EFFECTS OF TERRORISM ON INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS: A CASE OF KENYA

BY

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UNITED STATES INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY - AFRICA

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STUDENT DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this is my original work and has not been submitted to any other college, institution or university other than the United States International University – Africa in Nairobi for academic credit.

Signed: _______________________________ Date: _______________________________

Chiharu Mary Asami (ID: 625898)

This project has been presented for examination with my approval as the appointed supervisor.

Signed: _______________________________ Date: _______________________________

Mr. Patrick Mulindi

Signed: _______________________________ Date: _______________________________

Dean, Chandaria School of Business
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research study was to analyze the effects of terrorism on international tourists who have visited Kenya. To achieve the purpose, the study analyzed the effect of terrorism on tourist behavior, the effect of tourists’ awareness of terrorism on destination image and the effect of terrorism on tourist’s risk perception and attitude.

The study adopted the descriptive research design and employed the survey method for the collection of primary data from respondents. The total population constituted of 401 international tourists. The study focused on a sample size of 123 of which 80 responded. Due to the difficulty faced by the researcher in accessing data from the hotels and tour firms, convenience sampling technique was used to obtain data from previous USIU exchange students, international students currently residing in the USIU hostels as well as international tourists from one tour company via email using an online survey. The study also employed descriptive and inferential statistics in the analysis where data was then presented using tables.

The study found that tourists who had the most travel experience internationally reported they would visit an area affected by a tourist attack immediately. Most of the tourists reported they frequently follow the news on terrorist attacks especially on the internet. Additionally, most of the tourists never cancelled or postponed their travel plans due to news of a terrorist attack. The study also established that most of the tourists were aware of the terrorist incidents that occurred in Kenya. Despite knowledge of travel advisories that had been issued by their own countries, most respondents never cancelled or postponed their travel plans.

Majority of the tourist’s perceived factors such as crime and terrorism to be high risk in Kenya. Half of the tourists agreed to the statement that the media gives too much attention to terrorist attacks while the other half disagreed. Majority agreed that travel advisories are often over estimated. Furthermore, most of the tourists reported they would visit Kenya again despite the acts of terrorism as well as recommend Kenya to their family and friends. Lastly, most of the tourists perceived Kenya to be a safe tourist destination.
The study concludes that an individual's travel motivation changes with the individual's travel experience which in turn influences a tourists' reaction to terrorism. Furthermore, safety and negative media images can influence a tourist's destination choice. The study also concludes that the public relies heavily on media for news coverage of terrorism activities which can be harmful to the destination's image. Lastly, the study concludes that destinations are perceived to be more risky with any terrorist activity that occurs.

The study recommends that quality service be provided to tourists because memorable experiences can help create positive word of mouth where travelers can influence their friends and family to visit the destination. It also recommends that mass media be careful as to how they relay messages of terrorism to the public since this can significantly influence tourism at the destination. Finally, the study recommends that the government should keep assuring international tourists of the security measures that have been put in place to provide a safe environment for everyone which will in turn create positive perceptions and a change in attitude for tourists visiting Kenya.
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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Problem

Tourism is the fastest growing global industry. International tourism has shown consistent growth since the 1950’s and now contributes significantly to many national economies (Sausmarez, 2013). In 2012, there was a historic milestone of one billion people traveling the world in a single year and since then international tourism continued with a 5% growth in 2013 or an additional 52 million international tourists bringing up the world total to a record 1,087 million arrivals (UNWTO, 2014). The regions that showed the strongest demand for international tourism in 2013 were Asia and the Pacific, Africa and Europe. Growth was strongest in Asia and the Pacific where the number of international tourists grew by 14 million to reach 248 million. In Africa, there were 3 million additional arrivals reaching a new record of 56 million reflecting the ongoing rebound in North Africa and the sustained growth of Sub-Saharan destinations (UNWTO, 2014).

Dieke (2003) states that in less developed countries (LEDG’s), tourism can be an important source of stable foreign exchange and often a means of diversifying a narrow resource based economy, generating employment and stimulating regional development. According to Okello and Novelli (2014), there is a general agreement that tourism can serve as a potential contributor to the socio-economic development of poor countries. In addition, organizations like World Bank, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) view tourism as a potential tool for economic diversification and regeneration, poverty reduction, post conflict stability, multilateral integration and peace (Novelli et al., 2012).

In 2011, tourism directly generated 2.7% of the gross domestic product (GDP) of countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) and directly and indirectly accounted for more than one in 20 of the 12.8 million jobs in the region (WTTC, 2012). SSA has abundant tourism resources ranging from extensive coastlines and stunning beaches, plentiful wildlife, rich natural and cultural assets as well as adventure travel opportunities (Okello & Novelli, 2014). In
addition, Okello and Novelli (2014), state that as disposable incomes increase in some SSA economies, for example South Africa and Angola, domestic and regional travel for leisure purposes is expected to rise. More than 10 million people are already travelling across international borders every year within Africa for shopping, medical needs, sports, religious gatherings, business meetings and conferences as well as visiting friends and family (Christie et al., 2013).


Kenya is one of the world’s most popular tourist destinations which has traditionally relied on beach and safari products despite a range of natural attractions, unique historical and archaeological sites and cultural assets suitable for a much greater diversity of tourism products (Sausmarez, 2013). The tourism sector is extremely important to the Kenyan economy and is one of the top three foreign exchange earners along with the horticulture and tea sectors (Gachenge, 2012). According to the World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC, 2014), the total contribution of Travel & Tourism to Kenya’s GDP was KES 462.8 billion (12.1% of GDP) in 2013 and is forecast to rise by 3.1% to KES 477.1 billion in 2014. It is expected to rise by 5.2% per annum to KES 791.4 billion in 2024 (11.8% of GDP).

The tourism sector is a major source of employment for over 219,000 people representing approximately 11% of the total workforce in the country (Republic of Kenya, 2012). It is also a major source of government revenue, that is, taxes, duties, license fees and entry fees, which contributes considerably to the tourism value chain and multiplier effect. This has promoted regional development, stimulated new commercial and industrial enterprises, created demand for locally produced goods and services, and provided a market for
agriculture products. Hence benefitting many associated sectors in the country (Okello & Novelli, 2014; Sindiga & Kanunah, 1999).

Tourism plays an important role in the economic development and wealth of nations where visitor expenditure on accommodation, attractions, local transport, entertainment and shopping represents substantial benefits for local recipients (UNWTO, 2007). According to Seabra et al., (2007), the interdependence of international tourism with many other economic activities results in a multiplier effect visible in employment, foreign exchange and increased welfare.

Globalization of tourist markets has increased over recent years (Levitt, 1983), contributing to the escalation of global risks. Tourism is viewed as one of the activities most susceptible to global risk factors (Ritchie, 2004). Fuchs et al., (2013) states that the tourism “product” is prone to specific risk factors such as unfriendly locals, strikes, terror, crime, political unrest, diseases and natural disasters. Historical examples include instability and war in Egypt and Tunisia, natural disasters in Japan and Thailand as well as terrorism felt globally after the September 11 attacks in America (Coshall, 2003; Fuchs & Reichel, 2006; Kozak, Crotts & Law, 2007; Lepp & Gibson, 2003).

Tourism’s vulnerability to terrorism is a topic of heightened interest due to the prevalence of the threat of terrorism and predictions of its intensification (Henderson, 2004). Various forms of insecurity are detrimental to tourism such as war and internal conflict; unstable regimes depress inbound travel (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1996). Terrorism is a damaging manifestation of instability and can cause a serious decline in visitor arrivals, sometimes over an extended period (Richter & Waugh, 1986; Sonmez, 1998). According to Sonmez (1998), the threat of danger that accompanies terrorism or political turmoil tends to intimidate tourists more severely than any natural or human-caused disaster. The fear of terrorism may exist due to factors such as past experiences with terrorist attacks, conflict proximity, negative tourist destination image and exposure to media information (Seabra et al., 2007).

Tourism, especially international tourism is highly sensitive to safety and security issues (Pizam & Mansfeld, 1996). Lennon and O’Leary (2004), states that terrorism affects the travel industry more than any other industry. Cilliers (2010) defines terrorism as “the
unlawful or threatened use of violence against individuals or property to coerce and intimidate governments or societies for political objectives presumed in social, economic or religious terms.” Consequently, terrorism which is aimed at tourism includes assassinations, suicide missions, hijackings, bombings and shootings in a range of environments with the intent of creating a state of terror and public intimidation to achieve political, social or religious ends (Henderson, 2008; Shin, 2005).

Sonmez (1998), states that “international terrorism and tourism are paradoxically connected via their mutual characteristics such that both cross national borders, both involve citizens of different countries and both utilize travel and communications technologies.” According to Ranga and Pradhan (2014), the relationship between tourism and terrorism is undeniable in the modern era due to the strength of the industry and the fact that tourists’ sites are an ideal target for terrorist attacks aimed at causing social and economic unrest.

Terrorism has a significant impact on tourist behavior (Sonmez, 1998). According to Henderson (2008), terrorist acts lead tourists to constantly ask themselves how safe do they feel about making certain trips. These acts could even deter one from making a trip altogether for months or even years if the chance of a terrorist act occurring is raised due to threat levels. Consequently, Chauhan and Khanna (2009), state that terrorism often causes cancellations and withdrawals by potential visitors to certain destinations. This leads to negative effects on tourist arrivals in countries with persistent terrorist incidents which in return may affect the overall economy as the tourism industry generates substantial economic benefits such as foreign exchange earnings, tax revenues and employment for workers in the industry (Faridun, 2011).

Before tourists travel to a destination, they develop an image and a set of expectations based on previous experience, the internet or family and friends (Chon, 1992; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). The media’s intense international coverage of crises can also influence one’s destination image (Sonmez, 1998). Many countries spend a lot of money to build destination image because these tourist destinations depend heavily on positive images (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). Therefore, image becomes a critical factor in travel choice and tourism marketing (Bramwell & Rawding, 1996). Sonmez et al., (1999), states that persistent
terrorism, which in turn increases travel alerts and advisories, can tarnish a destination’s image of safety and attractiveness as well as jeopardize a country’s entire tourism industry.

Travelers’ risk perceptions about their personal safety have a major impact on the patterns of tourist decision making (Seabra et al., 2013). Safety should be recognized as one of the most fundamental conditions for the development of tourism destinations (Fletcher & Morakabati, 2008) because unsafe destinations will have difficulties in attracting tourists (Beirman, 2003; George, 2003; Prideaux, 1996) and a negative image due to the perceived lack of security may seriously damage the local tourism industry (Goodrich, 2002; Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Pizam, 2002). It is therefore important to analyze the influence that the perceived risk of terrorism may have on the decision to purchase travel services, especially international travel services (Seabra et al., 2014).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Terrorist activities have increased in many regions in the recent past and the term “terrorism” gained a lot more weight and international attention after the September 11th terrorist attack in New York City in 2001 which killed approximately 2,800 people (Boscarino, 2003). This caused massive destruction and had an adverse economic impact on the North American region. The incident had an immediate dramatic effect on both outbound and inbound tourism in North America with tourist departures and arrivals falling by 20% and 33% respectively during the final four months of that year (King, 2010).

