the Yoruba people, which are well attended by international tourists. They are well documented and have earned the classification of their celebrations as global cultural legacies by the United Nations Economic Social and Cultural Organization [UNESCO]. Besides, the “Osun Sacred Grove” was recognized as a UNESCO World Heritage Site in 2005. Thus, these festivals seem to be attractive enough as popular tourism products for people who have a strong interest in cultural enhancement. Such glamorous local festivals create a ripple effect from the host towns (Ile-Ife and Oshogbo) to Osun State, to surrounding areas and then to Nigeria at large in terms of economic and socio-cultural impacts, inspiring local patriotism, enhancing the local positive image, and succeeding in the branding of local cultural values.

Since decisions about whether to participate in a festival are usually influenced by concerns for safety (Chew & Jahari, 2014), there is, therefore, the need to reduce crime and enhance perceived safety. Olojo and Osun festivals can be useful examples for analyzing the relationship between the independent variables of this study (socio-demographic characteristics, purpose of visit, numbers of visits; length of stay; likelihood of both returning to Nigeria and recommending the country as a travel destination to other prospective tourists) and the dependent variable (perceived safety).

METHODOLOGY

The physical interview was carried out at the 2019 edition of “Osun and Olojo festivals”, specifically on August 5 to 16 and September 21 to October 1, respectively, before and after the daily festival celebrations. This method is adopted so that respondents, that is, principally overseas tourists with English often being their second language can be carefully questioned (George, 2012). This method also permits researchers to answer questions, ensure survey

completion, and check the quality of the interview process (Aaker, Kumar & Day, 2007). The authors and two trained research assistants conducted the interview. Respondents were interviewed at various locations in the towns, such as car parks, bars, hotels, and popular visitor attractions places in the two towns. Equal numbers of interviews were carried out in both towns. A convenience sampling was adopted. This method allows large numbers of the interview to be conducted within a judicious time and resources. Moreover, other sampling approaches are unrealistic for exit interviews at spectator events (George, 2012). Also, consumer research, which attempts to identify cross-cultural differences among respondents, will typically use convenience samples (Aaker, *et al.*, 2007).

The interview instrument is a self-administered questionnaire. Before its application, the specialists in Social Psychology have been consulted to check the developed scale of the application. A pilot study has been conducted and some items of the scale have been revised. For analysis of the internal reliability of the items in the questionnaire, Cronbach's *alpha* values were tested with a cut-off value of 0.73 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Reliability analysis has revealed the instrument used is acceptable (alpha coefficient: 0.82).

The final instrument has five sections: (a) demographic characteristics (b) earlier travel and festival experience (c) perceptions of Nigeria as a tourist destination (d) perception of safety and crime-risk, and (e) future travel intentions. The first set of questions captured demographic characteristics. The earlier travel experience was assessed by asking respondents whether they had previously visited Nigeria and had attended a festival on another occasion. Respondents were then asked how many times they had visited Nigeria; how many days they were staying in Nigeria; how many other holidaymakers were travelling with them; and what other towns they had visited. The second set of questions asked respondents about their perceptions of Nigeria. Respondents appraised eight 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly agree – 5 = strongly disagree) questions related to safety, including how safe they thought Nigeria is as a tourist destination. Respondents were then asked whether or not they were aware of any crime incidences or had encountered crime while in the country. Respondents answered four 5-point Likert scale queries on the possibility to recommend Nigeria as a tourist destination and to return based on their perceived safety.

Table 1: Mean and standard deviation for aggregated and single-item measures

<i>Scale Item</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean^a</i>	<i>Standard deviation</i>
Nigeria is safe place ^b	232	2.35	0.9123
Witnessed and/or experience crime while in Nigeria	232	2.00	1.1347
Feel safe while using public transport	232	2.76	0.7681
Feel safe while going out at night	232	3.01	1.1089
Feel unsafe while walking in streets during daytime	232	1.67	1.0124
Feel worried for personal safety in Nigeria	232	2.78	1.0576
Feel concerned for safety of accompany family and friends	232	1.88	0.5789

Might fall victim to crime in Nigeria	232	2.88	1.1061
Advised about terrorist and kidnappers attacks	232	2.40	1.2103
Overall perceived safety ^c	232	3.81	0.6019
Likely to recommend Nigeria as a tourism destination ^b	232	1.48	0.6012
Likely to visit Nigeria again in the nearest future ^b	232	1.69	0.8413
Will not return to Nigeria for fear of safety	232	1.42	0.6312
Will not return because Nigeria is unsafe	232	1.40	0.5921
Overall likelihood of returning ^d	232	1.49	0.6252

^aBased on a 5-Point Likert scale where 1=Strongly Disagree and 5=Strongly Agree

^bReverse coded item

^cSummated scale (Questions: 15- 23).