Specifically, terrorism is considered by many to be increasing in Sub-Saharan Africa (Perry, 2011). Cilliers (2010), states that “the opportunities that Africa presents to international terrorists are limitless where multi-national companies and donor agencies are numerous making Africa a victim to a pattern of attacks.” According to Sausmarez (2013), creating a secure and enabling environment for tourism to flourish may present a challenge for countries in Africa. Sonmez (1998), states that countries struggling with hunger, disease, socio-economic and environmental problems further complicated by population growth have a combination of challenges that may nurture terrorism. Terrorist organizations can easily recruit members by offering better conditions to people living in undesirable circumstances in underdeveloped nations.
According to Koroma (2011), to completely eradicate terrorism is physically impossible. Terrorism just like any other crime committed, steps are taken to prevent the crime from occurring but there are not enough resources such as funds and manpower to eliminate terrorist threats completely. However, it is necessary to bring into attention the impact terrorism has on the tourism industry. While there has been an increased amount of research on the phenomenon of terrorism and how it affects society in the last decade, Llorca-Vivero (2008) argues that this topic still remains relatively unexplored.

Despite the increase in research especially post September 11th, no study has been carried out on the impact of terrorism on tourism in Kenya specifically on the effects of terrorism on tourist behavior, destination image and risk perception and attitude. Thus, there is a need for more empirical research which has the potential to help identify solutions and minimize the impact of terrorism on the tourism industry.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research study was to establish the effects of terrorism on international tourists who have visited Kenya.

1.4 Research Questions

1.4.1 What is the effect of terrorism on tourist behavior?

1.4.2 What is the effect of tourists’ awareness of terrorism on destination image?

1.4.3 What is the effect of terrorism on tourist’s risk perception and attitude?

1.5 Importance of the Study

The key beneficiaries of this study include:

1.5.1 Owners of Hotels, Travel Agents and Tour Operators

The study will assist owners of hotels, travel agents and tour operators in assessing how terrorism is likely to have an impact on their businesses. This will help them formulate and
implement strategies such as increased destination marketing in order to maintain tourism demand within the country.

1.5.2 Multi-national Companies (MNC’s)

The study will benefit the multi-national companies within the country. It will help them assess how terrorism may impact their companies both in the short run and in the long run, and help them implement certain strategies in case of a security threat.

1.5.3 Academia

This study will benefit academic institutions especially those offering tourism as a course. The topic of how terrorism impacts the tourism industry can be used as a point of reference by both students and lecturers. The study is also hoped to fill an existing information gap that can be used as a point of reference by future researchers who may take interest in the topic.

1.5.4 Policy Makers

The policy makers include the Government of Kenya, Ministry of Tourism and Kenya Tourism Board. The study will bring into perspective the policy gaps in security within the tourism industry. This will in turn help to improve and formulate better policies that maintain and increase the number of tourist arrivals into the country as well as find solutions to security challenges that are affecting the sector.

1.6 Scope of the Study

This research was limited to persons who had visited Kenya in the past. The limitation of this research was the disapproval from airport authorities to collect data from international passengers departing the Jomo Kenyatta International Airport. In addition, access to international tourists in places such as hotels, tour and travel companies proved to be a challenge due to the high insecurity issues concerning terrorism within the country at the time of this research. Therefore, data was collected from international tourists of one tour operator, previous exchange students in USIU as well as international students currently residing in the USIU hostels. The timeframe of this study was from January to August 2015.
1.7 Definition of Terms

1.7.1 Tourism

Travel for recreational, leisure, family or business purposes for a limited duration (UNWTO, 2013). It is usually associated with international travel but may also refer to domestic travel where people visit places within the same country.

1.7.2 Tourist

A person traveling and staying at least 24 hours but not more than one consecutive year in any country that is not their normal place of residence for leisure, business, education and other purposes (UNWTO, 2013).

1.7.3 Terrorism

The premeditated use or threat of use of extra normal violence or brutality by sub national groups to obtain a political, religious or ideological objective through intimidation of a huge audience, usually not directly involved with the policy making that the terrorists seek to influence (Enders & Sandler, 2000).

1.7.4 Tourist Behavior

This is the study of why visitors purchase certain products and the factors that influence them in making the purchasing decisions which can assist in marketing as well as product planning and development in order to increase visitor arrivals to a certain destination (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007).

1.7.5 Destination Image

This is the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination as well as information gathered from various sources over time in order to gauge what is expected and what is being delivered by a certain destination (Crompton, 1979).
1.7.6 Risk Perception

This is a belief, attitude, subjective judgment and feeling held by an individual, group or society towards a threatening or hazardous scenario such as war, terrorism, political instability or crime (Moreira, 2008).

1.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter provides the background of the problem, the statement of the problem and the purpose of the study. It also describes the research questions that will be used to undertake the study, that is, what is the effect of terrorism on tourist behavior?; what is the effect of tourists’ awareness of terrorism on destination image?; and what is the effect of terrorism on tourist’s risk perception and attitude? It goes further to state the importance of the study, scope of the study and the definition of terms.

The second chapter provides the research questions with the help of published material. Chapter three provides the research methodology used followed by chapter four which provides the study findings. Finally, chapter five provides a summary of the study findings, discussion, conclusions and recommendations.
CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research questions using literally works of various scholars. The first section discusses the effect of terrorism on tourist behavior, followed by the effect of tourists’ awareness of terrorism on destination image and lastly the effect of terrorism on tourist’s risk perception and attitude.

2.2 Effect of Terrorism on Tourist Behavior

Consumer behavior remains one of the most researched areas in the tourism field with the terms ‘travel behavior’ or ‘tourist behavior’ typically used to describe this area of inquiry (Cohen et al., 2013). Even though this is the case, few comprehensive reviews of literature on consumer behavior concepts and models exist in the field of tourism (Cohen et al., 2013). This is not only due to the extensive breadth of the topic area itself but also because travel behavior is generally considered a continuous process that includes varied yet intercorrelated stage and concepts that cannot always be analyzed separately (Mill & Morrison, 2002). According to Swarbrooke and Horner (2007), tourist behavior is a study of why visitors purchase certain products and the factors that influence them in making the purchasing decisions.

![Figure 2.1: Model of Consumer Behavior for International Tourists Visiting Kenya](source: Sonmez & Graefe (1998); Kotler, Bowen & Makens (2010)}
2.2.1 Determinants of Tourist Behavior

Swarbrooke and Horner (1999) state the determinants of tourist behavior as factors that shape whether or not a potential tourist will take a holiday and what form of a holiday it will be. Tourist travel behavior will be determined by internal and external factors (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). Internal factors are based on their knowledge of destinations and tourism products, their attitude and perceptions, as well as their experience of past holidays. External factors are based on views of family and friends, political factors, media, tourism organization marketing as well as outside sources such as government and global economic conditions (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). The extent to which the behavior of a tourist is influenced by internal and external factors differs from one person to another (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). Destination risk is one of the factors that determine destination choice in developed countries whereas language, fashion and distance are some of the major factors affecting destination choice of a tourist in developing countries (Eilat & Einav, 2004).

Moutinho (2000) identifies personal, social, cultural and psychological factors that can determine a tourist’s destination choice. Personal factors include age, life cycle stage, occupation, economic circumstances, lifestyle and personality. Social factors include family, reference groups and status. Tourist behavior is gradually determined by cultural factors which consist of culture, sub-culture and social class. Cultural norms have an impact on tourists’ expectations as well as their perceptions of service quality (Moutinho, 2000). People from different cultural backgrounds have different image perceptions of a destination. Psychological factors include perception, learning, beliefs and attitudes (Moutinho, 2000).

According to Pizam and Mansfeld (2006), the experience of a tourist and the satisfaction derived from an area are major determinants of destination choice. When visitors experience a good time in a particular area, they develop a good perception about it which in turn becomes a destination choice; where they can influence their friends and relatives to visit as well. The satisfaction that a visitor obtains from a certain destination plays a vital role in determining whether the visitor will return to that area in future. Consequently, this may also determine whether the person can recommend the destination to friends and relatives for future holidays (Pizam & Mansfeld, 2006).
2.2.2 Travel Motivation of Tourists

Motivation can be defined as the factors which make tourists want to purchase a particular product or service (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007). Motivation is a fundamental reason for a particular traveling behavior and plays a vital role in understanding the decision making process of tourists as well as assessing the subsequent satisfaction of tourist’s expectations (Snepenger et al., 2006). Motivation can be described as a driving force that makes us move and gives direction to the behavior (Solomon, 2004). Pearce et al. (1998), defined tourist motivation as “the global integrating network of biological and cultural forces which gives value and direction to travel choices, behavior and experience”. Once an individual has the right motivation to travel, the type of holiday and destination is often decided based on the tourists perception or value of various options in the marketplace (Prebensen, 2007).

According to (Bowen & Clarke, 2009), tourist behavior is a complex matter and there still is no universally agreed concept of tourist motivation. Understanding specific tourist motivations can help better plan tourist products and services as well as develop visitor attractions. Maslow’s hierarchy of needs was originally developed for clinical psychology but due to its simplicity, it has been adapted in various areas of study such as tourism (Cooper et al. 2008) Maslow’s motivation theory contains the hierarchy model which includes physiological needs, safety needs, belonging needs, esteem needs and self-actualization. According to Maslow (1943), human demands do not have ending points but will raise other needs once the present ones have been satisfied. He proposed that if none of the needs in the hierarchy was satisfied, then the lowest needs would dominate behavior. However, if these needs were fulfilled, an individual would be motivated by the next level of hierarchy (Cooper et al. 2008).

Therefore, using Maslow’s motivation theory, a tourist who chooses to travel overseas for health related reasons is said to be travelling for survival-related needs. Taking time off from work in order to visit family and friends can be seen as fulfilling both physiological and belonging needs. The fear of visiting an area that is not safe is related to safety needs. Visiting destinations which are appreciated and recommended by the tourist’s peers or sub group can boost the tourist’s self-esteem. In addition, educational and cultural trips can
provide an opportunity for personal growth which leads to self-actualization (Holloway, 2004).

According to Swarbrooke and Horner (2007), members of the Greek and Roman elites traveled in order to increase their knowledge of the world. Nowadays, the phenomenon of traveling to learn can be seen, for instance, in student exchange and special interest holidays where a tourist’s motivation for taking a trip is to learn something new (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2007). College-age students travel more than generations before them did. With increased choices in transportation and decreased prices of air travel, opportunities for students to explore the world have been made easier (Shoham, Schrage & Van Eeden, 2004).

The motive to travel is a response of what a tourist is lacking yet desires (Dann, 1996). Dicher (1985) goes further to state that tourists can be seen as searchers motivated by a desire to discover oneself and psychological mobility. Moutinho (2000), states that a tourist’s motivation to travel is determined by social factors and is based on tourist’s expectations. He further distinguishes motivations as either general or specific where general motivations imply that people travel for many reasons of which people are often not fully aware of and specific travel motivations are related to images on personal experience, knowledge, advice from friends, travel intermediaries and information from mass media (Moutinho, 2000).

According to Swarbrooke and Horner (1999), the six main factors that motivate people to travel to a certain destination include physical motivation, emotional motivation, personal motivation, personal development as well as status and cultural motivations. Physical motive is the need for relaxation; emotion motive is longing for a certain place or nostalgia; personal motivation is the need for visiting friends and relatives or making new friends; personal development is the motive to increase ones knowledge; status motive is the desire for exclusivity or fashion and cultural motivation is the motive to discover new cultures. People travel for many reasons in order to satisfy their needs which in turn influence their choices of destination. Hence motivations are the factors that affect people’s choices of destinations in different ways (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999).

Josiam et al., (1998) makes a further distinction in motivation with the push and pull theory where tourists are pushed by motivation into decision making and pulled by a destination’s
characteristics. The push factors are more general and encourage the need to travel whereas the pull factors are destination specific attributes that can determine the destination choice. The push motivation can be explained as the desire for escape, relaxation, prestige, health and fitness, adventure and social interaction. In contrast, pull motivation is determined by a destinations attractions e.g. sandy beaches, national museums, parks and game reserves and traditional culture (Josiam et al., 1998).

2.2.3 Travel Behavior of Tourists

Tourists are becoming increasingly demanding in their travel behavior which makes the study more complex (Seabra et al., 2014). This is mostly because tourism being a service, the tourist does not receive anything tangible in return for his investment (Seabra et al., 2007). Tourists are rational consumers and make decisions by weighing the benefits against the costs (Enders & Sandler, 1991). Hartz (1989), states that the risk of terrorism causes tourists to modify their behavior during travel to risky destinations. Terrorist attacks increases the chances that a tourist will substitute one destination with another that is perceived as safe (Gu & Martin, 1992). In addition, the level of previous international experience influences a tourist’s reaction to terrorism.

Baker (2014), states that many scholars in the tourism industry today advocate that being safe on vacation is an expected requirement for any visitor in a tourist destination or city. Thus, it has been observed that destinations that develop an unsafe reputation can be substituted by alternative destinations or cities that are perceived as safer for tourists. Sonmez (1998) argues that some tourists are likely to generalize conflict to entire regions. This is known as the ‘generalization effect’ which explains why some tourists presume that neighboring countries are risky even though they are not directly affected by terrorism. On the other hand, Drakos and Kutan (2003) concluded that following a terrorist attack, neighboring countries may be considered as immediate destination substitutes but there will always be a negative impact on tourism demand for the wider region.

According to Enders, Sandler and Parise (1992), tourists reacted to terrorism incidents after a period of six to nine months. Pizam and Fleisher (2002) on the other hand, state that a severe terrorist attack will depress tourism demand immediately. According to Narayan (2004), the
negative impact of terrorism may only be temporary and a tourist destination is likely to rebound from the terrorist shock. However, the frequency of terrorist attacks is more important than the severity of an attack in order to determine whether tourists will travel to a particular destination. Yechiam et al., (2005), argues that the impact of frequent terrorist attacks on international travelers is more than on domestic travelers.

2.2.4 Travel Experience

The tourism industry is in the business of selling experiences (Li, 2000). Thus, the revenue of tourism businesses can only be assured when they provide exciting and pleasant experiences to tourists (Kim, 2010). This is mainly because customers’ experiences significantly affect their satisfaction and their evaluations of a particular service (Otto & Ritchie, 1996; Kim, 2010). In addition, people develop recognition of a company, brand, product or service only after experiencing activities that stimulate them (Schmitt, 1999). Experiences are characterized as intangible, ever-fleeting and continuously on-going. Hence, if they are not remembered by a customer and retrieved during the decision making process, then it may be hard for destination managers to expect positive consequences for providing tourist experiences (Kim, 2010).

Many people wrongly believe that they already possess adequate knowledge and information to make an informed choice (Alba et al., 1991). Thus, they are often less motivated to actively search for information instead they rely heavily on previous experiences to make a decision. In tourism literature, researchers have emphasized the importance of providing memorable experiences as memory is the single most important source of information for a tourist to decide whether he or she would visit a location (Kozak, 2001; Kim, 2010). The internet is also becoming an important and convenient electronic media for travelers to share their travel experiences online with family members, friends and the general public via email messages, using social media as well as publishing travel blogs (Chandralal, 2015).

Past travel experience to specific destinations has been shown to increase the intention to travel there again thus enhances feelings of safety (Weavar et al., 2007). Potential tourists have limited knowledge about the attributes of a particular destination with which they have no experience (Um & Crompton, 1990, Weavar et al., 2007) while previous visits affect the
familiarity with the destination which in turn can result in accepting or rejecting a destination in a choice set (Crompton, 1992; Weavar et al., 2007). Similarly, Huang and Hsu (2009) state that past travel experience can influence tourist attitude both positively and negatively. Furthermore, once a destination has been visited, travelers are more likely to perceive the destination as safer to return to in the future (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998).

Based on Maslow’s model, Pearce (1988) presented an idea that an individual’s travel motivation changes with the individuals travel experience. According to this framework known as the travel career ladder (TCL), the needs or motivations of travelers are organized in a hierarchy and when tourists become more experienced, they seek satisfaction of higher level needs.

For example, Ryan (2002) states that those travelling abroad for the first time may prefer the security of a package tour but with time when their travel careers have developed, they may organize the whole trip independently. However, Ryan (2002) has criticized this model as over simple in that it assumes that motives are single rather than multiple for any holiday. For example, in mature markets, young tourists may not necessarily experience a holiday for relaxation only, but may be vacationing for self-esteem and fulfillment through the influence of their parents (Kim, 2010).

2.3 Effect of Tourists’ Awareness of Terrorism on Destination Image

Destination image is formed by gathering information about a destination from various sources over time (Leisen, 2001). There is a difference in destination image formation between those tourists that have first-hand information and experience and those who are first-time or potential visitors. The tourists who have travelled to a certain destination before use their experience to form the destination image whereas the potential visitors gather information provided by travel agencies, internet, television as well as educational sources (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). An occurrence such as a crisis, natural disaster or terrorist attack may not only damage a destinations infrastructure but may also jeopardize its image as a safe place to visit hence have a devastating effect on tourism demand and consumer confidence (de Sausmarez, 2004).
2.3.1 Formation of Destination Image

Several researchers have defined image as a set of beliefs, ideas and impressions that people have of a place or destination (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). Image is a mental representation of an object or place before someone observes or visits (Fridgen, 1987). Image also refers to an impression of a destination to tourists and an important factor that drives tourists’ decision making (Dichter, 1985). Worcester (1997) states that destination image is the concept that people know, believe, think, feel, impress and experience about the destination whether tourists visit or not. Pizam (1999) defines destination image as a mixture of three components, that is, the product such as attractions, the behavior and attitude of employees who come in direct contact with the tourist and the environment such as weather, scenery and physical safety. Kim (1998) proposed that a destination could be perceived as a uniquely complex product of the tourism industry comprising of factors such as climate, infrastructure, service, natural and cultural attributes.

Destination image influences a tourist’s decision to travel, perceptions and behaviors at a destination as well as the overall satisfaction (Chon, 1990). Scholars agreed that destination image consists of two basic components, that is, organic and induced image (Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). The organic image derives from general knowledge about a place and usually cannot be controlled by destination marketers (Tasci & Garner, 2007); it is developed from information sources such as mass media, popular culture and schooling; and is the accumulation of a person’s perceptions toward a place over a long period of time (Gunn, 1988; Wang et al., 2014). The induced image on the other hand is a consequence of exposure to advertisements and guidebooks from destination promoters (Gartner, 1993).

According to Fakeye and Crompton (1991), the organic image directly influences the motivations to travel which further pushes the active information search and formation of induced image. Hankinson (2004) further explained that destination images belong to a continuum that begins with organic images which are formed over a substantial period of time and represent the totality of what a person perceives about a destination from newspapers, radio, television news, documentaries, periodicals, non-fictional books as well as classes on geography and history. Therefore, the organic image is a foundation for induced
image and eventually the formation of destination image (Wang et al., 2014). Similarly, Chon (1992) argues that before tourists travel to a destination, they develop an image and a set of expectations based on previous experience, word of mouth, advertising, the media as well as common beliefs.

According to (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999), destination image is an important factor in understanding the destination selection process and has a vital role in tourists’ destination choice as tourists typically choose the destination with the most favorable image to them. There is a broad consensus that as image becomes more positive, the probability of destination choice increases (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Leisen, 2001).

2.3.2 Impact of Media on Destination Image

A number of studies explored the effects of media portrayal on the formation of destination image (Wang et al., 2014). In the daily media environment which people are exposed to, the mass media is one of the major sources that influences people’s perceptions and opinions (McCombs & Shaw, 1972; Wang et al., 2014). Porter (2011) defines the mass media as organizations that use technological channels to disseminate messages for the purpose of attracting an increasingly large audience and conditioning those audiences for repeated exposure so as to increase ones resources such that the enterprise becomes self-supporting. Since the mass media is a cost effective means of communicating in the society, it has a number of consequences on individuals, institutions, society and culture because the messages are spread quicker (McQuail, 1982; Wang et al., 2014).

The reports in the mass media are representations of a destination and the quantity of these reports can significantly influence tourism demand (Stepchenkova & Eales, 2011). Furthermore, mass media can influence the level of familiarity with the destination, that the higher the familiarity the more positive the image (Baloglu, 2001). Seabra et al., (2014), states that in the 1980’s, some authors predicted terrorist attacks would become more indiscriminate; and that the world would witness more terrorism than at any other time in history partly due to the capacity and interest of the media to cover terrorist incidents (Atkinson, Sandler, & Tschirhart, 1987). The media coverage that terrorism attracts has the potential to shape the induced image individuals have of destinations (Sonmez, 1998).
The media has a very important relationship with tourism as it acts as a significant influence on the image of potential tourist destinations. The extensive media coverage exaggerates dangers and tends to distort realities (Hall & O’Sullivan, 1996). Dramatic images of death and destruction are transmitted instantly around the world, communicating fear and uncertainty. Planned vacations are likely to be cancelled and tourists are likely to substitute destinations they believe to be safer (Henderson, 2004). There may be differences in behavior related to cultural background although considerations of personal safety usually play an important part in destination choice (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998).

Terrorists use mass communications to transmit their message to the largest possible audience since media base their information activity on real time transmission in times of a crisis (O’Connor, Stafford & Gallagher, 2008). According to Seabra et al., (2014), media transmit news to the public during times of crisis which reflects on the media’s market success; the majority of the audience considers negative reports much more interesting than positive news. The media does understand this phenomenon and consequently tends to explore the negative aspects of reality (Cavlek, 2002) thus any terrorist act is bound to immediately enter into the global domain (Sonmez, 1998).

As a consequence, the media coverage on terrorist attacks transforms the public image held on tourism and in particular international travel (Sonmez, 1998). The power of media may even change pre-existing images and attitudes. This power is as a result of mass communication being the only source of information available to the audience (Seabra et al., 2014). Tourists reveal a high level of interest and dedicate considerable attention to news regarding terrorism and therefore retain information about this type of events (Jin, 2003). This constant media attention prolongs the process of restoring tourists’ confidence to travel (O’Connor et al., 2008).

Tourist destinations depend heavily on positive images and therefore image becomes a critical factor in travel choice and tourism marketing (Bramwell & Rawding, 1996). Sonmez (1998) states that even though the media and terrorists have different motives, they both unite to aid each other in the effort to communicate with the audience. This means the media gains higher ratings while the terrorists achieve their goal of publicity (Sonmez, 1998).
Kenya has had its fair share on terrorism attacks some of which directly targeted tourists. In August 1998, the al-Qaeda network simultaneously executed twin attacks in Tanzania and Kenya, targeting the US Embassy which was severely damaged and the news spread throughout the world via the media. A few Americans and over two hundred Kenyans lost their lives while thousands more were injured. As a result, hotels in Kenya received numerous cancellations (Kuto & Groves, 2004). A September 2013 insurgent attack on the Westgate Shopping Mall in Nairobi also made international headlines. Approximately 67 people from nearly a dozen countries around the world were killed in the incident. This reiterated the perception of Kenya as a hub for terrorism, violent extremism and factionalism. In addition, frequent small scale attacks in the country demonstrate the fact that the surrounding threats to regional security act as a prediction for future problems (Aronson, 2013).