^dSummated Scale (Questions: 30-32).

The Perception Index (PI) was used to summarize the Likert Scale. To arrive at the PI value, a weight value of 5,4,3,2 and 1 were respectively attached to 'strongly agree' (SA), 'Agree' (A), 'Neither agree nor disagree' (N), 'Disagree' (D), and 'Strongly disagree' (SD). Summation of Weight Value (SWV) is the addition of the product of the number of responses to each item on the scale and the respective weight value attached to each rating. The PI for each item was arrived at by dividing the Summation of Weight Value (SWV) by the total number of responses. This is mathematically expressed as:

$$SWV = \sum_{i=1}^5 x_i y_i \quad \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

Where: SWV= Summation of Weight value; x_i = number of respondents to rating i ; and y_i = the weight assigned to a value ($i=1, 2, 3, 4, 5$). SWV was then divided by the number of respondents to arrive at each item mean. This is expressed mathematically as:

$$PI = \frac{SWV}{\sum_{i=1}^5 i = X_i} \quad \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

The following scale measurement was used regarding mean scores, where 1 = strongly disagree (≥ 1.00 and ≤ 1.80); 2 = disagree (≥ 1.81 and ≤ 2.60); 3 = Neutral (≥ 2.61 and ≤ 3.40); 4 = Agree (≥ 3.41 and ≤ 4.20), and 5 = strongly agree (≥ 4.21 and ≤ 5.00). Descriptive statistics was performed to summarise the tourists' responses and make inferences about the survey

data. To accomplish an overall measure of tourists' perceptions of safety, nine (9) questions were summed from the questionnaire to form a single measure (See Table 1). Likewise, three (3) questions were combined to form a single measure to gain an overall measure of tourists' likelihood to return to Nigeria (See Table 1). Furthermore, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to explore possible links between demographics variables and tourists' perceptions. Analysis was further conducted to establish whether overall tourists' perceptions of safety can predict the likelihood of recommending Nigeria as a tourist destination and the likelihood of returning to Nigeria. The aggregated scale of overall perceptions of safety was used against the likelihood of recommending Nigeria and the likelihood to return to Nigeria.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Survey findings areas discussed under various subsection headings as follows. Unless where otherwise stated, the tables and charts through which findings are summarized are the products of the survey carried out in 2019.

Demographic distribution of respondents

In the final sample, 62% of our respondents were male while 38% were female. The above half (52%) of respondents were between the ages of 41 and 60 years; 20% were between 20 and 40 years of age while 15% of respondents were less than 20 years of age. The proportion of respondents who are 60 years and older was 13%. Furthermore, findings show that 34% of respondents were employed as full-time salary earners; 51% were self-employed and 15% were part-time salary earners. Most of the visitors (96%) had a formal education. There were also some 88% earning income above an average of 2000USD on monthly basis. This is a very high income when converted to the Nigerian currency (850000 naira). The dominant colour is black descent (66%) while other colours (e.g., white, red, brown descent among others) accounted for the remaining (34%). Findings show that the majority (84%) of the respondents have at least one other tourists, mainly a family member or friend travelling with them.

The largest cluster of respondents (28%) was from North America (that is the USA, Canada, and Mexico). The second largest group (22%) was from the Southern Americas while the third-largest group (19%) was from Europe (Western and Eastern Europe). The remainder was from Africa (17%); Australia and Asia had a share of 5% each, the Middle East (3%), and Oceania (1%). The low figure returned by Africans is a confirmation of the assertion by Sindinga (1999) that Africans rarely travel for tourism-related purposes. Indeed the United Nations World Tourism Organisation's (2010) statistics show clearly, that outbound tourism from Africa accounted for less than 3% of world travel. It is therefore not out-of-place to have such a low representation of Africans in a study of tourist arrivals. Besides, these demographic results are reasonably consistent with the NTDC's (2018:5) report and Ayodele, (2014:1) who have described Nigeria as "an Americans tourist destination".