2.3.2.1 The Link between Terrorism and the Media

According to Chermak & Gruenewald (2006), the public relies heavily on news media for information about terrorism. For example, after the September 11th attack, more people watched replays and live broadcasting of the terrorist incident. This marked a defining moment in media coverage of terrorism as the most watched production ever (Nacos, 2003). Although there is a considerable debate among scholars about the influence of the media on public attitudes, most scholars agree the media plays some vital role and that the media’s influence increases as the public’s direct experience with a problem decreases (Chermak & Gruenewald, 2006). Thus, the media has a strong potential to influence how the public thinks about social problems like terrorism especially since most people only experience terrorism through mass media accounts.

Terrorist acts such as bombings, kidnappings, assassinations, hijackings and nuclear threats can satisfy multiple objectives for terrorists. This includes the realization of their cause, funding, strengthening morale, recruitment, revenge, liberation of comrades, spreading fear and publicity (Nacos, 2003). For groups who think that their concerns are being ignored, terrorism becomes a persuasive vehicle of communication (Nacos, 2002).
further stresses how coverage brings status to a terrorist group and is an opportunity to recruit members and disseminate ideas.

Most scholars highlight this symbiotic relationship between the media and terrorists, assuming that terrorists attempt to capitalize on the power of the media and the media needs dramatic and sensational events to increase ratings (Nacos, 2002). Similarly, (Sonmez, 1998) states that terrorism is a symbolic event but also a performance which is staged for the benefit of the media. The broadcast media, especially television and the internet, are an ideal platform for the exciting performances of terrorism. Even though the media and terrorists may have different motives, they unite to aid each other in the effort to communicate with the audience.

2.3.2 Impact of Travel Advisories on Destination Image

Government issued travel advisories have the potential to negatively influence tourism (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998). Specifically, if the government of an important travel market issues a travel advisory, the affected destination could experience serious disruptions in arrivals from that market (Beirman, 2003). Although not legally binding, citizens consider travel advisories to be authoritative statements from the government about the inherent risks in traveling to destinations. A distinguishing facet about travel advisories is that they cannot be easily disputed publicly making it almost impossible to persuade government to revoke their advisory (Beirman, 2003).

The double standards which operate in the course of issuing government travel warnings were clearly illustrated following the terrorist attack on the Israeli owned Paradise Hotel in Mombasa on November, 2002 (Bianchi, 2006). A car bomb was detonated on the lobby steps of the hotel killing approximately 13 and injuring 80 tourists (Kuto & Groves, 2004). Due to imminent terror alerts from intelligence, Western governments led by the United States, Britain and a number of European countries issued travel advisories to all their citizens against traveling to Kenya later in 2003 (Kuto & Groves, 2004). Later in May, 2003, British Airways was urged to suspend all flights to the country. This in turn triggered fears in the hospitality industry with tourism suffering a setback due to a drop in the number of incoming tourists (Kuto & Groves, 2004). These travel warnings were only re-instated in September,
2003 when the US and UK governments further implemented numerous anti-terror and security measures which increased the financial burden of a country that was already suffering considerable financial losses from the travel ban (Bianchi, 2006).

Currently, more than three thousand hotel workers in Lamu County are jobless following the closure of six beach hotels (Ringa, 2015). According to the Lamu Tourist Association, the resorts shut down due to lack of international guests mostly due to the terrorism threats issued by terror group Al-Shabaab. In addition, more than forty hotels have been shut down in resort towns of Malindi, Watamu and Diani. Travel advisories issued by the United Kingdom, the United States, France and Australia in May 2014 have also contributed to the tourism slump in the region. Shortly after the travel advisories were issued, more than five hundred British tourists were evacuated from the South Coast and other parts of the region. Subsequently, almost all European charted airlines pulled out of the Mombasa route triggering an international tourist drought (Ringa, 2015).

According to Bianchi (2006), travel advisories are often heavily politicized rather than being objective catalogues of security threats. The best known international example would be Cuba where travel by US citizens has been highly restricted as a result of prolonged US government ideological hostility towards Fidel Castro’s communist government (Bianchi, 2006). The US has also advised against travel to the Philippines even when it has been relatively safe; less out of fear for tourists’ safety but rather due to the fact that the Philippines government failed to renew the US Bases Treat (Richter, 1995).

Paradoxically, travel advisories may also underestimate risk in places which are of less geopolitical concern but where tourists may face genuine dangers (Bianchi, 2006). However, governments do recognize that their own actions of putting up travel advisories may serve to ignite local animosity towards foreign visitors as well as intensify the level of risk towards their citizen’s overseas (Bianchi, 2006).

2.4 Effect of Terrorism on Tourist’s Risk Perception and Attitude

Risk perceptions are specific to each situation (Dowling, 1986; Gemunden, 1985) and differences exist between perceived risks for physical goods compared to services (Havlena
Purchasing tourism services implies a higher level of perceived risk because of tourism's intangible nature (Hugstad, Taylor & Bruce, 1987). Perceptions held by tourists about destinations can affect their choices and travel behavior (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991). According to Schiffman and Kanuk (2004), consumers typically perceive what they are expecting usually based on familiarity, previous experience, values and motivations. Therefore, destinations perceived as being safer may be preferred and those perceived as being unsafe or risky maybe rejected (Beirman, 2002).

**2.4.1 Perceived Risk in Travel**

Globalization of tourism has led to its expansion at an international level (Levitt, 1983). Thus the tourism industry is currently also confronted with an increased amount of global risks (Seabra et al., 2014). Crises of minor scale in one part of the world may trigger strong repercussions in other localities (Ritchie, 2004). Seabra et al., (2014) states that tourism crises are most often caused by incidents that affect the reputation of safety, comfort and attractiveness of destinations. In case of a crisis, there may be a drop in local tourism industry by a reduction of tourist arrivals (Sonmez et al., 1999). For example after the September 11th terrorist attacks, the tourism industry felt severe aftershocks, namely in income generation and job creation worldwide (Floyd & Pennington-Gray, 2004).

Safety concerns strongly influence tourists’ decision-making processes (Beirman, 2003). Travelers select destinations that best match their needs, offer the most benefits and have the lowest possible costs or risks (Seabra et al., 2013). If a tourist feels insecure or threatened at a specific destination, an overall negative impression is likely to result (George, 2003). Crompton (1992) states that during the decision making process, tourists compare destinations according to perceived costs and perceived benefits. Some destinations maybe eliminated from the decision making process due to their potential costs or perceived risks attached to that destination, especially if it is associated with negative media images of terrorist threats (Sonmez, 1998).

According to Moutinho (1987), tourists plan and save money over a long period of time to be able to travel hence deal with high level of perceived risk due to personal investment of time,
effort and money. This in turn encourages them to have a greater level of involvement in the
decision making, selection and purchase process of such products (Gursoy & Gavcar, 2003).

According to Sonmez (1998), tourists compare costs and benefits when choosing a tourist
destination and generally do not travel to seek risk. Costs can include holiday expenses but
also psychological, social and time costs. In addition, costs can be related to risks associated
with the holiday such as accidents, sickness or terrorism (Enders & Sandler, 1991). Therefore
the threat of terrorism at a certain destination will cause it to be perceived as more risky than
a safer destination without that threat (Sonmez & Grawe, 1998).

Risk is perceived as negative, a threat or possible disaster to be avoided when on holidays
(Law, 2006). Bauer (1967) states that individuals respond to risk that they perceive
subjectively, even if not existing in reality and it is this perception that will influence actions
and behaviors. According to Seabra et al., (2014), most studies in the terrorism area conclude
that terrorist activity in a particular destination increases the level of perceived risk and thus
has negative effects on tourism demand and further reflects a decline in visitation patterns.
Sonmez (1998), states that the danger threat associated with terrorism or political instability
deters more tourists than any other natural or human disaster.

Sonmez et al., (1999) argues that fear of terrorism is irrational and the probability of a tourist
being involved in a terrorist incident in minimal. However, physical threats, real or
perceived, are enough to influence the individuals decisions (Seabra et al., 2014). Spilerman
and Stecklov (2009), state that the psychological impact of terror may have less to do with its
destructive power than with its ability to evoke fear and anxiety.

2.4.2 Risk Perception of Tourists

Seddighi et al., (2001) state that risk perception associated with international tourism varies
according to nationality of tourists. Literature demonstrates a link between risk perception
and an individual’s national culture (Kozak et al., 2007; Money & Crofts, 2003). Hofstede’s
(2001) dimensions of culture, that is, power distance, individualism, masculinity, and
uncertainty avoidance are the most widely used; where uncertainty avoidance and power
distance influence differences in risk taking among different cultures (Money & Crofts,
2003). Individuals from a low uncertainty avoidance cultures are risk tolerant meaning they are more comfortable with situations involving uncertainty and risk whereas high uncertainty avoidance cultures are more risk avoiding. Therefore, visitors from high uncertainty avoidance national cultures are more worried about perceived risk of terrorism (Kozak et al., 2007).

According to Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992), tourists are classified into three groups based on their perception of risk, that is, risk neutral, functional risk and place risk. The risk neutral group did not consider their destination to involve any risk giving more emphasis to the need of adventure when on holiday. The functional risk group considered the possibility of mechanical, equipment or organizational problems as the major source of tourism related risk. The place risk group on the other hand perceived holidays as fairly risky and the destination of their most recent holiday as very risky. The risk neutral group frame uncertainty or risk as part of excitement of tourism which is contrary to what Sonmez and Graefe (1998) state that risk perception was a stronger predictor of avoiding a particular region rather than of planning to visit one.

According to Sonmez and Graefe (1998), past experience has a significant impact on tourism decisions with the experienced international tourists perceiving less risk. Pearce (1988) explained this relationship using Maslow’s (1943) hierarchy of needs; stating that tourists with more travel experience seek to satisfy higher order needs whilst tourists with less travel experience are more likely to be concerned with lower order needs such as food and safety. In addition, Pearce (1988) noted a link between travel career and life stage assuming older tourists maybe more experienced.

Sonmez and Graefe (1998) discovered that age and gender did not influence a person’s perception of risk. However Gibson and Yiannakis (2002) found that the preference for risk related tourism tended to decrease with age. In addition, gender did not influence destination choice. Sonmez and Graefe (1998) also discovered that while individuals with higher education and income levels had favorable attitudes towards international travel, demographic variables alone were not adequate predictors of risk perception related to travel.
2.4.3 Tourist Decision Making and Destination Choice

Sonmez and Graefe (1998) state that risk perception in tourism is associated with the issue of safety in travel and results in an impact on tourists travel decision and destination choice. Similarly, Richter and Waugh (1986), state that risk perception has a significant impact on destination choice; and risks which carry high costs such as terrorism appear to cause serious consumer reactions. Viscusi and Zeckhauser (2003) state that tourists tend to predict worst case scenarios when assessing terrorism risks in their decision making. In addition they focus on the frightening consequences of a terrorist attack rather than on the probability it will actually occur (Sunstein, 2003).

According to Sonmez et al., (1999), when tourists perceive travel to be less pleasurable due to actual or perceived risks, they exercise their freedom to select other destinations. Travel statistics from around the world clearly suggest that tourism decreases as the perception of risks associated with a destination increases (Sonmez et al., 1999; Floyd & Gray 2004). A common finding in tourism literature is that the presence of risk, whether real or perceived, influences the travel decision making process (Mawby, 2000).

Destination choice is made after constraints such as time, budget and physical distance are weighed against destination image. Huan et al., (2006) analyzed risk perception of tourists and found that health, political instability, terrorism, cultural barriers, a nation’s political and religious dogma and crime were the main identified risk factors. On the other hand, Crompton, (1992) concluded that natural disasters such as tsunamis and hurricanes are one of the main risk factors affecting destination choice. Destinations perceived as too high risk due to situational constraints or barriers may become undesirable (Crompton, 1992).

Murphy et al., (2007) states that travelers that love risk and want adventure did not seek a lot of information but those who feared risk not only gathered information but also considered particular vacations and lodging facilities. The higher the perceived risk, the more information search occurs and the more rational decision making becomes (Maser & Weiermair, 1998). Potential tourists rely on others experiences for their decision making in an effort to decrease uncertainty and increase the exchange utility (Kotler, Bowen & Maken, 2010).
According to Sonmez et al., (1999), a tourist’s decision to stay home or choose safer destinations is translated into significant losses for the tourism industry of the country suffering from terrorism. People planning their holidays are less likely to choose a destination with higher threat of terrorist attacks. Host countries providing tourism services which can be easily substituted are therefore negatively affected by terrorist attacks to a substantial extent (Frey et al., 2004). It is probable that tourists may postpone their visit until the situation appears to have calmed down but most likely the activity will be redirected to alternative destinations which appear to be safer. Destinations may be eliminated from the decision making process due to their potential costs or perceived risks attached to that destination, especially if associated with negative media images of terrorist threats (Sonmez & Graefe, 1998).

2.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter discusses the three research questions: Firstly, the effect of terrorism on tourist behavior further looking into the determinants of tourist behavior, travel motivation of tourists and travel experience. Secondly, the effect of tourists’ awareness of terrorism on destination image where it discusses the formation of destination image, the impact of the media and travel advisories on destination image. Thirdly, the effect of terrorism on tourist’s risk perception and attitude in terms of the perceived risk in travel, risk perception of international tourists as well as decision and destination choice of international tourists. The next chapter describes the research methodology used for this study.
CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a discussion of the research methodology that will be used in this study. It gives a description of the research design, target population, sampling design, data collection methods, research procedures and data analysis methods.

3.2 Research Design

A research design is a detailed framework or plan that helps to guide the researcher through the research process, allowing a greater likelihood of achieving the research objectives (Wilson, 2011). According to Cooper and Schindler (2001), a research design is the blueprint for fulfilling objectives and answering questions. In essence, research designs are detailed plans to focus and guide the research process.

This study adopted the descriptive research design which Wilson (2011) defines as “research carried out to describe existing or past phenomena.” It can either be qualitative or quantitative in nature. Typically, a survey is used to gather data that can later be analyzed using a range of descriptive statistics. The object of descriptive research is to gain an accurate profile of events, persons or situations (Saunders et al., 2012).

The descriptive research design was suitable for this study as it allowed description and interpretation of existing relationships and comparison of variables. The objective of this study was to find out the effects of terrorism on international tourists in Kenya. Specifically, the effect of terrorism on tourist behavior, the effect of tourists’ awareness of terrorism on destination image and the effect of terrorism on tourist’s risk perception and attitude. The study employed a survey method for collection of primary data.
3.3 Population and Sampling Design

3.3.1 Population

A population is the total of all elements that share a common set of characteristics. A group of knowledgeable people can be referred to as a population (Hair et al., 2011). According to Hair et al., (2011), the target population is the complete group of objects or elements relevant to the research project. They are relevant because they possess the information the research project is designed to collect. Other practical factors such as knowledge of the topic of interest, access to individuals or companies, availability of elements and time frame may influence the definition of the target population.

The target population for this research included previous USIU exchange students, international students who are currently residing in the USIU hostels as well as international tourists from one Tour Company. The respondents comprised of nationals from America, Europe, Asia and Africa.

Table 3.1: Total Population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population Category</th>
<th>Population Size</th>
<th>Population percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Previous USIU exchange students</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USIU International students residing in hostels</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International tourists from a Tour Operator</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.2 Sampling Design

3.3.2.1 Sampling Frame

The sampling frame is a complete list of elements from which the sample is actually drawn. Ideally it is a complete and correct list of population members only (Cooper & Schindler, 2001).

The challenge posed in this case was the lack of access to an adequate population of international tourists who had visited Kenya in the past. Therefore, the researcher constituted
the sampling frame from previous USIU exchange students, international students who are currently residing in the USIU hostels, as well as international tourists from one tour company in Kenya.

3.3.2.2 Sampling Technique

Due to the challenges mentioned above, the study used convenience sampling which is a non-probability sampling technique. Convenience sampling involves selecting cases that are easily available or most convenient to obtain by the researcher (Saunders et al., 2012). It is simply a sampling technique that is available to the researcher by virtue of its convenient accessibility and proximity. Saunders et al., (2012) also points out that samples that are seemingly chosen for convenience often meet purposive sample selection criteria that are relevant to the research aim.

In this study, convenience sampling was used to collect data from international students currently residing in the USIU hostels because of their proximity to the researcher. In addition, data was collected from previous USIU exchange students as well as international tourists from one tour company. This sampling technique was the most convenient since sending out the questionnaires electronically gave an easier access to most of the international tourists who reside abroad.

3.3.2.3 Sample Size

A sample can be defined as a relatively small subset of the population. It is drawn using either probability or non-probability procedures (Hair et al., 2011). Some of the myths concerning the right sample size advocate that the sample size must be large or it is not representative and that a sample should bear some proportional relationship to the size of the population from which it is drawn (Cooper & Schindler, 2001). In reality however, (Cooper & Schindler, 2001) argue that how large a sample should be is a function of the variation in the population parameters under study and the estimating precision needed by the researcher.

According to Sekaran (2003), as a rule of thumb, sample sizes should be thirty to five hundred in size. He also recommends that samples be broken into sub-samples of 30% for each category. Since researchers can never be 100 percent certain a sample reflects its
population, they must decide how much precision they need. Table 3.2 below shows the sample size for the study.

**Table 3.2: Sample Size**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population Category</th>
<th>Population Size</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Sample Size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Previous USIU exchange students</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USIU International students residing in hostels</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International tourists from a Tour Operator</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>409</strong></td>
<td><strong>30%</strong></td>
<td><strong>123</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4 Data Collection Methods

Choice of data collection methods depends on the degree of accuracy needed, expertise of the researcher, time span, costs and facilities available to the researcher (Sekaran, 2003). The study made use of primary and secondary sources of data for effective conclusion of the study.

Primary data refers to information obtained firsthand by the researcher for the specific purposes of the study, while secondary data refers to that information gathered from already existing sources. Secondary sources of data include government publications, statistical publications, other published or unpublished information, case studies and library records, online data, websites and the internet (Sekaran, 2003).

Primary data was collected using questionnaires that were sent out online to the respondents. The questionnaire was based on the research topic, the effects of terrorism on international tourists in Kenya. The survey questions were divided into four categories, which was in accordance with the study research questions. Part A consisted of general information of the respondents. Part B consisted of effect of terrorism on tourist behavior. Part C consisted of the effect of tourists’ awareness of terrorism on destination image and Part D consisted of the effect of terrorism on tourist’s risk perception and attitude.
3.5 Research Procedures

The questionnaire was prepared and designed based on the research questions. It was then submitted to supervisors to ensure that all the information required for the study was captured. Before the actual data was collected, the questionnaire was pretested on a small sample of 10 respondents to determine the validity and reliability. This pilot study was used to identify items in the questionnaire that were ambiguous to the respondents.

The questionnaire was then distributed to the sampled respondents via email using an online based form. The respondents included previous USIU exchange students, international students currently residing in the USIU hostels as well as international tourists of one tour company. They were assured of confidentiality for the information they provided by use of a small introductory letter attached to the questionnaire. Furthermore, the respondents were informed of the purpose and benefits of the research. The strategy used to ensure a high response rate included frequent reminders and follow-ups sent to the respondents via email.

3.6 Data Analysis Methods

The data collected from the questionnaires was checked for any inconsistencies and then summarized. Data was coded and analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) program. Furthermore, data was analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics to establish patterns, trends and relationships for easier interpretation. Inferential statistics was used for bivariate analysis, that is, Pearson correlation for interval and ratio data as well as linear regression to determine the relationship between the dependent and independent variable. The data was then presented using tables.

3.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter describes the research methodology that was used in the study. It describes the research design, target population, sampling design that is the sampling frame, sampling technique and sample size. It also describes the data collection method, research procedure and data analysis method. The next chapter provides the results and findings of the study.
CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results and findings based on the research questions of the study. The first section covers the general information which includes the gender, nationality, age group and employment status of the respondents. The second section covers the effect of terrorism on tourist behavior. The third section covers the effect of tourists’ awareness of terrorism on destination image and the final section covers the effect of terrorism on tourist’s risk perception and attitude.

4.2 General Information

4.2.1 Response Rate

Table 4.1 shows the response rate. From the table, 65% of the sampled population took part in the study while 35% of the sampled population did not take part in the study. The result implies that a significant number of the sample participated in the study.

Table 4.1: Response Rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Distribution</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participated</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-participated</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.2 Gender

Table 4.2 reveals the gender distribution of the study. From the table, 70% of the respondents are female and 30% are male. The study implies there were more female tourists than male.

Table 4.2: Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Distribution</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.3 Nationality

Table 4.3 displays the different nationalities that took part in the study. The majority of the respondents are American and Japanese with 30% each, followed by British, Ugandan and Congolese with 5% each. Malawian, Nigerian and Rwandese with 3.8% each followed by Canadian, Dutch, Irish, Zambian, Zimbabwean, Botswana, Tanzanian, South Sudanese, Somali, Guyanese and Burundian with 1.3% each.

Table 4.3: Nationality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ugandan</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congolese</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawian</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigerian</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwandese</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canadian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irish</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwean</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzanian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Sudanese</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guyanese</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>80</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.4 Age

Table 4.4 shows the age of the respondents who participated in the study. From the table, majority of the respondents are between the ages of 21-30 years with 43.8% followed by 50 and above with 33.8%, 31-40 years with 10%, below 20 years with 8.8% and lastly 41-50
years with 3.8%. This implies that most of the tourists visiting Kenya are between 21-30 years.

Table 4.4: Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Distribution</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 20 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30 years</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40 years</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 and above</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.5 Employment Status

Table 4.5 displays the employment status of the respondents. From the table, 41.3% of the respondents are employed, 36.3% are students, 7.5% are self-employed, 7.5% are unemployed and 7.5% are retired. Therefore the majority of the respondents are employed.