Previous visit and traditional festival experience

Findings showed that 65% of respondents were visiting Nigeria for the first time while 10% had visited Nigeria between 2 and 6 times; 4% had visited between 7 and 10 times and 2% had visited more than 10 times. Of these first-time visitors, findings show that the majority (78%) travelled to Nigeria to attend events for the 2019 Olojo and Osun festivals, which could explain a large number of first-time visitors. It can thus, be presumed that the mainstream of festival tourists cross-examined had no first-hand knowledge of the country. Besides, the respondents visiting the country for the first time had been attracted for other reasons such as education (8%) and business (14%). Furthermore, findings show that 30% of the respondents had been in the country for 7 days; 28% for 14 days; 20% for 21 days; 10% a month, and the remaining 12% for more than a month. When this was cross tabulated with tourists' perceived safety, findings show that tourists visiting Nigeria for extended periods were less apprehensive about their safety. They are also likely to perceive Nigeria as a safe place for holidaymakers. These findings are consistent with previous studies (e.g., George, 2003; 2012; Boakye, 2008; 2010) which revealed that tourists' duration of stay influenced their perceived safety.

Findings show that some 46% of respondents had not attended a prior cultural festival in another country while the remainder had attended at least one or more cultural festival events. Among those who had attended a previous festival, most respondents were from America (45%) and Europe (23%). Findings show that more than half 60% of the respondents were in Nigeria only for Olojo and Osun festivals while 17% were in Nigeria for holiday; 14% for business; and 9% to visit family and friends. This distribution shows that individuals who were in the country for the first time were inspired to attend these festivals. Thus, these cultural events, if well managed, could serve as motivators and thus contribute to the development of the country. Koutoulas (2004) asserts that cultural festivals could serve as an important motivator to visit a country as opposed to the destination alone.

Perceived safety and future intentions

When asked about their awareness of crime in the country, a majority (84%) of respondents were aware of high crime rates in Nigeria. Findings show that some 41% came to the awareness of crime through friends and families while 53% developed their awareness through the media. These findings suggest that holidaymakers who watch television or read newspapers gain the most insight on crime trends in Nigeria. Travel guide appears to create marginal awareness of crime, as only 5% of the respondents gained awareness of crime within Nigeria. Tourists who had never visited Nigeria relied on the information provided to them by external sources to shape their perceptions of the country. While some 25% of foreign tourists had no concerns about crime during their trip to Nigeria, the present study aligns with the literature (e.g. Holcomb & Pizam, 2006; Boakye 2012) as thefts (30%) were reported as major concerns. Tourists had their phones, laptops, cameras, and other personal items and cash stolen from their accommodations, public vehicle, and pickpocketing during their stay in Nigeria. Furthermore, foreign tourists were least concerned about violent crimes such as assault (23%), rape and sexual harassment (17%), and murder (9%). Furthermore, slightly above half (52%) of foreign tourists were concerned about kidnapping. Those who exhibited this concern were

non-black, particularly, whites. Even though somewhat small in number, the nature of the crime committed against international tourists requires the attention of the Nigerian tourism industry and police authorities.

Concerning perceptions of safety in the country (See Table 2), the majority of the respondents felt safe while walking in the streets during the daytime. On the contrary, the majority of the respondents felt unsafe while going out at night and using public transport. From the summary in Table 1, findings show that the overall, respondents generally had positive perceptions with regards to crime-safety while attending Olojo and Osun festivals in Nigeria. The majority of respondents felt that Nigeria was a safe destination to visit (Nigeria is a safe place, $PI = 3.47$). Similarly, respondents were not worried regarding their safety ($PI = 2.89$); nevertheless, they were unsure as to whether they might fall victim to crime in Nigeria ($PI = 3.01$). Furthermore, findings show that the majority of respondents had not witnessed crime during their stay in Nigeria. Similarly, only a few (26%) respondents had experienced crime. Moreover, findings reveal that respondents who had attended previous festivals were less likely to feel unsafe during the festivals. Besides, the majority were advised about terrorist attacks and kidnapping. This finding is not surprising given that Nigeria is currently experiencing some form of terrorism and an increasing rate of kidnapping. Despite being satisfied with personal safety, respondents worry about the safety of their family and friends who accompanied them to Nigeria. Findings show that (75%) of respondents with this concern were those who came to Nigeria with their wives and/or child(ren). Hence, there were indications of unselfish concerns, where respondents worry for their family. This finding may be related to what Trickett (2009) calls "altruistic fear," a fear that individuals feel for other people whose safety they hold in high esteem.