Table 4.5: Employment Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment status</th>
<th>Distribution</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3 Effect of Terrorism on Tourist Behavior

4.3.1 Reasons for Visiting Kenya

Table 4.6 shows the main reasons for the respondents’ visit to Kenya. 46.3% of the respondents visited Kenya for education purposes, 32.5% for rest and relaxation, 28.7% for charity support, 18.8% were visiting relatives and friends, 15% for business and 5% for other reasons such as adventure and culture.
### Table 4.6: Reasons for Visiting Kenya

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for visiting Kenya</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Percent of Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rest and Relaxation</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
<td>32.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting relatives and friends</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12.8%</td>
<td>18.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>31.6%</td>
<td>46.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charity support</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>19.7%</td>
<td>28.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>117</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>146.3%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 4.3.2 Frequency of Visits to Kenya

Table 4.7 shows a cross tabulation between the number of times the respondents visited Kenya and with whom they visited with. Of the respondents who visited alone, 31.3% was once, 25% was two to four times and 43.8% was more than five times. Of the respondents who visited with family, 54.2% was once, 16.7% was two-four times and 29.2% was more than five times. Of the respondents who visited with friends, 62.1% was once, 13.8% was two to four times and 24.1% was more than five times. Of the respondents who visited with a tour group, 68% was once, 4% was two to four times and 28% was more than five times. Of the respondents who visited with business partners, 100% was more than five times.

### Table 4.7: Frequency of Visits to Kenya

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>With whom</th>
<th>How many times visited Kenya</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Once</td>
<td>2-4 times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alone</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31.3%</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>54.2%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>62.1%</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tour group</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>68.0%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business partners</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>42</strong></td>
<td><strong>13</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3.3 Source of Information on Kenya as a Tourist Destination

Table 4.8 shows the respondents’ sources of information on Kenya as a tourist destination. 41.3% of the respondents heard of Kenya from friends and relatives, 36.3% already knew of it, 22.5% from the internet, 15% from the media and 8.8% from other sources such as tourism fairs and exhibitions, and foreign universities.

Table 4.8: Source of Information on Kenya

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Where heard of Kenya</th>
<th>Percent of Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends and relatives</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Already knew of it</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>99</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.4 Reasons for International Travel

Table 4.9 shows the respondents’ reasons for traveling internationally. Majority 71.3% travel for holiday purposes, 38.8% for education, 25% for business, 7.5% for charity support, 5% for other reasons such as adventure and culture and 1.3% for medical reasons.

Table 4.9: Reasons for International Travel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for international travel</th>
<th>Percent of Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holiday</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charity support</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>119</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3.5 Frequency of International Travel

Table 4.10 shows a cross tabulation between the frequency of international travel of the respondents and how soon they would visit an area affected by a terrorist attack. Of the respondents who would visit an area affected by a terrorist attack immediately, 33.3% travel internationally once a year, 16.7% twice a year and 50% several times a year. Of the respondents who would visit an area affected by a terrorist after several months, 36% travel internationally once a year, 24% twice a year, 16% several times a year, 20% every few years and 4% never.

Of the respondents who would visit a terrorist attack after a few years, 44.4% travel internationally once a year, 22.2% twice a year and 33.3% every few years. Of the respondents who are not sure, 18.4% travel internationally once a year, 10.5% twice a year, 34.2% several times a year, 34.2% every few years and 2.6% never. Of the respondents who would never visit an area affected by a terrorist attack, 100% travel internationally several times a year.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How soon would visit area affected by terrorist attack</th>
<th>Frequency of international travel</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Once a year</td>
<td>Twice a year</td>
<td>Several times a year</td>
<td>Every few years</td>
<td>Never</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immediately</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After several months</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36.0%</td>
<td>24.0%</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After a few years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>44.4%</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18.4%</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
<td>34.2%</td>
<td>34.2%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27.5%</td>
<td>16.3%</td>
<td>27.5%</td>
<td>26.3%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3.6 Relationship between Frequency of International Travel and Intended Visit to a Terrorism Targeted Area

Table 4.11 shows that the number of times the respondents have traveled internationally correlates with how soon they would visit an area affected by a terrorist attack at ($r = 0.247^*, p<0.05, N= 80$). This implies that tourists with more travel experience are likely to visit an area affected by a terrorist attack.

Table 4.11: International Travel Correlation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Frequency of international travel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visit to a terrorism targeted area</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

4.3.7 Tourism Regions Visited in Kenya

Table 4.12 shows the places that the respondents have visited in Kenya. The South Rift was the most frequently visited with 60%, followed by the North Rift with 56.3% and the Coast with 55%. Only 38.8% of the respondents visited Central Kenya, 30% visited Western Kenya, 21.3% visited Eastern Kenya and 11.3% visited North Eastern Kenya.

Table 4.12: Tourism Regions Visited in Kenya

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Places visited in Kenya</th>
<th>Percent of Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coast</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Rift Valley</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Rift Valley</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Eastern</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>218</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.4 Effect of Tourists’ Awareness of Terrorism on Destination Image

4.4.1 Tracking News on Terrorist Attacks

Table 4.13 shows a cross tabulation between age and how often the respondents follow news on terrorist attacks. From the table, majority 46.2% of the respondents aged 21-30 always follow the news on terrorist attacks, followed by 38.5% aged 50 and above, 7.7% below 20 years, 5.1% aged 41-50 years and 2.6% aged 31-40 years.

**Table 4.13: Frequency of News Tracks on Terrorist Attacks**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Frequency of News Tracks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 20 years</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30 years</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40 years</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50 years</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 and above</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4.2 Sources of Information on Terrorism

Table 4.14 shows the extent to which the respondents turn to different media for credible information on terrorism. Majority of the respondents, 53.8% always sought such information from the internet, while 43% used TV and 38% used newspapers as a source moderately. Radio was the least used medium with 35% of the respondents not using it at all.
Table 4.14: Sources of Information on Terrorism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>TV</th>
<th>Radio</th>
<th>Newspaper</th>
<th>Internet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not at All</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Little</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extremely</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4.3 Frequency of Cancellation of Travel Plans due to News of a Terrorist Attack

Table 4.15 shows a cross tabulation between whether news of a terrorist attack has ever made one cancel or postpone their trip and the frequency of cancellation or postponement. Majority 70% of the respondents has never cancelled or postponed their travel plans while 30% of the respondents has ever cancelled or postponed their travel plans due to news of a terrorist attack. Of the respondents who have cancelled or postponed their travel plans, 15% have done it once and the other 15% have done it two to four times.

Table 4.15: Frequency of Cancelled or Postponed Travel Plans

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cancelled/ postponed travel plans due to terrorism</th>
<th>Frequency of cancellation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Once</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4.4 Knowledge of Terrorist Attacks in Kenya

Table 4.16 shows which of the terrorist attacks in Kenya the respondents know about. Majority of the respondents that is, 98.8% know of the Westgate Mall shooting, 56.3% know of the 1998 US Embassy bombing, 26.3% know of the Paradise Hotel bombing and 1.3% do not know of any of the incidents.
Table 4.16: Knowledge of Terrorist Attacks in Kenya

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terrorist attacks</th>
<th>Percent of Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998 US Embassy Bombing</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002 Paradise Hotel Bombing</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013 Westgate Mall shooting</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>146</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4.5 Source of Information on the Terrorism Attacks in Kenya

Table 4.17 shows the sources of information by the respondents’ of the terrorist attacks that occurred in Kenya in the recent past. The study revealed that 78.8% of the respondents knew of these incidents through the media, 56.3% through the internet and 32.5% through friends and relatives.

Table 4.17: Source of Information on Terrorism Attacks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of information on attacks</th>
<th>Percent of Cases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends and relatives</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not know</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4.6 Impact of Travel Advisories on Travel Plans

Table 4.18 shows a cross tabulation between the respondents knowledge of any travel advisory issued by their own country and the impact of the advisory (i.e., cancellation or postponement) of their travel plans.

Majority 58.8% of the respondents know of travel advisories issued by their own country. On the other hand, 41.3% of the respondents do not know of any.

Majority of the respondents 87.5% reported they have never cancelled or postponed their travel plans due to a travel advisory while 12.5% of the respondents reported they have ever cancelled or postponed their travel plans.

42
Table 4.18: Impact of Travel Advisories on Travel Plans

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Know of any travel advisories issued by own country</th>
<th>Has a travel advisory ever caused cancellation/postponement of travel plans</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5 Effect of Terrorism on Tourist’s Risk Perception and Attitude

4.5.1 Level of Risk Associated with Travelling to Kenya

Table 4.19 shows the level of risk the respondents associate with traveling to Kenya. According to the study, 65% report crime to be high risk, 73.8% report disease to be low risk, 68.8% report terrorism to be high risk, 63.8% report political instability to be low risk and 88.8% report natural disasters to be low risk.

Table 4.19: Level of Risk Associated with Kenya

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Crime</th>
<th>Disease</th>
<th>Terrorism</th>
<th>Political Instability</th>
<th>Natural Disaster</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Low Risk</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>42.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Risk</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>35.0%</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>65.0%</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>28.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>53.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>46.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High Risk</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>51.2%</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>46.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very High Risk</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>22.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5.2 Level of Media Attention on Terrorist Attacks

Table 4.20 shows the respondents’ level of agreement regarding the level of media attention to terrorist attacks. The results revealed that 41.3% disagree and 8.8% strongly disagree hence a total of 50.1% disagree with the statement. However, 37.5% of the respondents agree and 12.5% strongly agree, hence a total of 50% agree with the statement.

Table 4.20: Media on Terrorist Attacks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media on terrorist attacks</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>41.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.3 Relationship between Media Attention on Terror Attacks and Respondents’ Travel Plans

Table 4.21 shows the perception by the respondents that “media gives too much attention to terrorist attacks” correlates with whether the respondents have ever cancelled or postponed their travel plans due to news of a terrorist attack at ($r = 0.269^*, p < 0.05, N = 80$).

Table 4.21: Media Attention and Trip Cancellation/ Postponement Correlation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Cancellation/ postponement of travel plans due to terror attacks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Media attention to terrorist attacks</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-.269*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
4.5.4 Impact of Travel Advisories

Table 4.22 shows the level of agreement or disagreement by respondents as to whether travel advisories are often over estimated. Majority 47.5% of the respondents agree and 12.5% strongly agree hence a total of 60% agree with the statement. However, 35% of the respondents disagree and 5% strongly disagree hence a total of 40% disagree with the statement.

Table 4.22: Impact of Travel Advisories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Travel advisories over estimated</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>47.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.5 Relationship between Knowledge of Travel Advisories and Their Impact

Table 4.23 shows that the impact of travel advisories correlates with the respondents’ knowledge of travel advisories issued by their own country at ($r= 0.312^{**}$, $p<0.01$, $N= 80$).

Table 4.23: Travel Advisories Correlation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Knowledge of travel advisories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Impact of travel advisories</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation: $-0.312^{**}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

4.5.6 Intention to Visit Kenya Again Despite Acts of Terrorism

Table 4.24 shows the respondents’ intention to visit Kenya again despite the acts of terrorism. Majority 43.8% of the respondents agree and 32.5% strongly agree hence a total of 76.3% agree with the statement. However, 20% of the respondents disagree and 3.8% strongly disagree hence a total of 23.8% disagree with the statement.
Table 4.2: Intention to Visit Kenya Again

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.7 Recommend Kenya to Family and Friends

Table 4.25 shows whether the respondents would recommend Kenya to family and friends. Majority 56.3% of the respondents agree and 25% strongly agree hence a total of 81.3% agree with the statement. However, 13.8% of the respondents disagree and 5% strongly disagree hence a total of 18.8% disagree with the statement.

Table 4.25: Recommend Kenya

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.8 Perception of Kenya as a Safe Tourist Destination

Table 4.26 shows whether respondents perceive Kenya to be a safe tourist destination. Majority 56.3% of the respondents agree and 6.3% strongly agree hence a total of 62.6% agreed with the statement. On the other hand, 33.8% of the respondents disagree and 3.8% strongly disagree hence a total of 37.6% disagree with the statement.
Table 4.26: Perception of Kenya as a Safe Tourist Destination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5.9 Relationship between the Risk Perception of Terrorism and Kenya as a Tourist Destination

Table 4.27 below shows the correlation between the level of risk associated with terrorism and whether the respondents would visit Kenya again despite the acts of terrorism at (r=0.247*, p<0.05, N=80). The table also shows that respondents would recommend Kenya to family and friends at (r=0.271*, p<0.05, N=80). In addition, there is a significant relationship between the level of risk associated with terrorism and respondents perceptions of Kenya as a safe tourist destination at (r=0.349**, p<0.01, N=80).

Table 4.27: Risk Perception of Terrorism Correlation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Level of risk associated with terrorism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intention to visit again despite acts of terrorism</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation: -0.247*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to recommend Kenya to family/friends</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation: -0.271*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception of Kenya as a safe tourist destination</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation: -0.349**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
4.6 Model Summary

The model summary, anova and coefficient are used in regression analysis. Model summary is used to predict the value of a variable based on the value of another variable. The variable being predicted is the dependent variable and the variable being used to predict the other variable’s values is called the independent variable.

Table 4.28 provides the R value 0.349 which indicates a moderate degree of correlation. The R² value 12% indicated how much the dependent variable (safety in Kenya) can be explained by the independent variable (terrorism).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.349a</td>
<td>.122</td>
<td>.111</td>
<td>.620</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Level of risk associated with terrorism

4.6.1 ANOVA

Table 4.29 shows the regression and significance column which indicates the statistical significance of the regression model that is applied. In this case, P is 0.001 which is less than 0.01 which indicates that overall the model applied is significantly good enough in predicting the outcome variable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>4.172</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.172</td>
<td>10.838</td>
<td>.001b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>30.028</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>.385</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>34.200</td>
<td>79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Kenya is a safe tourist destination
b. Predictors: (Constant), Level of risk associated with terrorism

Table 4.30 shows the coefficients which provide information on the predictor variable. From the table, both the constant and the level of risk associated with terrorism in Kenya contribute
significantly to the model (Sig. 0.000). The regression equation is presented by looking at the B column under the Unstandardized Coefficients column.

The equation is presented as:

Overall safety in Kenya = 3.501 + (-0.295) (terrorism).

**Table 4.30: Coefficient**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (Constant)</td>
<td>3.501</td>
<td>.268</td>
<td>13.076</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of risk associated with terrorism</td>
<td>-.295</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>-.349</td>
<td>-3.292</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Kenya is a safe tourist destination

**4.7 Chapter Summary**

This chapter provides the results and findings with respect to the data given by the respondents who have visited Kenya in the past. This chapter provides an analysis on the background information of the respondents, the effect of terrorism on tourist behavior, the effect of tourists’ awareness of terrorism on destination image and the effect of terrorism on tourist’s risk perception and attitude. The next chapter provides a summary of the findings as well as the discussions, conclusions and recommendations.
CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter is divided into four sections. The first section presents a summary of the study, the second section presents a discussion of the major findings, the third section contains the conclusion and lastly the recommendations made by the researcher.

5.2 Summary

The purpose of this research study was to establish the effects of terrorism on international tourists who have visited Kenya. To achieve the purpose, the study established the effect of terrorism on tourist behavior, the effect of tourists’ awareness of terrorism on destination image and the effect of terrorism on tourist’s risk perception and attitude.

The study adopted the descriptive research design and employed the survey method for the collection of primary data from respondents. The total population constituted of 401 international tourists. The study focused on a sample size of 123 of which 80 responded. Due to the difficulty faced by the researcher in accessing data from the hotels and tour firms, convenience sampling technique was used to obtain data from previous USIU exchange students, international students currently residing in the USIU hostels as well as international tourists from one tour company via email using an online survey. The study also employed descriptive and inferential statistics in the analysis where data was then presented using tables.

The study found that most of the tourist’s motivation for visiting Kenya was for educational reasons. Most of the tourists who visited Kenya only once happened to be with a tour group. Most of the tourists heard of Kenya as a tourist destination from friends and family. Tourists who had the most travel experience internationally said they would visit an area affected by a tourist attack immediately. The study also found that majority of the tourists visited the South Rift Valley and that the North Eastern part of Kenya was the least visited.
From the study, most of the tourists followed the news on terrorist attacks especially on the internet. It established that most of the tourists had never cancelled or postponed their travel plans due to news of a terrorist attack. In addition, most of the tourists were aware of the terrorist incidents that have occurred in Kenya especially the Westgate Mall shooting. Despite knowledge of travel advisories that had been issued by their own countries, most respondents never cancelled or postponed their travel plans.

Majority of the tourist’s perceived factors such as crime and terrorism to be high risk in Kenya. Half of the tourists agreed to the statement that the media gives too much attention to terrorist attacks while the other half disagreed. Majority agreed that travel advisories are often over estimated. Furthermore, most of the tourists said they would visit Kenya again despite the acts of terrorism as well as recommend Kenya to their family and friends. Lastly, most of the tourists perceived Kenya to be a safe tourist destination.

5.3 Discussion

5.3.1 Effect of Terrorism on Tourist Behavior

The first research question was to establish the effect of terrorism on tourist behavior. The study found that tourist’s motivation for visiting Kenya was for educational reasons but this was as a result of the high number of previous USIU exchange students and international students who took part in the study. This finding is further supported by Swarbrooke and Horner (2007) who argue that student exchange programs these days have become a phenomenon where the tourist’s motivation for traveling is to learn something new. Consequently, Shoham et al., (2004) states that opportunities for students to explore the world have been made easier with increased transportation choices and decreased air travel fares.

From the results, the tourist’s studied visited Kenya only once and most of them were in a tour group followed by with family and friends. This finding can be supported by Moutinho (2000), who argues that social factors such as family, friends and reference groups as well as (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998) terrorism can influence a tourist’s destination choice. Furthermore, many of the tourists who visited Kenya more than five times visited alone.
These findings are supported by Pearce (1998) who argues that an individual’s travel motivation changes with the individual’s travel experience. In this case, the majority of the tourists who visited Kenya just once felt safe with a tour group whereas the tourists who visited more than five times felt safe travelling independently.

The study found that tourists heard of Kenya as a tourist destination from friends and family. This is supported by Pizam and Mansfeld (2006) who argue that people can influence their friends and family to visit a certain destination especially if they had a good experience. George (2003) argues that if a tourist feels insecure or threatened at a specific destination, an overall negative impression is likely to result which will influence what they tell their family and friends. Furthermore, Holloway (2004) argues that visiting destinations that are appreciated by peers can boost a tourist’s self-esteem as well as reduce levels of fear.

The results revealed that tourist’s travel internationally for holiday purposes. Baker (2014) argues that many scholars in the tourism industry today advocate that being safe on vacation is an expected requirement for any visitor in a tourist destination otherwise an unsafe destination can be substituted for another that is safer. In addition, the study found that tourists travel for other reasons such as education, business, charity support, and culture as well as medical reasons. This finding is supported by Swarbrooke and Horner (1999) who argue that people travel for different reasons, for example, physical motive which is the need to relax, personal development which is the need to increase ones knowledge and cultural motivation which is the need to discover new cultures.

According to the study, tourists who traveled several times a year, that is, tourists who had the most travel experience internationally said they would visit an area affected by a tourist attack immediately. Similarly, the study found a significant relationship that tourists with more travel experience are likely to visit an area affected by a terrorist attack. These findings are supported by Gu and Martin (1992) who argue that the level of previous international experience influences a tourist’s reaction to terrorism. Weaver et al., (2007) further argue that high levels of travel experience tend to lower safety and terrorist concerns.

The study found that tourists visited the South Rift Valley followed by the North Rift Valley and then the Coast. However, the North Eastern part of Kenya was the least visited by
tourists. This finding is supported by Beirman (2003) and Seabra et al. (2013) who argue that safety concerns especially terrorism can strongly influence the traveler’s destination choice. Sonmez (1998) further argues that destinations associated with negative media images of terrorist threats are eliminated from the decision making process which is the case for the North Eastern part of Kenya known for its insecurities.

5.3.2 Effect of Tourists’ Awareness of Terrorism on Destination Image

The second research question was to establish the effect of tourists’ awareness of terrorism on destination image. The study found that tourists frequently followed the news on terrorist attacks. This is supported by Nacos (2003) who reports that many people watch live broadcasting of terrorist incidents around the world. Seabra et al., (2014) further supports this finding by stating that majority of people considers negative reports much more interesting than positive news. Thus, highly publicized acts of terrorism will certainly provide an opportunity for a large audience.

The results showed that tourists sought credible information about terrorism from different sources. In this case, the internet had the highest rating. Chandralal, (2015) argues that the internet is becoming an important and convenient electronic media for travelers today. Wang et al. (2014) argues that mass media is a cost effective means of communicating with the society but it has a number of consequences. In this case, Sonmez (1998) argues that the media coverage that terrorism attracts has the potential to harm tourism levels of a destination. O’Connor (2008) further argues that the constant media attention prolongs the process of restoring tourists’ confidence to travel.

From the results, most tourists never cancelled or postponed their travel plans due to news of a terrorist attack. Of the tourists who cancelled or postponed their travel plans, half had only done it once while the other half had done it more than once. According to Henderson (2014), images of terrorist attacks are likely to cause tourists to cancel their planned vacations which can be seen with the minority of this study group.

The study found that tourists were aware of the terrorist incidents that occurred in Kenya. That is, most knew of the 2013 Westgate Mall shooting, followed by the 1998 US Embassy
bombing and then the 2002 Paradise Hotel bombing. In addition, tourists heard about these incidents through the media. This finding is supported by Chermak and Gruenewald (2006) who argue that the public relies heavily on news from the media for information about terrorism. In addition, Jin (2003) argues that tourists can retain information regarding terrorism because of their high level of interest in such events hence why the tourists in this study knew at least one of the three major attacks that occurred in Kenya.

The study showed that tourists knew of a travel advisory that had been issued by their own country. Although this is the case, majority reported they never had to cancel or postpone their travel plans due to a travel advisory. On the contrary, Beirman (2003) argues that citizens do consider travel advisories to be authoritative statements from the government warning people about the genuine inherent risks of travelling to a certain destination. Hence people will take these warnings seriously.

5.3.3 Effect of Terrorism on Tourist’s Risk Perception and Attitude

The third research question was to establish the effect of terrorism on tourist’s risk perception and attitude. The study found that tourist’s perceived factors such as crime and terrorism to be high risk in Kenya while factors such as disease, political instability and natural disasters were perceived as low risk. These factors can be supported by Huan et al., (2006) who analyzed risk perception of tourists and found that crime, disease, terrorism, political instability and natural disasters were the main identified risk factors affecting destination choice. Furthermore, Sonmez and Graefe (1998) and Seabra et al., (2014) argue that the terrorist activity in a certain destination will be perceived as more risky than a safer destination without that threat.