Table 2: Respondents' perceived safety and future intentions

<i>Safety scale item</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>PI</i>
Feel safe while walking in the streets during daytime	232	1.29
Feel safe while using public transport	232	2.35
Witnessed and/or experience crime while in Nigeria	232	2.52
Feel worried for personal safety in Nigeria	232	2.55
Might fall victim to crime in Nigeria	232	3.01
Advised about terrorist and kidnappers attacks	232	3.42
Feel concerned for safety of accompanying family and friends	232	3.45
Nigeria is safe place	232	3.47
Feel unsafe while going out at night	232	4.21
<i>Future intention scale item</i>		
Likely to recommend Nigeria as a tourism destination	232	4.36
Likely to visit Nigeria again in the nearest future	232	4.31
Will not return to Nigeria for fear of safety	232	1.91
Will not return because Nigeria is unsafe	232	1.87

From the summary presented in Table 3, respondents gave mainly positive responses to the items related to the likelihood to recommend Nigeria as a tourist destination and visit Nigeria again in the nearest future. The PI value ($PI = 4.36$) shows that majority of respondents were likely to recommend Nigeria as a tourism destination. Similarly, the PI value ($PI = 4.31$) shows that the majority of respondents were likely to return to Nigeria for holidays in the future. Respondents were also asked to consider their intentions to return to Nigeria depending on their perceptions of safety. The majority of the tourists disagree not to returning to Nigeria because of their perceived safety. It is evident that respondents were willing not only to recommend the country to others but also to revisit it themselves. These findings support previous studies (e.g. Boakye, 2012; George, 2012; Holcomb & Pizam, 2006; Mawby, 2000) which suggest that being a victim of a crime and/or unfavourable broadcast about crime incidences do not necessarily negatively affect repeat patronage. Although researchers (e.g. Pizam, 1982; Pelfrey, 1998) noted that it is extremely difficult to link the crime to tourism demand, it, however, seems that concerns for crime and safety during the 2019 Olojo and Osun festivals did not harm the likelihood of respondents recommending Nigeria and/or returning to the country.

Factors influencing perceived safety and future intentions

From the summary of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) F-statistics presented in Table 3, findings show that age affects perceptions of Nigeria as a safe destination. Compared with tourists younger than 60 years, older tourists believed that they are more prone to become victims of crime in Nigeria. Findings are similar to that of George's (2010) and Hope and Sparks' (2000) that found that older respondents were more likely to feel worried about their safety. However, the finding is in contrast to that made in an earlier study by Boakye (2012) that younger tourists consider themselves most vulnerable to crime. In addition, respondents between 40 and 50 years of age are less likely to recommend Nigeria as a tourist destination to others. Gender also influences tourists' perceptions of safety. Women feel less safe going out at night and are more worried about their safety than their male counterparts. Gender also influences respondents' likelihood to recommend Nigeria as a holiday destination and the likelihood of returning to Nigeria. These findings are consistent with George's (2012) study, where gender influences tourists' likelihood to return to Cape Town and Johannesburg as holiday destinations. Nonetheless, these findings differ from those of Sönmez and Graefe (1998), George (2003), and Lepp and Gibson (2003), where gender had little impact on tourists' perceptions of safety.

Tourists' colour also influences perceptions of safety. For instance, whites feel less safe going out at night and are more worried about their safety while using public transport than their black counterparts. Further, tourists' colour has a significant influence on their fear of terrorist and kidnapper attacks. Nevertheless, colour did not influence respondents' likelihood to recommend Nigeria as a holiday destination and the likelihood of returning to Nigeria. Consistent with the literature (George, 2003; Boakye, 2010; 2012; Maruthaveeran & Van den Bosch, 2015), the income of respondents has a significant influence on their perceptions of personal safety while going out at night and their fear of terrorist and kidnaper attacks. Specifically, findings show that higher income groups feel less safe going out at night and are more worried about their safety. Furthermore, the purpose of the visit has a significant influence on tourists'

perceptions of personal safety, their fear of terrorist and kidnaper attacks and the likelihood to recommend Nigeria as a tourism destination. Particularly, those respondents who were in Nigeria to attend the festivals only felt less safe than those who were visiting Nigeria for business. This finding is similar to that of George's (2003) who found that those respondents who were on holiday felt less safe than those who were visiting Cape Town for business.

Table 3: ANOVA of factors influencing perceived safety and future intentions

Factors	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Age of respondents	2.83**	1.38	0.68	0.88**	1.21	0.89	0.78	1.84	0.69	3.88***	1.61	1.09	1.28
Colour	0.81*	0.74	0.34**	0.76**	0.45	0.46	1.22	0.34	1.67*	0.37	0.76	0.91	1.34
Country of origin	1.85*	0.92	0.88	1.95*	1.71**	1.28	0.85	0.37	1.67*	2.28**	1.29	3.44**	1.88*
Gender of respondents	0.77	0.03	1.59	2.61**	0.08	3.64*	1.74*	0.46	0.08	3.42*	3.68*	1.19	0.31
Income	0.99	1.56	1.77	0.67***	0.86	0.45	0.34	0.23	0.43*	0.34	1.42	0.56	0.71
Length of stay	2.91**	5.11**	0.35	0.51	0.91	1.64**	1.76**	1.21	0.59	0.96	1.61	0.31	0.36
Number of visitations	2.26*	4.45**	5.01***	0.57	0.46	0.22*	0.61	1.61	0.51	0.82	1.81	0.76	1.25
Purpose of visitation	0.85	1.77	0.97	0.41	1.48	2.51**	1.56	0.81	2.19**	2.63**	1.45	0.71	1.38

1. Nigeria is a safe place^a
2. Witnessed crime while in Nigeria
3. Feel unsafe while using public transport
4. Feel unsafe while going out at night
5. Feel unsafe while walking in the streets during daytime
6. Feel concerned for personal safety in Nigeria
7. Feel concerned for the safety of accompanying family and friends
8. Might fall victim to crime in Nigeria
9. Advised about terrorist and kidnappers attacks
10. Likely to recommend Nigeria as a tourism destination
11. Likely to visit Nigeria again in the nearest future^a
12. Will not return to Nigeria for fear of safety
13. Will not return because Nigeria is unsafe

*P< 0.1; ** P< 0.05; *** P< 0.01.

^aReverse coded item

Tourists' countries of origin have a significant influence on perceptions of Nigeria as a safe place, their perceptions of safety during both night and daytime, and their fear of terrorist and kidnaper attacks. This finding is also consistent with several other travel risk perception studies that suggest perceptions of safety contrast among tourists from different nationalities (Hofstede, 2001; Boakye, 2012; George 2012). Furthermore, findings show that the country of origin has a statistically significant effect on respondents' perceptions of safety, the likelihood of recommending, and the likelihood of returning. Specifically, tourists originating from South America are likely to return to Nigeria and those from North America (the USA, Canada, and Mexico) are likely to return in the future because they do not fear their safety and find Nigeria safe. These findings are consistent with George's (2003; 2012) study, where nationality influences tourists' likelihood to return to Cape Town and Johannesburg as holiday destinations.

From the summary presented in Table 3, findings show that earlier travel experience affects respondents' perceived safety and the use of public transport in Nigeria. The number of visits to Nigeria had a direct effect on visitors witnessing a crime, perceptions that Nigeria is safe, and feeling unsafe while using public transport. As anticipated, respondents who had visited Nigeria more than once had at least experienced a crime and were witnesses of a crime. Respondents were more likely to have witnessed crime and to perceive public transport in Nigeria as unsafe if they have visited Nigeria more than once. These findings corroborate George's (2010) study in which routine visitors are more likely to become a victim of a crime and perceive Cape Town as an unsafe city. The length of stay in Nigeria was statistically significant to whether or not respondents felt Nigeria was a safe place and had witnessed a crime. An increase in the length of stay improved the perceptions of Nigeria as a safe place to visit and displaced their worries about their safety concerns. Moreover, findings are consistent with previous discoveries (See for instance: George, 2012; Boakye, 2012; Mawby, 2014) that tourists witness more crime as their number of visits increases.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study examined the perceptions of foreign tourists while attending Olojo and Osun festivals in Nigeria. Generally, tourists had very positive perceptions of Nigeria in terms of overall safety. Tourists who attended the 2019 Olojo and Osun festivals largely felt that Nigeria was a safe place to visit and very few had witnessed or experienced crime. The study concluded that foreign tourists who departed Nigeria after the 2019 edition of Olojo and Osun festivals most likely left Nigeria with positive perceptions towards safety. Findings show that visitors' perceived safety was influenced by socio-demographic factors such as age, gender, country of origin, length of stay, the purpose of visit, and previous travel experience. Findings also show that a vast majority of tourists would both return to Nigeria and recommend Nigeria as a tourist destination. Several key findings, derived from the study, are consistent with previous studies.

These findings, however, cannot automatically be generalized to tourists' future experiences

in Nigeria, as different towns and states in the country have a different level of crime. Particularly, the state where this study was carried out has the second-lowest crime rate in Nigeria in 2019 (National Bureau of Statistics [NBS], 2019). Besides, special security patrols are always provided during mega-events in Nigeria. While these festivals might have had a significant effect on improving perceived safety, foreign tourists could find themselves having different views and expectations of Nigeria during a non-festive period when the country operates its usual policing practices. Furthermore, these findings indicate that tourism managers and marketers would benefit from investigating the views of international tourists and use the influencing socio-demographic variables for the cultural tourism market segmentation. Furthermore, findings from this study reiterate that perceived safety is an important aspect of destination and event management. Although the promotion of safety is not enough to reduce perceived travel hazards, risk reduction should, however, be addressed to motivate risk-sensitive tourists to travel. While risk is multidimensional, crime threats such as theft, kidnapping are considered major risk dimensions within emerging tourism markets.

To further reduce tourists' fear, the tourism industry should manage efforts to further implement crime prevention measures. For instance, on arrival, tourists could be provided with information booklets which would inform them about safety and self-care measures, mode of public transport, the various routes and times that they run, and so on. Security measures also need to be increased to make it safer for tourists to go out at night. Since personal safety concern was considerably higher during the nighttime; an improvement in security patrol and lighting within and around tourists area would be the most important possible way of enhancing personal safety at this time. It seems that such improvement works by boosting self-assurance and personal safety levels by improving the surveillance of the host community. This is supported by Nair, McNair, and Ditton (1997) who find that improved lighting can improve perceived safety. Furthermore, public transport needs to be made much safer. This can be achieved through the inclusions of security personnel in public transport and the installation of surveillance devices such as CCTV.

The tourism industry needs to find a way to warn tourists about safety and security without deterring them from visiting or taking part in festival activities at the destination. Further, the Nigerian tourism industry cannot just increase its spend on altering false or negative views as it may increase tourist numbers yet will not improve actual safety measures at the destination. For instance, a couple of negative crime incidents involving foreign nationals may counter any marketing efforts. Furthermore, local tourism authorities need to improve the security of tourists without discriminating against the local's rights to protection. In essence, a coordinated effort by all is required to work toward providing a harmonious place for locals and visitors alike.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

This study offers opportunities for further research. One such is that caution should be applied in drawing any generalization from a rather non-randomized selection of tourists. Besides,

the study covered only a few cultural festivals domiciled in Osun State, Nigeria, and not the entire country. Moreover, the sample is small. This may mean that the statistical power may be low (e.g. the capability to detect accurate significant statistics). Future analysis may therefore consider a larger sample and new data collection methods to obtain time-series data of crime events, perceived safety, and their influencing factors. The police data that identify victims as tourists may be used to compare the results of interviewing tourists. Also, coping mechanisms adopted by holidaymakers and residents should be examined in future studies. Furthermore, future studies should consider more robust techniques. For instance, using z-scores or minimum or maximum normalization (multiplied by 100), validation of the indices using factor analysis. In future studies, a comparative study between the host cities could identify city/country-specific factors that influence visitors' perceptions. It could also be valuable to conduct a pre- and post-festival study, where respondents are questioned using entry and exit surveys. This would help determine the true expectations and perceptions of first-time visitors to the destinations.

Future researchers could also replicate this study at other events and festivals in the country and abroad and use several individual and behavioural criteria and their effect on tourists' perceived safety. Future research could disaggregate the country into regional, geographical, or geopolitical regions to gain more insight, in an attempt to achieve more targeted marketing strategies. Since not all places in Nigeria are prone to violent crime, terrorism, civil unrest, and kidnapping, future research could also focus on tourists' perceptions of safety at different states, particularly those with high crime rates and locations within these areas, for example, in and around car parks, hotels, and central business districts, restaurants, and bars among others.

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