From the results, half of the tourists disagreed with the statement that the media gives too much attention to terrorist attacks. However, the other half of the tourists agreed with the statement. This finding is supported by Chermak and Gruenewald (2006) who argue that there is still a considerable debate among scholars about the influence of the media on public attitudes. They further argue that most scholars agree that the media plays some vital role in society. On the other hand, authors such as Nacos (2002) and Seabra et al., (2014) argue that
the media tends to exaggerate events in order to increase ratings which later reflect on the media’s market success.

The study showed there was a significant relationship between the number of tourists who knew of a travel advisory issued by their own country and their perceptions on if travel advisories are often estimated. In addition, tourists agreed to the statement that travel advisories are often over estimated. These findings are supported by Bianchi (2006) who argues that in some cases, travel advisories are often a political matter rather than a way of countries providing security for their citizens. He further argues that governments are aware of the risks their citizens may face overseas such as local animosity by putting up travel advisories.

The results showed that tourists would visit Kenya again despite the acts of terrorism. This finding is supported by Sonmez and Graefe (1998) and Weaver et al., (2007) who argue that once a destination has been visited, travelers are more likely to return in the future despite the risks. This is because the destination is perceived to be safer than one that travelers have not visited yet. Further, Pizam and Mansfeld argue (2006) that travelers who have a good experience in a place tend to develop a good perception overall which in turn becomes their destination choice. Hence the satisfaction obtained from a certain destination will determine whether the traveler will return in the future.

According to the study, tourists said they would recommend Kenya to their family and friends. This finding is supported by Pizam and Mansfeld (2006) who argue that people can influence their friends and relatives to visit a destination based on their past experience with the destination. In addition, Kotler, Bowen and Maken (2010) argue that potential tourists tend to rely on other travelers experiences when making a destination choice in an effort to decrease uncertainty. Hence, Pizam and Mansfeld (2006) argue that it is vital for a traveler to obtain satisfaction from a destination because he/she will determine whether to recommend the destination to friends and relatives for their future holidays.

Lastly, the study found that tourists felt Kenya is a safe tourist destination. According to Beirman (2002), it is only natural for destinations perceived as being safe to be preferred by travelers rather than those perceived to be unsafe or risky. Even though Kenya has had its fair
share of terrorism attacks (Kuto & Groves, 2004), most of the tourists in this study perceive Kenya to be a safe tourist destination because of their past travel experience which can increase their intention to visit again (Weaver et al., 2007).

Scholars such as Seddighi et al., (2001), Kozak et al., (2007) and Money and Crofts (2003) argue that there is a link between risk perception and nationality of tourists. However, this could not be demonstrated in the study due to the skewness of the data. Majority of the tourists were Americans and Japanese hence the other nationalities would not be represented well enough to make a relevant conclusion.

5.4 Conclusion

5.4.1 Effect of Terrorism on Tourist Behavior

The study concludes that terrorism can affect tourist behavior. The study indicates that tourist behavior is influenced by factors such as travel motivation and travel experience. Therefore, an individual’s travel motivation changes with the individuals travel experience. The study found that tourists who traveled several times a year were likely to visit an area affected by a terrorist attack immediately. This concludes that the level of previous international experience can influence a tourists’ reaction to terrorism. The study found that tourists mostly visited the South Rift Valley rather than the North Eastern part of Kenya which concludes that safety and negative media images can influence a tourist’s destination choice.

5.4.2 Effect of Tourists’ Awareness of Terrorism on Destination Image

The study concludes that tourist’s awareness of terrorism can affect destination image. The study revealed that tourists followed the news on terrorist attacks and they sought this information mostly from the mass media. Most of the tourists were aware of the terrorist incidents that have occurred in Kenya which they learnt of through the media. The study therefore concludes that the public relies heavily on media for news coverage of terrorism which can be harmful to the destination image. Additionally, most of the tourists never cancelled or postponed their travel plans due to a travel advisory but despite this, travel warnings are still authoritative statements from the government which cannot be easily disputed by the public.
5.4.3 Effect of Terrorism on Tourist’s Risk Perception and Attitude

The study concludes that terrorism affects a tourist’s risk perception and attitude. The study revealed that terrorism is perceived to be high risk in Kenya and therefore destinations are perceived to be more risky with any terrorist activity that occurs. The study also concludes that the media plays a vital role in society but it can also influence tourist’s perceptions and attitudes of a certain destination based on negative reports. Moreover, travel advisories are sometimes overestimated with the intentions of trying to protect their citizens. The study revealed that tourists would visit Kenya again despite the acts of terrorism, recommend Kenya to family and friends for future holiday as well as consider Kenya a safe tourist destination overall. The study therefore concludes that past experiences with a destination can decrease a traveler’s uncertainty and increase their intention to visit again.

5.5 Recommendations

5.5.1 Recommendations for Improvement

5.5.1.1 Effect of Terrorism on Tourist Behavior

The study recommends that tourism facilities within the country such as hotels, lodges, tourist attraction sites and restaurants provide quality service to tourists. Providing memorable experiences can help create positive word of mouth where travelers can influence their friends and family to visit Kenya. Since the internet is becoming a widely used source to seek information, the government should increase advertisements of Kenya on social media. The government can also use travel blogs to learn tourist experiences and attitudes in order to improve on the destinations tourism products and services. The study also recommends that the government promotes tourism in areas such as the Western, Eastern and Central Kenya where not many tourists visit. At the same time, it should also ensure areas in North Eastern Kenya are safe for people to travel to. This will increase tourism demand in these places and reduce tourist congestion in areas such as South Rift Valley and the Coast.
5.5.1.2 Effect of Tourists’ Awareness of Terrorism on Destination Image

The reports in the mass media represent a destination’s image therefore the study recommends that mass media be careful as to how they relay messages of terrorism to the public because this can significantly influence tourism in Kenya. The media can play an important role in promoting a positive destination image which will significantly increase the chances that Kenya is picked by tourists. The study also recommends that Western governments consider the effects of issuing travel advisories to countries such as Kenya as these statements can adversely affect both the hospitality and tourism industry.

5.5.1.3 Effect of Terrorism on Tourist’s Risk Perception and Attitude

The study recommends that the government continues to promote Kenya’s tourism products and services despite the acts of terrorism. The government should also keep assuring international tourists of the security measures that have been put in place to provide a safe environment for everyone. By reducing risk uncertainty, tourists will have positive perceptions and attitudes of Kenya which will in turn increase their chances of visiting the country again or even be recommended to family and friends for future travel plans.

5.5.2 Recommendations for Future Research

The research aimed to establish the effects of terrorism on international tourists who have visited Kenya and more specifically targeting previous USIU exchange students, international students residing in the USIU hostels as well as tourists of one tour company. The findings of this research are thus reflective of this target population. Therefore, the study recommends further research targeting international tourists residing in accommodation facilities around the country. Further research can also be carried out on the effects of terrorism on tour operators or hotel facilities in Kenya.
REFERENCES


Appendix I: QUESTIONNAIRE

Academic Research Study on the Effect of Terrorism on International Tourists in Kenya

Dear Sir/ Madam,

Please find attached a questionnaire requesting your views on the effects of terrorism on international tourists in Kenya. This is part of my graduate research project for the award of MBA at the United States International University (USIU- Africa). Your responses will remain anonymous, strictly confidential and will not be used for any other purpose except for this research. Your feedback is highly appreciated.

Chiharu Asami

Part A: GENERAL INFORMATION

a. Gender: □ Male □ Female

b. Nationality__________________________

c. Age group: □ Below 20 years □ 21-30 years □ 31-40 years
   □ 41-50 years □ 50 and above

d. What is your employment status?
   □ Employed □ Self-employed □ Unemployed □ Retired
   □ Student □ Other (please specify) ________________

Part B: EFFECT OF TERRORISM ON TOURIST BEHAVIOR

1. Motivation to Travel:
   a. What are the main reasons for your visit to Kenya?
      □ Rest and relaxation □ Visiting relatives and friends □ Business
      □ Education □ Charity support □ Other (please specify) __________________

   b. How many times have you visited Kenya in the past?
      □ Once □ 2-4 times □ More than 5 times

   c. With whom did you travel with?
      □ Alone □ With family □ With friends □ With a tour group
      □ With business partners □ Other (please specify) ____________

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d. Where did you hear of Kenya as a tourist destination?
   □ Friends and relatives  □ Internet  □ Media
   □ Already knew of it  □ Other (please specify) ________________

2. Travel Experience:

   e. What reasons do you mostly travel for internationally?
      □ Holiday  □ Business  □ Education  □ Medical
      □ Charity support  □ Other (please specify) ________________

   f. How often do you travel internationally?
      □ Once a year  □ Twice a year  □ Several times a year
      □ Every few years  □ Other (please specify) ________________

   g. How soon would you consider visiting an area that has been affected by a terrorist attack?
      □ Immediately  □ After several months  □ Never  □ Not sure

   h. Which of these places did you visit while in Kenya? (check all that apply)
      □ Coast (Mombasa, Kilifi, Watamu, Malindi, Lamu)
      □ North Rift Valley (L. Naivasha, L. Nakuru, L. Bogoria, L. Baringo, L. Turkana)
      □ South Rift Valley (Maasai Mara, Amboseli, Tsavo)
      □ North Eastern Kenya (Samburu, Shaba, Garissa, Wajir, Mandera)
      □ Western Kenya (Kisumu, Kakamega, Mt. Elgon)
      □ Eastern Kenya (Machakos, Kitui, Embu, Meru)
      □ Central Kenya (Mt. Kenya, The Aberdares, Kiambu, Thika)
PART C: EFFECT OF TOURISTS’ AWARENESS OF TERRORISM ON DESTINATION IMAGE

3. Media Coverage of Terrorism:
   a. How often do you follow the news on terrorist attacks?
      - Always  - Sometimes  - Rarely  - Other
   b. To what extent do you turn to the sources listed below when seeking credible information about terrorism?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Not at All</th>
<th>A Little</th>
<th>Moderately</th>
<th>Extremely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TV</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

c. Has news of a terrorist attack ever made you cancel your travel plans?
   - Yes  - No

d. If yes, how many times (please specify)
   - Once  - 2-4 times  - More than 5 times

e. Kenya has had a number of terrorist attacks over the recent years. Which of these incidents do you know about?
   - 2013 Westgate Mall shooting  - None

f. If you do know of any, how did you learn about the attacks?
   - Friends and relatives  - Media  - Internet
   - Other (please specify) ________________________________

4. Travel Advisories:
   g. Do you know of any travel advisories to Kenya issued by your own country?
      - Yes  - No
   h. Has a travel advisory ever made you cancel your travel plans?
      - Yes  - No
PART D: EFFECT OF TERRORISM ON TOURIST’S RISK PERCEPTION AND ATTITUDE

5. Risk Perception and Attitude

a. Kindly select the level of risk you would associate with a destination like Kenya

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very Low Risk</th>
<th>Low Risk</th>
<th>High Risk</th>
<th>Very High Risk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Crime</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disease</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Political Instability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Disasters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. Kindly indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The media gives too much attention to terrorist attacks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel advisories are often over estimated</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will visit Kenya again despite the acts of terrorism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will recommend Kenya to my family and friends</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, I think Kenya is a safe tourist destination</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME