UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

BACKPACKERS' MOTIVATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF RISK IN THE

CAPE COAST-ELMINA AREA

BY

FRANK BADU-BAIDEN

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature:……………………   Date:………………………...

Name: Frank Badu-Baiden

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature:………………......   Date:..................................

Name: Dr. Kwaku Adutwum Boakye

Co-Supervisor's Signature:………………….........   Date:………......................

Name: Dr. Julian Kwabena Ayeh

ii

ABSTRACT

Backpackers have been recognised as an important segment of the tourist market and have attracted academic interest globally including Ghana. The main objective of the study was to examine backpackers' perception of risk and safety in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. The study was grounded in the positivist philosophy of research – a quantitative approach. The self administered questionnaire was used to solicit data from 200 backpackers in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. Frequencies, Factor Analysis and Chi Square Test of Independence were employed to analyse the data.

The study revealed that word-of-mouth recommendations from friends and relatives as well as internet sources were mostly utilised by backpackers. Again, backpackers perceived that they were at risk of contracting tropical diseases such as malaria and cholera as a result of insanitary conditions. Furthermore, backpackers felt that they were financially at risk because of the presence of cheats in the area. In addition, the backpackers thought that crime happened in the Cape Coast-Elmina area and as a result there were some reports of physical assault. With regard to the risk reduction strategies, it was found that most backpackers kept their valuables very close to them whenever they were on the move.

It was concluded that although backpackers generally did not perceive the Cape Coast-Elmina area as risky, they had issues with sanitation. It is therefore recommended that stakeholders in the Cape Coast-Elmina area should take critical steps to improve sanitation to reduce the rate of malaria and other environmentally driven diseases.

iii

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DEDICATION

To my supportive parents- John and Joyce Baiden

v

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

x

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
CCMA	Cape Coast Metropolitan Assembly
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EPA	Environmental Protection Agency
FA	Factor Analysis
GMMB	Ghana Museums and Monuments Board
GTA	Ghana Tourism Authority
IMT	Individual Mass Tourist
KEEA	Komenda Edina Eguafo Abrem
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
MoT	Ministry of Tourism
MTTU	Motor Traffic and Transport Union
OMT	Organised Mass Tourist
PANAFEST	Pan African Historical Theatre Festival
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PDA	Personal Digital Assistant
SPSS	Statistical Product and Service Solutions
TCL	Travel Career Ladder
TCP	Travel Career Pattern
UNESCO	United Nations, Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
VFR	Visiting Friends and Relatives

xii

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

A destination's ability to successfully develop tourism to the highest level is invariably related to how the tourist perceives the levels of risk and safety associated with it (Holcomb & Pizam, 2006). The tourist's behaviour, and to an extent, destinations, are strongly affected by perceptions of risk, safety and security (Hall, 2005). Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert and Wanhill (2008) assert that most tourism activities revolve around the tourist; therefore destinations to an extent, rely on the presence of the tourist for some level of development. When destinations are perceived risky and unsafe, the likelihood of some tourists not visiting such destinations is high (Soldal, 2012). In fact, some studies undertaken by Chiu and Lin (2011) and Larsen (2011) have shown that some tourists have cancelled their travel plans upon hearing that certain destinations had been reported unsafe whiles others who were at the destination, had to return to their countries of origin.

According to Telfer and Sharpley (2007), tourism has been used as a tool to develop some destinations through job creation, increase in foreign exchange, preservation of cultures, forward and backward linkages among others. In spite of these developmental benefits that tourism provide, this trade can easily be

1

affected by external events such as global political disputes, economic crises, natural disasters, outbreaks of diseases, diplomatic relations among others (Cetinsoz & Ege, 2013). The economies of countries whose main incomes are generated from tourism are therefore affected by this vulnerability.

Schiebler, Crotts and Hollinger (1996) indicate that tourism is one of the industries that thrive under peaceful conditions; therefore, the need for safety is a well-recognised trait of human nature which cannot be down played. In recent years, especially after the September 11 terror attack on America, the threat of disasters and other crises worldwide, the issues of risk and tourists safety have become prominent in the tourists decision to travel (Larsen, 2011). This suggests that the safety of a destination is critical for its success and consequently its sustainability.

The concept of risk has received a lot of research attention in travel and tourism (Sonmez, Apostolopoulos & Tarlow, 1999). Risk has been defined as the potential to lose something of value or exposure to the chance of injury or loss, a hazard or dangerous chance (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005). In the words of Schiffman and Kanuk (2010), risk is "the uncertainty that consumers face when they cannot foresee the consequences of their purchase decisions" (p.201). In the same vein, tourist risk has been defined by Tsaur, Tzeng and Wang (1997) as the possibility of various misfortunes that might befall a tourist in the process of travelling or at the destination.

Reisinger and Mavondo (2006) identified five major types of risk and these are; terrorism, war and political instability, health, crime and cultural

2

difficulties. On the other hand, two main types of risks are recognised in the literature; absolute risk and perceived risk. Absolute risk is assessed objectively by commercial providers. For example, the management of a hotel facility may put hazard signs or warn guests about slippery floors or pools where diving is prohibited. Perceived risk on the other hand is assessed subjectively by the individual or tourist. According to Lepp and Gibson (2003), one segment of tourists who, by the nature of their stay, are particularly prone to risk are backpackers. This is attributed to the fact that backpackers stay with the local people, eat local foods, patronise local transport services among others which expose them to risk (Cohen, 2004).

Pearce (1990) has defined backpackers as "tourists who have a preference for budget accommodation, who have an emphasis on meeting other travellers, have an independent and flexible travel schedule, take longer rather than brief travel holiday and an emphasis on informal and participatory holiday activities" (p.1). According to Richards and Wilson (2004), backpacking has, for the last three decades become a global phenomenon in tourism studies, and backpackers have been considered the representation of the postmodern leisure traveller. The study of backpacking over the years has been associated with Cohen's (1972) typology of the tourist role which explained the difference between non-institutionalised and institutionalised tourists. The difference between the non-institutionalised and the institutionalised tourist roles relates to organised and individual mass tourists with the pursuit for familiarity as opposed to drifters and

3

explorers characterised as novelty and adventure seekers (Cohen, 1972 cited in Fuchs & Reichel, 2006).

Backpacking, generally, is viewed as developing between the 1960s and 1970s and was associated with the growing international spread of more affluent youth travellers at that time (Richards & Wilson, 2004). In the 1970s, the drifters became long term budget travellers and since then, due to their youthful nature and other characters that they exhibit, they have been termed 'backpackers' (Loker-Murphy & Pearce, 1995).

In the past, backpacking was seen as a form of travel that was full of adventure; but also risky and dangerous. Often, backpacking occurs after a young person has spent some time abroad as a student and the overseas experience is concluded with travel as a backpacker (Prideaux & Shiga, 2007). Backpackers have historically been mainly of Western origin, with the majority coming from Western Europe, Australia, New Zealand, and North America (Maoz, 2007). However, there is a significant population of Israeli backpackers, and a steady growth in Asian backpackers, particularly from Japan (Prideaux & Shiga, 2007).

The growing popularity of the backpacking phenomenon has been noted by some destinations. In Australia this tourist segment accounted for about 26% of all arrivals in 2012 (Australian Bureau of Statistics [ABS], 2013). Ateljevic and Doorne (2004) observe that, backpackers are tourism's biggest spending visitors. Research has also shown that individually, backpackers spend up to four times more than mainstream Japanese tourists in Australia. This development has caught up with several destinations and the destinations have consequently

4

recognised the economic importance of backpacker tourism. In particular, in both Australia and New Zealand, the significance of the backpacking industry is officially recognised and acknowledged by those governments as an important niche segment of their tourism industry (Newlands, 2004; Peel & Steen, 2007).

Ghana has over the years received an increasing number of inbound tourists who have visited for various purposes (Ghana Tourism Authority [GTA], 2011). International tourist arrivals in Ghana have increased over the years from 428,533 in 2005 to 931,224 in 2010 (GTA, 2011). Again, the Ghana Tourism Authority reported that about 827,501 inbound tourists visited Ghana in 2011 and out of that, 19% visited for leisure purposes. Boakye (2012) notes, among other reasons, that Ghana is recognised as a budget destination, therefore, it has become appealing to budget travellers such as backpackers. In fact, Dayour (2013) estimates that annually, backpackers spend an average amount of Gh¢ 28,039.20 in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. He further indicates that backpackers are drawn to Ghana as a result of historical and heritage reasons, the ecological resources as well as the level of service provision by hospitality facilities.

Information seeking behaviour has also been recognised as an important aspect of backpacking (Moshin & Ryan, 2003). According to Cohen (2003), backpackers use various means to source information on their choice of accommodation, transport, food and travel safety. Chang (2009) asserts among others, that backpackers source prior information from their colleagues and relatives who have previously visited destinations. Since backpackers' travel involves a lot of risk taking (Elsrud, 2001), the credibility of information sourced

is very important to backpackers. Therefore, Nash, Thyne and Davies (2006) claim that word-of-mouth information from their peers is one of the most important sources of information to backpackers.

The issue of risk is critical to a destination's allure. Thus, for a destination to be more appealing to tourists, there must be low levels of risk and an enhancement of the safety of visitors. This study, then, tries to zero in on how backpackers perceive risk and safety or what they consider as risk and the measures they (backpackers) employ to reduce these risks, especially in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. It further tries to examine, among others, their information search behaviour, their travel motivations and also their willingness to recommend Cape Coast and Elmina to other backpackers.

Problem Statement

The issue of travel safety has received increased attention in the travel and tourism industry after the September 11 terrorist attacks on the US (Larsen, 2011). Particularly, there have been increased concerns, on the part of travellers and industry practitioners alike, on the need to ensure a risk free travel environment for tourists in general. The issues of travel motivations and risk are even more important in the context of backpackers due to the nature of their visit and stay (Hunter-Jones, Jeffs & Smith, 2008). Thus, in the context of backpackers, the usually young visitor who travels for ecological, heritage, adventure and other motives completely finds himself or herself in an exotic environment, mostly in environments different in socio-cultural, economic and political conditions that

6

may further increase the person's exposure to risk (Brunt, Mawby & Hambly, 2000).

Numerous works have been conducted in the area of tourist risk. Notable ones include the work of Aziz (1995), Pizam, Tarlow and Bloom (1997), Lawton and Page (1997), Dimanche and Leptic (1999), Sonmez, Apostolopoulos and Tarlow (1999), Brunt, Mawby and Hambly (2000), Boakye (2012), among others. The main areas of interests include international tourists' perception of crime, terrorism, political instability, personal safety, and health concerns. Despite this continued research interest in tourist risk, research on the motivations and risk perceptions of backpackers has been neglected (Reichel, Fuchs & Uriely, 2007). Indeed, a lot of mention has been made regarding tourists' role, personal characteristics, tourists' psychographics in relation to perceptions of risks and vulnerability to crime (Ferreira & Harmse, 2000; Holcomb & Pizam, 2006). However, there is insufficient information on the motivations and perceptions of risk of backpackers despite the fact that backpackers are usually people who go off the beaten track and hence might be more vulnerable to risky situations. In addition to this, there are few studies within the context of Ghana that have dealt with the motivations and risk perceptions of backpackers in the country. Thus, despite the fact that Ghana is gradually becoming a preferred destination for backpackers in West Africa (Dayour, 2013), tourism researchers have paid little attention to this important segment of travellers. The study on backpackers in the Ghanaian context by Dayour (2013) only focused on the motivations of backpackers to Cape Coast and Elmina, ignoring their risk perception although it

7

has been found that backpackers visit Ghana mainly for historical and ecological motives. Backpacker tourism is growing rapidly and therefore becomes an interesting field of research for many researchers (Wearing, 2001; Sin, 2009; Stebbins, 2009).

Given the fact that the backpacker is prone to risk because of the nature of their stay (Lepp & Gibson, 2003) and again, the paucity of information on backpackers motivations and risk perception in the Ghanaian context, it is necessary to embark on a study of this nature which will not only add to the existing literature on backpacker tourism but also that of motivations and risk perception.

Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated to guide the study.

- What are the sources of information on travel related risk to backpackers to the Cape Coast-Elmina area?

- What are backpackers' motivations for visiting the Cape Coast-Elmina area?

- What is the nature of risk that backpackers perceive at the Cape Coast-Elmina area?

- What are the strategies backpackers employ to reduce risks in the Cape Coast-Elmina area?

8

Research Objectives

The main objective of the study is to examine backpackers' perceptions of risk in Cape Coast and Elmina.

Specifically, the study seeks to:

- Identify backpackers' sources of information on travel related risk in the Cape Coast-Elmina area;

- Examine backpackers motivations for travelling to the Cape Coast-Elmina area;

- Assess the nature of perceived risks in Cape Coast and Elmina and;

- Explore the strategies backpackers employ to reduce risks in the Cape Coast-Elmina area.

Significance of the Study

The Central Region of Ghana is one of the regions that receive a significant number of the country's total tourist arrivals each year (Boakye, 2012). As a growing budget destination, it attracts a lot of budget travellers to it who engage in various activities. Carr (2001), Elsrud (2001) and Paris (2010) have indicated that these relatively 'young' budget travellers have the inclination towards risk. This study therefore seeks to examine backpackers' perception of risk and safety in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. The findings from this study will add to existing literature on backpacking. More importantly, in the Ghanaian context, various issues such as backpackers' information search behaviour, backpackers' travel motivations, the nature of risk that backpackers perceive,

9

strategies that backpackers employ to reduce risk and their willingness to recommend the Cape Coast-Elmina area to their colleagues will be tackled to fill the theoretical gap in literature.

Also, since backpackers immerse themselves in the local culture, bringing to the fore issues related to how backpackers perceive risk in Ghana will help institutions/bodies such as Ghana Tourism Authority (GTA) and other stakeholders and managers of tourism facilities to come out with strategies to ensure that the backpackers who visit Ghana are safe and thus they will continue to enjoy their stay. Furthermore, this will also go a long way to inform the producers of tourism products such as tour operators, tour agencies, policy makers and hoteliers among others, about what backpackers consider as risk in the Cape Coast-Elmina area.

Moreover, the findings of this study, can inform tourism administrators and marketers on the potentials of this niche market so that comprehensive marketing strategies can be drawn to attract more of these tourists to Ghana. According to Ateljevic and Doorne (2004), backpackers have strong spending power whenever they travel and this ultimately impacts the local economies of those destinations positively. Consequently, the findings of this study will also go a long way to bring to the fore, backpackers' perceptions of risk and safety in the Cape Coast-Elmina area so that strategies can be drawn to reduce risk and enhance the stay of the backpacker. As backpackers visit Ghana, they will spend to improve the local economies of where they will stay. Again this study will contribute to existing literature on backpackers, especially in the area of risk.

10

Limitations of the Study

First, the adoption of the quantitative nature of data collection in this study could pose a limitation. The inability of this method to allow the researcher to probe further may prevent the researcher and the readers of this document to grasp a full understanding of backpackers' perception of risk and safety in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. Furthermore, exploring backpackers' risk reduction strategies, their perception of risk and finding their sources of travel information on travel risk and safety among others call for further questioning through in-depth interviews but the quantitative nature may not provide in-depth results. Therefore readers and other researchers who might be using the findings from this study should take notice of these likely limitations.

Moreover, the inability of the researcher to readily obtain specific data on backpackers who visited Cape Coast and Elmina could be a limitation. The data on international students to the castles may not be a true reflection of all backpackers to the Cape Coast-Elmina area. Some international students who visit the castles may not necessarily be backpackers. However, to guard against this, potential respondents were asked whether or not they considered themselves as backpackers.

Lastly, the use of the convenience sampling approach in this study raises questions of representativeness and subsequently validity of the generalisation. Readers of this document are advised that the findings of this study may not reflect the views of all backpackers to the Cape Coast-Elmina area. However, to ensure some level of representativeness, respondents were not allowed to answer

11

the questionnaire if they had already taken part in the study. Again, key findings were compared with literature to ensure its closeness to actual reality.

Delimitation of the Study

The backpacking phenomenon is multidimensional in that it looks at backpackers' motivations, economic impacts, their travel characteristics, their information search behaviour among others but this study focuses only on backpackers' perception of risk. Other issues of research interest such as their expenditure pattern and their satisfaction with the destination, are not tackled in this study. Also, the study is limited to only the Cape Coast-Elmina area but the activities of the backpacker in Ghana are varied and spread to other parts of the country.

Lastly, the use of accommodation-based definition for this study could pose as a de-limitation. The budget accommodation facilities may not be solely patronised by backpackers but other international students who are not backpackers.

Definition of Terms

In this study, key terms are defined as follows:

Backpacker: A low-cost budget traveller who has a preference for budget accommodation facilities, who has an emphasis on meeting other travellers, has an independent and flexible travel schedule, takes longer rather than brief travel

12

holiday and places emphasis on informal and participatory holiday activities (Pearce, 1990).

Budget accommodation facility: An accommodation facility that offers simple, basic and clean rooms. It may offer towels, linen and soap as well as private bath and single beds or double beds (Mensah, 2009).

International Student: A non-Ghanaian student who visits Ghana for tourism related purposes.

Risk: The probability of an undesirable incident that leads to the possible negative consequences of a consumer's behaviour (Qi, Gibson & Zhang, 2009).

Organisation of the Thesis

The thesis is organised into five main chapters with each chapter having subtopics which introduce the reader to the contents of that particular chapter. Chapter One is primarily an introductory chapter to the study. Sub-topics under this chapter include the background of the study, the problem statement, research questions, the objectives of the study, the significance of the study, delimitations and limitations of the study, operational definitions and the structure of the thesis. Chapter Two includes review of relevant literature on the definition and history of backpacking. Moreover, Chapter Two looks at the backpackers' perception of risks and some reduction strategies that they put in place to mitigate risks. This chapter also discusses both the theoretical and the conceptual framework that are relevant to the study. Chapter Three outlines the research methodology employed in the study. Sub-headings here include; the study area, study design, research

13

paradigm, data and sources, target population, sample size determination, sampling procedures/techniques, data collection and instrument, recruitment of field assistants and pre-testing of instrument, fieldwork and challenges, ethical issues and data processing and analysis. Chapter Four has to do with the presentation of results and discussions. Lastly, Chapter Five deals with the presentation of the main findings from the study and conclusions. Recommendations are also made in this chapter.

14
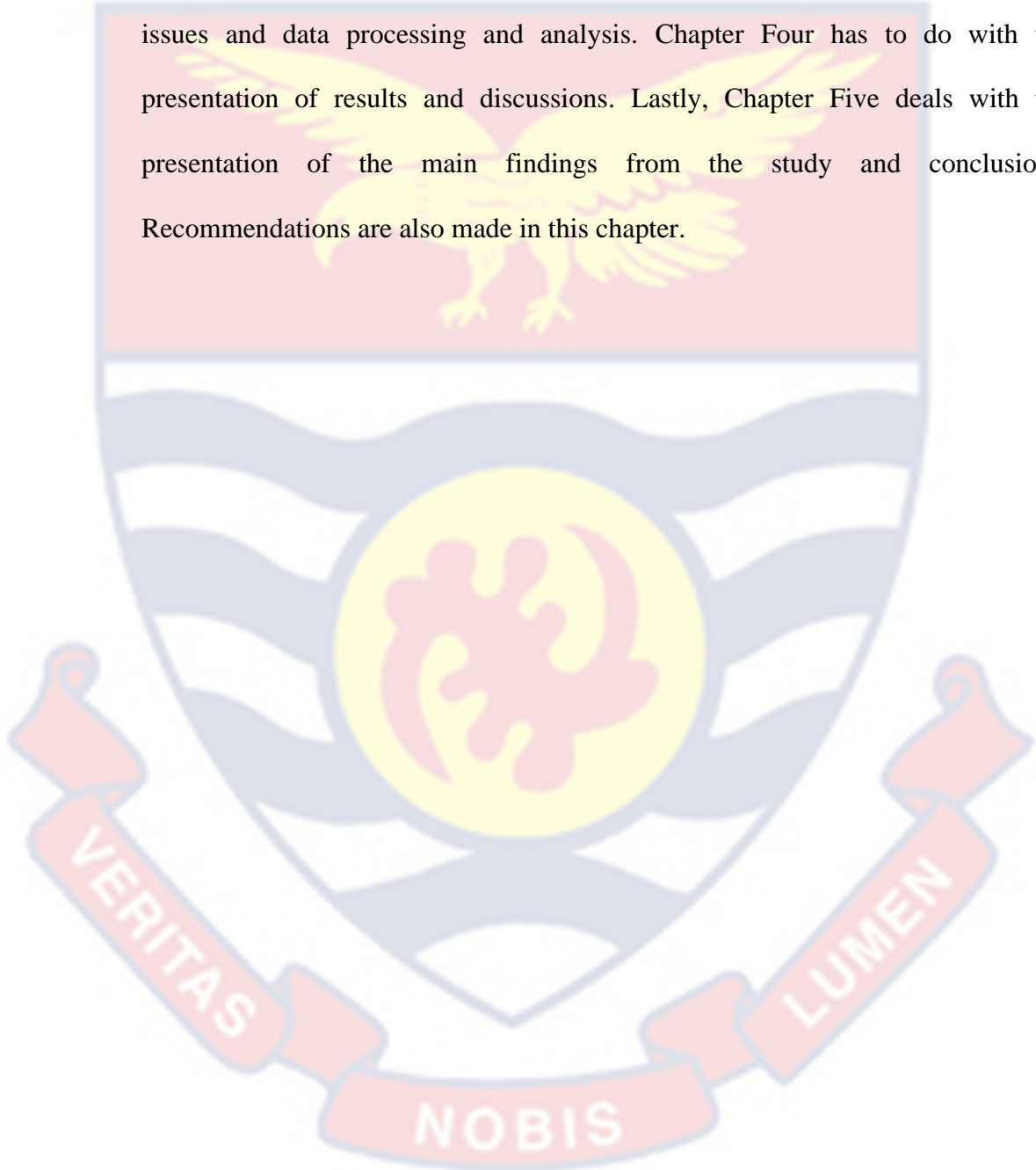
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter reviews relevant literature on the definition and history of backpackers. It goes on to examine the theoretical underpinnings of the backpacker phenomenon as well as the literature on backpackers' perception of risk and safety. Besides this, the chapter reviews literature on backpackers' travel motivations, various kinds of risk, risk reduction strategies and the sources of information on backpackers travel risk and safety. Finally, it discusses both the theoretical and conceptual framework that guided the study.

The Backpacker Defined

Various authors have tried to find a suitable definition for this growing phenomenon. Diego (2011) asserts that research into backpacking is 'relatively new', as its first studies commenced in the 1970s. In fact, according to Cohen (2003), the definition and the concept of backpacking has been described as 'controversial', thus, various authorities have tried to define it from various perspectives such as their travel motivations, preference for novelty and familiarity, background characteristics and travel characteristics.

Lomine and Edmunds (2007) looked at backpacking as having two meanings. They further assert that backpacking is seen as a form of rural tourism which involves both hiking/trekking and camping, with food supplies and camping equipment carried in a backpack. To them, the backpacker's trips may be as short as a weekend, though they can last much longer. This conceptualisation focuses on a form of tourism that is more responsive to the host because it involves a few individuals who move to a rural area to engage in tourism. Also, backpacking from their perspective, is based on the fact that aside the 'kind' of tourism activity pursued by them (backpackers), they carry their belongings such as food and other equipment in a bag, which is a notable physical feature.

Their second conceptualisation of backpacking is that it is a form of low-cost international travel, usually by young people, typically as part of a gap-year experience; who travel in the interest of mobility and flexibility. They see backpacking as a rite-of-passage by usually young students who travel to 'new' destinations on their own with much flexibility and the freedom to move to places that they desire. Also, some students, as part of the requirements by their institutions of study, embark on trips to destinations to learn about the destinations and by so doing get close to the locals by patronizing local transport services, food services and low cost accommodation facilities. More to the point, since these individuals are usually students and are not working, they travel on a limited budget, hence their preference for low-cost travel schedule.

Pearce (1990) postulates that a backpacker is a tourist who has a preference for budget accommodation, who has an emphasis on meeting other

16

travellers, has an independent and flexible travel schedule, takes longer rather than brief travel holiday and places an emphasis on informal and participatory holiday activities. He looked at backpacking in the social context where backpackers have the preference for budget accommodation facilities and also have an emphasis on meeting fellow travellers. To him backpackers have an interaction with other travellers where they can socially bond with and exchange ideas/information and learn from. Similarly, Nash, Thyne and Davies (2006) affirm Pearce's (1990) definition of a backpacker, where the backpacker is seen as a tourist who travels on a limited budget to remote destinations and has a preference for meeting other travellers with a flexible travel schedule. Furthermore, backpackers are conceptualised by Loker-Murphy and Pearce (1995) as young and budget-minded tourists who prefer low-priced accommodation, who put an emphasis on meeting other people (locals and fellow travellers), who organise their travel itineraries independently, who are on extended rather than short holiday, and who have a taste for informal and participatory recreation activities. To these authors, there is that element of socialisation in backpacking as they all stress that backpackers have a preference for meeting other travellers and also have flexibility in their travel schedule.

Another important characteristic which plays through their conceptualisations is the backpacker's preference for low cost budget accommodation facilities. This clearly implies the backpacker's sensitivity to being 'economical' with regard to their choice of an accommodation facility. Again, a reason which could account for this, perhaps, is the length of stay of the

17

backpacker; they prefer to patronise budget accommodation facilities so as to spread the rest of their income/budget throughout their stay. On the other hand, Loker-Murphy and Pearce (1995) emphasise that backpackers are synonymous with Cohen's (1972) non-institutionalised tourists and Plog's (2002) allocentrics because backpackers stay off the 'beaten track' whenever they travel. They are adventurous; they have preference for novelty and risk among others. In the words of Richards and Wilson (2004), studies have shown that hostel accommodation facilities have served as the most popular form of budget accommodation, while staying with friends and relatives and camping are also patronised by backpackers.

Cohen (2003) looked at the demographic characteristics of backpackers as falling between the ages of 20-30. On the contrary, Dayour (2013) also argues that backpackers are usually between 20-29 years. This could be attributed to the fact that perhaps, these individuals might have completed high school/university, might still be single and have gotten some work experience before taking their backpacking trip. Sorensen (2003) postulates that backpackers are usually between 18 and 30 which also suggests that backpackers are mainly youth tourists who have the desire to travel to destinations because they may not have any responsibilities or family commitments back at home. Also, Westerhausen (2002) is of the opinion that backpackers are travellers usually within the age bracket of 18 and 30. Richards and Wilson (2004) observe that there is an increase in the number of students in the backpacker tourist segment. This explains the general age bracket of backpackers.

18

Hannam and Ateljevic (2008), however, hold a different opinion to this, observing that young travellers (backpackers) are usually between the ages of 18-26. According to Thoms (2002), the highest number of backpackers is in the 20-24 year age group and that most backpackers are under 30 years. Richards and Wilson (2004) also argue that, about 80% of backpackers are below 30 years. All these divergent views point to the fact that backpackers are mostly youth travellers.

On the length of stay of backpackers, Markward (2008) states that the average trip length for backpackers between the ages of 15-26 is 63.5 days (circa 9 weeks). Dayour (2013) also holds a different view and argues that, the average length of stay of backpackers is one month (4 weeks). To Hannam and Ateljevic (2008), the length of stay varies considerably among backpackers. However, a number of them travel for less than a year and the average length is 18 weeks. Pearce (1990) opines that most backpackers stay for more than a month at their chosen destinations. On the contrary, Westerhausen (2002) posits that backpackers stay longer than brief holiday makers. Length of stay differs greatly from one (1) month to one (1) year.

On the sex distribution of the backpacker market, Dayour (2013) reports that out of a total of 184 backpackers, 73 per cent of them are females while a little less than 30 per cent are males. Similarly, Paris and Teye (2010) observed a dominance of female backpackers over their male counterparts. However, it has also been recognised that there has been a rise in the number of female backpackers taking trips across Africa, Asia and South America (Richards &

19

Wilson, 2004). There appears to be a disparity in the results because Sorensen (2003) reports the prevalence of males over female backpackers. Ureily, Yonay and Simchai (2002), also affirm that about 60 per cent of backpackers are males whereas 40 per cent are females. This could be attributed to the regions or the areas where they carried out their studies because other studies suggest that Africa, Asia and South America have more females than males. In fact, other regions such as Australia and Europe may report more males than females. These observations also imply that both sexes play active roles in the backpacker tourist segment.

On the travel schedule/arrangement of backpackers, Moshin and Ryan (2003) assert that most backpackers travel on their own. They spend most of their time in the company of other backpackers at desired places, and in unplanned groups formed on the road (Murphy, 2001). To Dayour (2013), most backpackers travel on their own and usually travel by aeroplanes, with a few travelling with tour buses or coaches. Pearce, Murphy and Brymer (2009) also confirm that the predominant mode of transport for backpackers is aeroplanes followed by coaches or tour buses. Furthermore, Hannam and Ateljevic (2008) observe that backpackers mainly resort to the use of airplanes for long haul travels and public transport for in-country movement.

Based on the viewpoints raised above, the definition of a backpacker can be looked at from various perspectives such as their age, length of stay, preference for budget accommodation, choice of transport among others. In

20

effect, the backpacker cannot be defined based on one characteristic or feature but a multiplicity of factors which have already been discussed above.

History of Backpacking

In tracing the historical underpinnings of the backpacking phenomenon, some researchers have pointed to the wider history of tourism and attributed the starting point for backpacker tourism within the seventeenth and eighteenth century European Grand Tour (Loker-Murphy & Pearce, 1995). Alternatively, other researchers began a historical tracing of the backpacking phenomenon with Cohen's (1972) conceptualisation of the drifter as the archetypal backpacker (Richards & Wilson, 2004). These divergent starting points offer quite contrasting views, because while the Grand Tour is associated with education and culture, drifting often carries derogatory connotations (Cohen, 2010).

Cohen (2004), one of the first to research this phenomenon, wrote about a new group of travellers that began to emerge in the 1960s and 1970s, tracing their roots to the 'hippie' trail of the 1960s and 1970s. According to Cohen, drifters travel for a long period of time, searching to live and eat like their hosts and very frequently, take odd jobs to support themselves. He found the origins of drifting several years after the end of the Second World War when students and other middle class young people began hitch-hiking their way through Western Europe.

In the 1970s, studies concerning this phenomenon focused more on the differences between the "institutionalised" tourist and the "non-institutionalised" tourist in order to find out the main description that is now considered as

21

backpacking within the tourism industry (Ateljevic & Doorne, 2004). Cohen (1973) associated drifting with the drug culture that happened in the 1960s and the drifter was described as an escapist. Cohen (1973) later on modified his definition of drifter from what he had suggested in 1972. This modified definition had four subcategories: the *full-time adventurer* (his original drifter) and *wandering "hippie"* (a travelling dropout, on his way to some drug-sanctuary), the *part-time mass-drifter* (a college person who is out to see the world, but patronises low-cost lodging, transport and food) and the *fellow-traveller* (short-term hippies) (Diego, 2011).

But until the 1990s, the term backpacker as a traveller did not emerge in the academic literature (Diego, 2011). From this time on, a number of studies began to appear ranging from studies concerned with what motivates backpackers to travel, backpacking as a culture and the backpackers' motivations (Ateljevic & Doorne, 2004) to the impacts that backpackers have on their host environments and communities. Pearce (1990) introduced the term 'backpacker', noting that it was already widespread within the Australian budget travel industry which was at that time quite an ideal destination for backpacker travellers. He asserted that backpacking is best defined from the social perspective rather than from the economic or demographic perspectives.

According to Noy (2004), backpackers, normally youth from the developed world, embark on extensive trips to various destinations in the developing world. They are quite conscious and concerned (Noy, 2004; O'Reilly, 2006) with making sure that their experiences abroad are real and authentic.

Based on the various authors' accounts of the history of backpacking, it can be seen as a phenomenon which started in the western world after World War II with mainly the youth at that time. As time went on, this phenomenon (Grand Tour and drifting) has metamorphosed into what Pearce (1990) terms the modern day 'backpacker' which has existed since the 1990s. This phenomenon has since been growing and it has caught up with many continents and countries, including Ghana (Dayour, 2013).

Typology of Backpackers

According to Richards and Wilson (2004), one of the earliest typologies of backpackers in contemporary literature is Cohen's (1972) 'drifter'. He differentiated between the institutionalised (organised mass tourist/individual mass tourist) and non-institutionalised tourists (explorer/drifter). The institutionalised tourists exhibited the conventional features of mass tourism: 'familiarity, prior planning, safety, dependence and minimal choices' (Vogt, 1976). On the other hand, the non-institutionalised tourist, such as the 'drifter', comes into less contact with the tourist industry and attempts to share the lifestyle of those in the culture with whom he or she comes into contact. Again, he suggests that drifters can take up temporary jobs at the destination in order to boost their budget. Explorers, on the other hand, differ because they still want to use comfortable tourists' accommodation and retain the basics of a normal life style, though they also seek to 'get off the beaten track'. Throughout the literature, backpackers are seen to be synonymous with the drifters of the 1960s and 70s.

23

The literature also suggests that while the non-institutionalised tourists share certain characteristics that are distinct from the institutionalised mass tourists, they are not a homogeneous group (Uriely, Yonay & Simchai 2002). To Richards and Wilson (2004), non-institutionalised tourists have also been referred to in the literature by various terms: *nomads* (Cohen, 1973), *wanderers* (Vogt, 1976), *trampling youth* (Adler, 1985) and *long-term budget traveller* (Riley, 1988).

Plog (1972) classifies travellers based on their personality traits, and came out with a continuum of psychocentrics *(dependables),* mid-centrics and allocentrics *(venturers).* To him, allocentrics (akin to backpackers) will actively seek out new/exotic destinations and the unfamiliar in the form of educational, ethnic or adventure tourism. The allocentrics are essentially adventurous, have the preference for low-cost accommodation facilities, have the propensity to take risks and also keen on travelling to exotic destinations (Cooper et al., 2008). It can be argued that, allocentrics have a similarity with backpackers based on those characteristics. Allocentrics are more likely to travel by air and have the propensity to spend more when travelling.

On the other hand, psychocentrics tend to be at the extreme end of the continuum. They travel less often and usually travel by car. They tend to patronise safer and more familiar destinations and end up spending less at a destination. Again, psychocentrics tend to travel less, and are less daring, less self certain and more anxious in everyday life. Using Pearce (1990) and Cohen's (2003) typologies, a backpacker is seen to exhibit the characteristics of especially the

24

allocentric and non-institutionalised tourist. To Pearce (1990), backpackers are adventurous; prefer unfamiliarity and they integrate more into the local community. They have flexible itineraries and embark on independent tours.

Gray (1970) also classifies tourists into two main groups mainly sunlusters and wanderlusters. To him, wanderlusters are curious and visit more than one destination. Also they actively seek cultural experience. The motivation of the wanderluster ranges from curiosity about other cultures and wish to learn about them, to a wish to participate in and enjoy a cultural environment different from their own. To Gray (1970), wanderlusters have the propensity to take risks in their quest to learn more about other cultures and experience different cultures. On the other hand, sunlusters tend to visit one destination based on its physical character such as sun, beach, skiing or water resources. The sunlusters are really not concerned with the culture of the people in whose region or country these resources are: their motivation is recreation, relaxation and entertainment. This type of tourist is not an active recipient of cultural experiences and tends to expect culturally familiar forms of entertainment.

The backpacker exhibits the similarities of a wanderluster who prefers to have new cultural experience at different destinations and studies have shown that backpackers prefer to have a lot more social interaction with the local people at the destinations they visit. Since the wanderluster has the propensity to experience new cultures through interaction with the local people, eating their food and using their local transport services, they can be said to take risks as a result of their immersion in exotic environments.

25

Since the 1990s, studies have referred to young budget travellers as 'backpackers', a term that is well known and accepted by the tourism industry in Australia, Southeast Asia and New Zealand (Loker-Murphy & Pearce, 1995). They defined backpackers as young and budget-minded tourists who have a preference for cheap accommodation, an emphasis on meeting other people, an independently organised flexible itinerary, longer than brief vacations and an emphasis on informal and participatory recreational activities.

Backpackers' Travel Motivations

Motivation can be defined as the process that influences people to behave as they do, and the process starts when a need which an individual wishes to satisfy arises (Solomon, 2004). Studies that deal with motivations have attempted to reveal the core feelings, attitudes and emotions that influence this process. The study of motivation is relevant within the context of tourism because it can highlight the forces controlling tourists travel choices (Soldal, 2012).

Motivation in the tourism context thus answers the question of what stimulates a person to travel (Kim, 2010). To Kim (2010), the answers can be divided into three categories: leisure, business purposes, or both. Studies on backpackers' travel motivations, according to Diego (2011), are quite complex as it involves multiple motives and time to observe the results. He defines travel motivations as the needs and attitudes that influence a potential tourist to achieve some specific goals intrinsically and extrinsically. He argues that travellers are mainly "pushed" to travel by two reasons: to approach a phenomenon by seeking

26

and to avoid that phenomenon by escaping. Searching and escaping are terms related to each other when travellers' motivation is defined.

To Snepenger, King, Marshall and Uysal (2006) motivations are the critical reasons for a particular travelling behaviour and play an instrumental role in understanding the decision making process of tourists as well as evaluating the successive satisfaction of tourist's expectation. Kim (2010) opines that motivation is the processes that answer the question as to why and how people's behaviour is activated and directed. To him, motivation is seen as the inherent aspect that raises and controls human behaviour. In the same vein, Romando (2008) defines motivation as an "inner drive" that propels behaviour to act and gives direction to the behaviour.

To Diego (2011), studies that have been conducted on motivations of backpackers have indicated that a number of backpackers have described the self-development (by having cultural experiences, relationship building and escapism) as common reasons for travel. He further argues that, younger backpackers especially, stated that they want to escape from their everyday life to change things in their lives and make decisions about who they are and to enjoy freedom. Kim (2010) therefore outlines six main factors that motivate people to travel to a certain destination: emotional, personal, physical, personal development; status and cultural. He further argues that, individuals who have either one or some, or all of these six motives would patronise a destination where they can satisfy their motivations.

27

Godfrey (2011) stated that backpackers decide to leave home for five (5) key reasons which are: as a means of self-development and identity formation; a means of acquiring cultural capital; a means to escape from a routine lifestyle ; a modern-day rite of passage or contemporary secular pilgrimage and because they have the opportunity to do so. According to O'Reilly (2005), travel in general and backpacking in particular are closely associated with ideas of self-development and backpackers travel in order to develop a better sense of self-identity. Cohen (2004) asserts that, backpacking can be seen as a rite of passage because the backpacker's ability to deal with challenges and to organize and complete a backpacking trip can be seen as a demonstration of their capability in managing their own affairs, which is a significant marker of adulthood in Western societies.

To Godfrey (2011), travelling for a long period of time involves a lot of money and time as well as the initial travel motivation. Therefore, not all who have the motivation or desire will be able to embark on a long-term trip. Similarly, Westerhausen (2002) adds that for some backpackers, the chance to travel is the peak of something that they have dreamt of for long. On cultural capital, Cohen (2004) posits that backpacking teaches young people independence and autonomy as they are 'forced' to rely on themselves to deal with their own challenges. On escapism, Crompton (1979) asserts that tourists travel as a "break from routine" and to get away from 'what they usually do' back at home. In the same vein, O'Reilly (2006) adds that backpackers travel in order to escape the responsibility and constraints on their personal behaviour.

28

Theories on Motivation

There have been many theories on motivations, and according to Fridgen (1996); early philosophical thoughts explained that people were motivated by a simple pleasure-pain principle. To him, people did things that felt good and avoided those that felt bad. One of the main theories for describing travel motivations is Maslow (1943) who established the hierarchy of needs. This theory has been applied in many disciplines because it seeks to explain the various factors that motivate an individual to pursue certain needs based on the stage of their development process and also due to its simplicity and easy to understand nature (Diego, 2011). This known pyramid affirms that motivation is always necessary in order to fulfil the needs that people have. Maslow outlined five different levels of needs that a person has: physiological, safety, love (social), esteem and self-actualisation (Diego, 2011). He suggests that in order of importance, individuals will seek physiological needs (such as food, water, air and shelter), safety (stability and security), love (affiliation, affection, sense of belonging), esteem (success, self-worth, achievement) and self-actualisation needs (self-fulfilment, personal growth) (Fridgen, 1996).

This theory has been widely applied and critiqued for assuming that tourist will sequentially follow this process in satisfying their needs. Fridgen (1996) has a different view to Maslow's theory and he states that tourists with the financial capability may satisfy various needs at the same time. Neher (1991) argued that Maslow did not consider the impact of a culture on a person's motivation. As a result, Maslow (1970) argued that the needs were not intended to be fulfilled one

29

level after the other within the pyramid, therefore at some point they could be partially satisfied.

In tourism, Maslow's hierarchy of needs is used to describe how tourists travel according to their needs which are organised based on their priorities at different stages. In effect, people are motivated in order to accomplish their needs starting from the bottom, getting more motivated as they reach higher levels. He affirms that "motivation is constant, never ending, fluctuating, and complex" (Maslow, 1970). Maslow also supports the idea of people being motivated by the probability of discovering the unknown. He also believes that facing new situations can arouse new motivations for the traveller. The travellers get more curious about their trips along their experiences and their motivations also grow due to the interaction with new situations. So the more experienced the traveller is, the higher his/her motivation is (Diego, 2011).

Another model is the Travel Career Ladder (supported by Maslow's hierarchy of needs). It is a theory of motivation that was introduced in 1988 by Pearce who proposed a Travel Career Pattern (TCP) on motivational levels in order to understand travel motivations. Pearce (1988) postulates that four dominant travel motivations "novelty, self-development, relationship and escapism" affect people's travel careers in a dynamic way. Again, he suggests that tourists become less risk averse and more stimulation seeking as they gain experience and progress in the ladder (Ryan, 1997). He found some motives that were expressed by experienced travellers (nature, meeting locals) and some others by inexperienced ones (stimulation, nostalgia, security, recognition). The TCP

30

states that people become more sophisticated in their travel motivations as long as they become more experienced travellers (Diego, 2011).

Dann (1981) proposes the concepts of push and pull factors in order to explain travel motivations among travellers and why they travel. To him, the push factors are the ones that drive the tourists to move away from their current situation (escape, leave the boring routine behind, learning something new), whilst pull factors are the ones that attract tourists to come to a destination or place (being attracted by images, memories, opinions). According to Baloglu and Uysal (1996), in order to market a destination successfully, it is necessary to understand both push and pull factors and the linkage between them.

Other theories such Crompton's motives (1979) and Iso-Ahola's (1980) Optimal Arousal Theory also support these "Push and Pull" factors, implying that people are more motivated to travel and satisfy their needs through the leisure activities in natural settings and through the rewards they can get from them such as relaxation, learning, challenge. A motivation for travelling according to Iso-Ahola (1980) is to leave behind the personal or social world where one belongs, and possibly escape the personal problems, difficulties and mistakes associated with home.

The Concept of Risk

According to Cetinsoz and Ege (2013), the etymology of the word "risk" is traced to ancient times, when Homer's *Odyssey* was written. They assert that the word was derived from the ancient Greek word "rhiza", which means 'the

31

danger of navigating close to the rocks in the sea'. The word "risk" was added to the English language in the seventeenth century as a maritime concept (Soydemir, 2011).

The concept of risk has received a lot of research attention in travel and tourism (Sonmez, Apostolopoulos & Tarlow, 1999; Brunt, Mawby & Hambly, 2000; Hunter-Jones, Jeffs & Smith, 2008; Larsen, 2011). This issue has been tackled from two main perspectives. First, there are studies which focus on various aspects of risk that might restrain tourist activities (Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Poon & Adams, 2000). These studies assume that tourists are rational consumers with risk-aversion tendencies or are not receptive to risks. The risk averse tourists are likened to Cohen's institutionalised tourists who like to stay in their environmental bubble whenever they travel. Second, there are studies that attempt to explain the willingness of tourists to voluntarily engage in risks avoided in everyday life (Elsrud, 2001; Ryan, 2000, 2003; Redmon, 2003; Wickens, 1997).

According to Renn (1998), studies into risk started after the Second World War and several researchers claim that studies into risk started with focus on risks, insurance and voluntariness. Rohrmann and Renn (2000) argue that, studies into risk actually began when space exploration programmes were designed. To Renn (1998), there is no commonly accepted definition for the term risk – neither in the natural sciences nor in social sciences. He argues that all risk concepts deal with the distinction between reality and possibility. To him, if the difference between reality and possibility is known, then the term 'risk' is often associated with the "possibility that an undesirable state of reality (adverse effects) may

32

occur as a result of natural events or human activities" (p.68). Similarly, Tarlow (2011) postulates that there is no standard or predictable risk threshold determined for the tourism industry. He argues that, risks associated with tourism have a dynamic nature that changes with time and varies from one location to another. Risks in tourism include acts of violence, natural disasters such as hurricanes and earthquakes, and public health issues such as epidemic outbreaks.

Renn (1998) sees risk as the likelihood that a negative event may occur either naturally or otherwise (artificially). From his explanation, it can be asserted that risk can either occur or not as a result of the element of 'possibility/probability'. Fluker (2005) defines risk as the potential to lose something of value which may take the form of a physical, social esteem or self-injury. He further argues that risk creates a feeling of discomfort which motivates the individual to engage in various strategies intended to reduce the level of perceived risk associated with the decision process. He sees risk as inevitable. Therefore, people who are exposed to risk devise certain means or strategies to mitigate such risks.

In the words of Schiffman and Kanuk (2010), risk is "the uncertainty that consumers face when they cannot foresee the consequences of their purchase decisions" (p.201). It also represents the probability of the emergence of an event that may cause loss or damage (Turkish Language Association, 2010). In the same vein, Glaesser (2003) and Laws and Prideaux (2005) define risk as the probability of an undesirable incident that leads to the possible negative consequences of a consumer's behaviour. To Cooper et al. (2008), risk normally occurs when there

33

are uncertainties in people's decisions and therefore the outcomes of such decisions are most of the time not favourable to them. They further argue that risk is not a tangible aspect of travel; it is what tourists perceive and experience during the process of purchasing and consuming tourism-related services and while being at the destination. Renn (1998) further explains that, risk is both a social construction and a representation of reality because of the potential of 'real' consequences.

Tourist risk has been defined by Tsaur, Tzeng and Wang (1997) as the possibility of various misfortunes that might befall a tourist in the process of travelling to or at the destination. Hunter-Jones, Jeffs and Smith (2008) opine that backpackers are generally risk seekers; therefore, they voluntarily like to take or experience risky situations in destinations.

Fluker (2005) outlines two main types of risks- absolute/real risk and perceived risk. He defines 'real risk' as that which actually exposes an individual to the possibility, or even probability of being hurt. He explains further that real risks are present especially in adventure tourism scenarios but those risks are sought to be managed by the service provider in such a way that the chances of them occurring are minimised. However, perceived risk, which is more subjective, is determined by the individual. Rosa (1998) postulates that the term 'risk' is used for uncertain outcomes regardless of whether they are positive or negative. According to Korstanje (2009), risk should be considered as the 'cognitive probabilities' that could be incurred either partially or totally, or

34

alternatively felt as unexpected negative consequences since fear takes on an emotional nature based on reactions towards a specific object.

Risk Perception

Risk is a critical element of perception in terms of consumer behaviour and the tourist to be more precise (Odabasi & Baris, 2007). The issue of risk perception, which has been studied in psychology for more than four decades (Cetinsoz & Ege, 2013), has been adopted and applied in the field of tourism (Korstanje, 2011; Kozak, Crotts, & Law, 2007; Reichel, Fuchs & Uriely, 2007). Although perceived risk has been studied since the 1960s, basic perceived risk elements (financial risk, performance risk, time risk, physical risk, political risk, social risk, and psychological risk) were not identified, measured, or described in terms of dimensions and value until the 1970s (Cetinsoz & Ege, 2013). Similarly, Seabra, Dolnicar, Abrantes and Kastenholz (2012) assert that risk perception in tourism is associated with a number of factors. To them, the first studies on risk perception in the field of leisure adopted the five risk dimensions as suggested by Jacoby and Kaplan (1972): psychological (how the procurement of a product may influence what we think about ourselves); social (how the acquisition of a product may affect what other people think of us); financial (the amount of expenses compared to the level of income and perceptions of the value of money); time (the planning, purchase execution and opportunity cost of time); and physical (how the purchase may influence our physical and psychological wellbeing).

35

Greenberg and Baron (1997) defined perception as the process through which we select, organise and interpret information gathered by our senses in order to understand the world around us. Moutinho (1987) has argued that perception is the process by which an individual selects, organises and interprets stimuli in a meaningful and coherent way. This therefore explains that perception of risk is gauged based on how the individual processes stimuli in their own way. Again, it is understood from the point of view of the individual who has been exposed to an event.

Perceived risk, according to Fluker (2005), is an illusion of danger. Risk therefore, has been defined as the probability of an undesirable incident that leads to the possible negative consequences of a consumer's behaviour (Qi, Gibson & Zhang, 2009). To Cooper et al. (2008), risk is not a tangible aspect of travel; it is what tourists perceive and experience during the process of purchasing and consuming tourism related services and while being at the destination. Jones and Ellis (1996), define perceived risk as an emotional and cognitive response elicited by exposure to a perceived loss of some magnitude. These definitions point to the fact that there are the elements of uncertainty and its consequences in the consumer/tourists' decision making which in many cases are unpleasant to the individual.

Risk perception in tourism can be differentiated based on an individual tourist's characteristics (Korstanje, 2009; Lepp & Gibson, 2003). Morgan, Moore and Mansell (1997) assert that the factors that affect an individual's perception of risk include experience in the situation, personality, gender, age and culture.

36

Similarly, Reichel et al. (2007), reveal that backpackers' background characteristics, such as nationality, previous tourist experience, gender, and quest for novelty, have an impact on their perceptions of risk. Again they argue that backpackers might have their own particular perceptions of risk, such as commercialised and overcrowded sites, and consequences of illicit behaviour such as drug consumption.

According to Nash et al. (2006) and Maoz (2007), young backpackers who travel on a tight budget are more risk tolerant than any other type of tourist because of their longer stay and participation in more activities which familiarize them with the environment and make them indifferent toward risks. Also, it is worth noting that research suggests that while backpackers might share a similar form of travel, they are not homogeneous in terms of their attitudes and motivations (Uriely, Yonay & Simchai, 2002) as well as their risk perception and risk taking propensities.

Risk appears to mean different things to different people and actions and understandings about risks are learned through socially and culturally structured conceptions and evaluations of the world, what it looks like, what it should or should not be (Boholm, 1998). To perceive risk includes evaluations of the probability as well as the consequences of a negative outcome. Perception of risk goes beyond the individual, and it is a social and cultural construct reflecting values, symbols, history, and ideology (Weinstein, 1989 cited in Sjoberg, Moen & Rundmo, 2004).

37

Schmidt (2004) outlines voluntariness, controllability, delay effect, familiarity, natural and man-made factors, and role of the media as the main factors underlining people's perceptions of risks. To him, risks that are voluntary are more acceptable when they are chosen than involuntary ones. This implies that the individual, out of his will, undertakes risks and that he/she is aware of the consequence that may arise as a result of that risk that they undertake. Involuntary risks are generally not accepted by the individual because they have no idea about it or they were not willing to take that risk.

Controllability is quite similar to the voluntary aspect, in that, risks perceived to be under one's own control are more accepted than risks perceived by others. Normally, individuals are not willing to enter situations that they cannot control because they lack security under such circumstances. Therefore, Schmidt (2004) is of the opinion that when the individual has a certain level of control, they can at least partially remedy that risk.

Natural risks according to Schmidt (2004) are more acceptable than man made risks because to most people, natural risks are associated with fate and that there is little control of such risks but man made risks could be attributed to either irresponsibility or negligence on the part of the provider. Also, the media today, influences many societies through the information that they send out. People's perceptions of risks and safety in destinations could be influenced by media coverage and how they 'hype' the situation there. Also some individuals have the notion that when a story is captured by the media, then it is real/true and this can affect whether such tourists will visit such a destination.

38

Types of Risk

The literature on various disciplines such as psychology, finance, tourism and the natural sciences has outlined many forms of risk. In tourism circles, Tsaur, Tseng and Wang (1997) have looked at tourist risk in particular. They explained tourist risk as the possibility of various misfortunes that might befall a tourist in the process of travelling to or at the destination. They outlined five main types of risk namely; functional risk, physical risk, financial risk, social risk and psychological risk.

Also, Fuchs and Reichel (2004) highlight eight main types of risk. These include socio-psychological risk which reflects the risk arising out of the backpacker's decision to take the trip; physical harm risk, which focuses on possible physical harm to the backpacker; and socio-political risk, which encompasses the fear of danger that stems from the political conditions of the destination. Other risk factors include; financial risk, which reflects the risk involved in selecting a particular destination, or in a broader sense, the probability that the backpacker's vacation will not provide value for the money spent. In tourism, financial risk could be explained as the possibility of a monetary loss in the backpacker's travel to a particular destination. Site-related physical risk captures the risk perception which stems from visiting particular destinations and expectations risk indicates the trip would fall short of the backpacker's expectations. The last two risk types are mass risk, which depicts the worry of over-commercialised and crowded sites; and behavioural risk, which represents the fear of the possibility of danger due to the backpacker's behaviour.

39

Fluker (2005) has a divergent view by delineating six different types of risks. These are financial risk, performance risk, physical risk, psychological risk- the fear that the product will not be compatible with the self-image of the consumer; social risk and time loss. He defined time loss as the possibility that the experience in a risky situation will take too long and waste time. Reisinger and Mavondo (2006) report that there are five main types of risks and these are; terrorism, war and political instability, health, crime and cultural difficulties whereas Nyskiel (2005) divides risk into only two types; external risk and internal risk. To him, some of the external risks are natural disasters, political unrests, terrorism, etc. while the internal risks consist of illness, drug taking, and abduction. Mitchell and Vassos (1997) identified a list of 43 risk factors, ranging from serious occurrences such as natural disasters, to minor matters like non-participation of a tour representative in activities. On the contrary, Reisinger and Mavondo (2005) spelled out thirteen travel risk types ranging from cultural to equipment/functional, financial, health, physical, political, psychological, satisfaction, social, airplane hijacking, bomb explosion, biochemical attack, to time.

Dolnicar (2005) examined various risks or "fears" in terms of both domestic and international markets. The major risk categories are political risk; terrorism and political instability; environmental risks such as natural disasters and landslides; health risk - including lack of access to healthcare and life-threatening diseases; planning risks - including unreliable airlines and inexperienced tour operators; and property risk, - including theft and loss of

40

luggage. Hall (2005) also categorised risk into financial risk, health risk, physical risk, crime risk, terrorism risk, social risk, psychological risk and risk of natural disaster.

Simpson and Siguaw (2008) propose ten different perceived risk categories. These are health and well-being, criminal harm, transportation performance, travel service performance, travel and destination environment, generalised fears, monetary concerns, property crime, concern for others, and concern about others. All these divergent views by the authors indicate the subjective nature of how risk is conceptualised. Various authors have their own conceptualisations of risk but the main ones that run through their various conceptualisations are physical risk, financial risk, health risk, psychological risk and social risk. Consequently, in tourism, these various categories of risk can be experienced in the industry, especially by backpackers.

Financial Risk

Financial risk represents the perceived likelihood of losing money resulting from service failure and/or the money from the replacement of the service (Jalilvand & Samiei, 2012). In the same vein, Fluker (2005) argues that it is the risk that the service purchased, may not be worth the money paid for or at least not the best possible monetary gain for the customer. In tourism circles, financial risk represents the possibility that the money invested into the tourists' travel to a particular destination may not yield its intended results or simply put, there will not be value for the money injected into the travel to the destination.

41

Physical Risk

Physical risk is the probability that, due to a service failing, the customer or tourist is physically injured or harmed. In the same vein, Fluker (2005) puts forward that physical risk is the likelihood of physical danger, injury or sickness that may occur to the individual. For instance, in tourism, physical risk could be explained as the likelihood that a tourist gets injured, falls sick or is physically harmed in the process of consuming a tourist product at the destination.

Psychological Risk

According to Jalilvand and Samiei (2012), psychological risk is the probability of losing self-esteem, resulting from a service or service failure. It is further explained as the risk of a negative effect on the consumer's peace of mind or self-perception as a result of the service performance (Boksberger & Craig-Smith, 2006). Again, it can be argued that psychological risk is the possibility that the experience encountered at the destination will not reflect the individual's personality or affect their state of mind negatively. To Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992), psychological risk reflects the anxiety or psychological discomfort anticipated from post-purchase reactions, such as worry and regret.

Social Risk

Social risk is the likelihood of embarrassment due to the selection of a particular service provider (Carter, 1998). It can be argued that social risk is whereby a customer may be affected in a negative way by the perception of other individuals about the tourist's choice of a destination. Similarly, Um, Chon and

42

Ro (2006) posit that social risk is the possibility that the experience will affect other people's opinions of the individual. In relation to tourism, social risk can be explained as a situation where the backpacker is affected by the perceptions and opinions of people such as friends and relations as a result of a particular choice of destination or their decision to embark on a trip.

Tourists' Typology and Risk Behaviour

Cohen's typology (1972) consists of a distinction between *institutionalised* and *non-institutionalised* tourist roles. Whereas the former is linked with a quest for familiarity, the latter is characterised by novelty seeking. The two categories were further categorised by Cohen (1972) into organised mass tourists (OMT) and individual mass tourists (IMT) within institutionalised tourism, and into explorers and drifters within non-institutionalised tourism. The term *organised mass tourists* refers to the least adventurous kinds of travelers, whose travels are entirely planned within the "environmental bubble". On the other hand, the term *drifters* refers to the most spontaneous and unconstrained kinds of travelers who tend to "stay away from the beaten track"- do away with regular tourist routes and use low-cost tourism facilities in trips that are mostly unplanned.

Going by Cohen's typology of tourist roles in terms of affinity for familiarity/novelty, Lepp and Gibson (2003) associate higher levels of perceived risk with organised and individual mass tourists. To them, what may be a source of concern for conventional mass tourists may be a source of excitement for explorers and drifters (akin to backpackers). This perspective confirms early

43

conceptualisations of non-institutionalised tourists as adventure seekers (Cohen, 1972; Vogt, 1976). Furthermore, it receives support from Elsrud (2001) who state that risk and adventure are integral to the make up of a backpacker. Specifically, it appears that backpackers' narratives tend to include accounts of their adventurous experiences as part of their attempt to differentiate themselves from conventional mass tourists (Elsrud, 2001). In effect, backpackers are associated with risk taking behaviour where they like to immerse themselves in the local culture of the destinations they find themselves whereas institutionalised tourists have an affinity for familiarity.

Similarly, Plog (2002), in his study of personality associated with travel, argued that travellers experience fear or attraction depending on their personality. On a continuum, he classifies travellers along with their motivations into three types. Firstly, allocentrics (akin to backpackers) who have been socialised in a context of security and comprise adventure and risk seekers. They also explore the chance to make contact with others. Secondly, psychocentric travellers who only travel the beaten paths, organize their journeys after investigating any security concerns, and often avoid personal contact with hosts and local communities; and lastly, midcentric travellers who are a combination of both typologies and represent the largest segment of travellers (Korstanje, 2009).

Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992) classified tourists into three main groups based on their perception of risk. These are *risk neutral*, *functional risk*, and *place risk* groups of tourists. To them, the risk neutral group does not consider tourism or their destination to involve risk. The *functional risk* group considered the

44

possibility of mechanical, equipment, or organisational problems as the major source of tourism related risk. The *place risk* group perceived vacations as quite risky and the destination of their most recent vacation as very risky. The risk neutral group of tourists can be likened to backpackers who emphasised more of a need to experience excitement and adventure when on vacation than the other two groups.

Backpackers' Sources of Information on Travel Related Risk

Cohen (2003) asserts that for many backpackers, the main purpose or allure is to have "hedonistic enjoyment, experimentation and self-fulfilment under relatively simple and affordable circumstances" (p.97). In order to achieve these goals, a backpacker might need to deal with and to make the best out of the trip; backpack travel therefore involves intensive information search activities (Chang, 2009). Backpackers in their quest to pursue their activities use various means to source information on their choice of accommodation, transport, food and travel safety. Various researchers have advanced various media through which backpackers access information on their travel safety.

Moshin and Ryan (2003) claim that major sources of information for backpackers are word of mouth (especially being the direct experiences of fellow travellers), the internet, and consulting travel guides, (the Rough Guide and Lonely Planet series are mentioned most frequently). The internet has served as an effective platform for backpackers to source vital information on their travels. Backpackers are able to access information through internet cafes along the

45

streets and towns and also through hand held devices such as Personal Digital Assistants (PDAs) (Kah, Vogt & Mackay, 2011). Backpackers use the internet to search for information back at their homes. The impact of pre-travel internet use upon real backpacker tourism may be modest, but on the road it is intense (Sorensen, 2003). Additionally, Murphy (2001) maintains that the exchange of information and experiences among backpackers, which constitutes their social interaction and identity, reinforces the awareness of certain routes which could be risky or otherwise.

Hunter-Jones, Jeffs and Smith (2008) report that backpackers who had no previous backpacking experience were less likely to take responsibility for their own safety, instead; they place a greater emphasis on the role of the travel intermediary to provide them information. This is also affirmed by Cavlek (2002) that "potential tourists view tour operators as strong signals of travel safety or risks" (p. 480). Tourists rely on their government's travel warnings, the media, and word of mouth when making travel decisions (Holcomb & Pizam, 2006). According to Nash et al. (2006), the most important sources of information for backpackers include maps, travel guidebooks, the internet, word-of-mouth and the Youth Hostel Association guidebook. Leggat, Mills and Speare (2007) postulate that sources of information on personal safety (in order of importance for British backpackers) include the internet, travel guidebooks, physicians and travel agents.

Similarly, in a study by Reid, Slaughter and Prideaux (2002), it came out that information from other backpackers (word-of-mouth) was the most popular source of information (92%), followed by friends and relatives (71%), guide

books (70%), and the internet (62%). Moreover, a previous study that Loker (1991) undertook before the Internet became a widely available public access resource found that word of mouth and guidebooks were the most commonly used information sources (Cooper, O'Mahony & Erfurt, 2004). Again, Reid, Slaughter and Prideaux (2002) observe that the internet has added a new dimension to word-of-mouth by enabling backpackers to share information electronically, including travel recommendations.

Chang (2009) adds that backpackers' source prior information on travel safety from their colleagues and relatives who have previously visited destinations, books, travel magazines and online through social network platforms. Again, he states that during the travel period, they look for recommendations from tourist information centres, local maps or other places such as hostels and transport stations where other backpackers congregate. In these places, backpackers exchange information through conversation. Similarly, Westerhausen and Macbeth (2003) and Keeley (2001) support this assertion by stating that the internet, guidebooks and word-of-mouth recommendations are considered to be of primary importance in backpackers' decision making. Recommendations made by backpackers to their fellow travelers might include opportunities to meet other backpackers in a social setting, sharing information on personal safety, accommodation, and other activities (Murphy, 2001).

On the contrary, Prideaux and Shiga (2007) maintain that sources of information considered valuable by Japanese backpackers include guidebooks, the internet, friends and family and brochures with newspapers being the least source

47

of information. Reichel, Fuchs and Uriely (2009) however have a different view with regards to this observation. They argue that Asian backpackers are associated with searching for travel information in magazines and to a lesser degree gathering information from friends. On the other hand, they state that South American backpackers prefer to search for information mostly in stores and other meeting places of backpackers, from travel guides, the internet and travel agents.

Risk Reduction Strategies

According to Fuchs and Reichel (2011), for over four decades consumer behaviour literature has been dealing with the theory of perceived risk. A common tenet in consumer behaviour is the consumer's need to mitigate the risk and uncertainty involved in purchasing a product or service. As soon as the consumer has experienced a certain level of risk, his/her behaviour changes from delaying the purchase to using strategies designed to reduce risk to a ''tolerable'' level (Fuchs & Reichel, 2011). The aftermath is that, these strategies may boost confidence in the outcome of the purchase and reduce the severity of the results in case of failure.

According to Mitchell, Davies, Moutinho and Vassos (1999); Byzalov and Shachar, (2004), risk reduction, or ''risk handling'', is most often described as a process by which consumers seek to reduce the uncertainty or consequences of an unsatisfactory decision. Again, they note that, uncertainty is usually reduced by obtaining additional information on a product and in this case the tourist obtaining

48

more information on risky areas or situations from either their colleagues or locals.

Mitchell (1993) surveyed factors that can influence the use of risk reduction strategies. He found age, socio-economic group, and education as factors with relatively consistent effects. He reported that the search and processing of information decline with age. Also, higher educational levels lead to increasing levels of searching, but not in all product categories. Mitchell also argues that consumers with high self-confidence tend to use more risk reducers than those with low self-confidence, and high-risk perceivers tend to use more risk reduction strategies.

In the context of tourism package purchases, Mitchell and Vassos (1997) found that the two most useful risk reduction strategies were reading independent travel reviews and purchasing some kind of travel insurance. On the contrary, Fuchs and Reichel (2006) distinguished between the behaviours of group and independent tourist segments in terms of risk perceptions and risk reduction strategies. According to their report, independent travelers mainly employed some risk reduction strategies such as inexpensive trip choices, internet information seeking, and preferences for short trips. In contrast, group travellers tended to acquire information about the destination through travel agents, the print and electronic media, and friends. In another study, Mitchell, Davies, Moutinho and Vassos (1999) postulate that risk reduction strategies, cited by some tourists, were reading independent travel reviews on the destination, purchasing travel insurance and personally seeking travel advice from the tour operator or travel agent.

49

According to Tideswell and Faulkner (1999), familiarity with a destination and information search behaviour might also be linked to risk reduction. However, Reichel et al. (2009) assert that searching for information on the selected destination from various sources or consulting with peers would serve to reduce risk perceptions. Chang (2009) adds that during their travels, backpackers search for information and get travel advice from other backpackers that will help them overcome problematic situations that might be encountered along their way.

To Mansfeld and Pizam (2006), tourists seek travel information from their peers as a form of risk reduction strategy. Again they assert that travel information is used as a 'substitute' to mitigate risk since the tourist cannot manipulate or evaluate with their senses, the consequences of their purchase. On the other hand, Hunter-Jones, Jeffs and Smith (2008) posit that safety precautions commonly noted by backpackers include not walking alone at night, leaving valuables in safety deposit boxes and wearing money belts. Interestingly, they report in their qualitative study that, backpackers, especially experienced ones, do not employ specific strategies to reduce risk as some cited reasons such as *'risk happens everywhere in the world*' and also *'it is out of their control*'. Hsu and Lin (2006) found that the most dominant strategy for reducing perceived travel risks is asking family or friends for advice. Western backpackers especially, those who are concerned about health risks, take precautions including malaria treatments, vaccinations, the use of mosquito nets and so on (Lepp & Gibson, 2003).

Theoretical Framework for the Study

There are theories that have sought to explain individuals' perceptions of risks. Some of these theories are, Prospect Theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979), Information Integration Theory (Anderson 1981), Catastrophe Theory (Svyantek, Deshon & Siler, 1991), Protection Motivation Theory (Rogers 1975), Psychometric Paradigm among others. These theories mainly explain how the individual/tourist makes the choice of a destination that they perceive as less risky based on options of destinations that are available to them.

However, Cultural Theory of Risk is seen to best explain how individuals perceive risks because it highlights the various factors- social and cultural that influence how individuals perceive risks before and even when they are in the process of consuming a product and in this case the tourism product/destination. Cultural Theory of Risk, which was developed by Douglas (1978), will form the theoretical basis for this study.

Cultural Theory of Risk

Cultural Theory of Risk is a general sociological theory which was propounded by Douglas (1978). The theory explains the differential reactions of people towards certain kinds of risk that they may be exposed to. According to the theory, people's perception of risk is linked with their social and cultural make up. Depending on whether one is socially participating and the group that they belong, one will focus on different kinds of risk. Wildavsky and Dake (1990)

51

posit that the Cultural Theory of Risk is aimed at predicting and explaining what kind of people will perceive which potential hazards to be how dangerous.

The Cultural Theory of Risk is based on Douglas' grid-group typology. Wildavsky and Dake (1990) are of the view that individuals, who are active organizers of their perceptions, choose what to fear and how much to fear it. The grid also shows that risk perception differs according to the social group and belief system which an individual belongs to. The dimension a person belongs to will guide their interaction with the environment. The theory groups individuals/tourists into individualists, egalitarians, hierarchists and fatalists. This implies that individuals/tourists perceive things that endanger their own way of life as risky.

According to the grid, individualists react to things that might obstruct their own freedom. The ultimate obstacle is war, where certain people are physically controlled by others (Bener, 2000). To them, anything that limits their freedom is regarded as a threat. In general, individualists see risk as an opportunity so long as it does not limit their freedom.

Another group that the grid establishes is the egalitarians. The egalitarians' view is different from the individualists in that the egalitarians see nature as fragile and vulnerable to human interventions (Bener, 2000). This makes them sensitive to pollution and new technologies that might change the state of nature and will generally oppose risk that might inflict dangers on many people or future generations (Tansey & O'Riordan, 1999). To such tourist, pollution and insanitary conditions or anything that might disrupt nature's offerings may be

52

perceived as forms of risk. Egalitarians are for example predicted to be more sensitive to large scale environmental and health related risk.

According to Douglas (1978), hierarchical cultures highlight the 'natural order' of the society and the perseverance of this order. They fear things such as commotion, demonstrations and crime. Also, hierarchists are most concerned with social issues such as mugging and terrorism which threaten their sense of order and security (Marris, Langford & O'Riordan, 1998).

Fatalists take little part in social life, though they feel tied and regulated by social groups that they do not belong to. This makes them quite unconcerned about risk. What they fear is mostly controlled by others (Bener, 2000). In general, fatalists try not to know or worry about things they think they cannot do anything about (Tansey & O'Riordan, 1999). Also, they believe that risk happens by fate and that they cannot control it.

Based on these groups and grid, the social and cultural make-up of the tourist will be the main driving force of how they will perceive risks at the destination. The tourists that like to take risks can be related to the individualist and the fatalists because they see risk taking as an opportunity and also are unconcerned about risk. Therefore, they would like to take it. Backpackers will predictably fall within these two categories.

Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 is an adaptation of Douglas' Cultural Risk Theory (1978) and Moutinho's (1987) Risk Perception Model. Two main underlying factors govern

53

backpackers' reaction and evaluation of risk according to the Cultural Risk Theory. These are cultural and social factors. Nationality is considered a proxy to the former and the latter is based on the social elements of the location that the individual finds himself or herself. In any case, the two broad rubrics mentioned are not mutually exclusive. Nevertheless, past studies (Brenot, Bonnefous & Marris, 1998), posit that aside nationality, other socio-demographic variables including age, gender, religion and educational attainment; and psychographic factors (motivations) have been found to be mediating issues to backpackers' perception of risk. Aside these, sources of information as well as travel experience have been noted, too. Drawing from the discussion, it implies that the Cultural Risk Theory fails to look at other factors that influence people's perception of risk and subsequently their risk reduction strategies. All the same, four main 'groups' (Individualists, Egalitarians, Hierarchists, Fatalists) of backpackers can be noted per their perception of risk (Douglas, 1978), which would subsequently inform their risk reduction strategies (Moutinho, 1987). It is therefore, the thrust of this study that backpackers to the Cape Coast-Elmina area can be segmented into the four risk groupings – and therefore will react and perceive risk in the area differently.
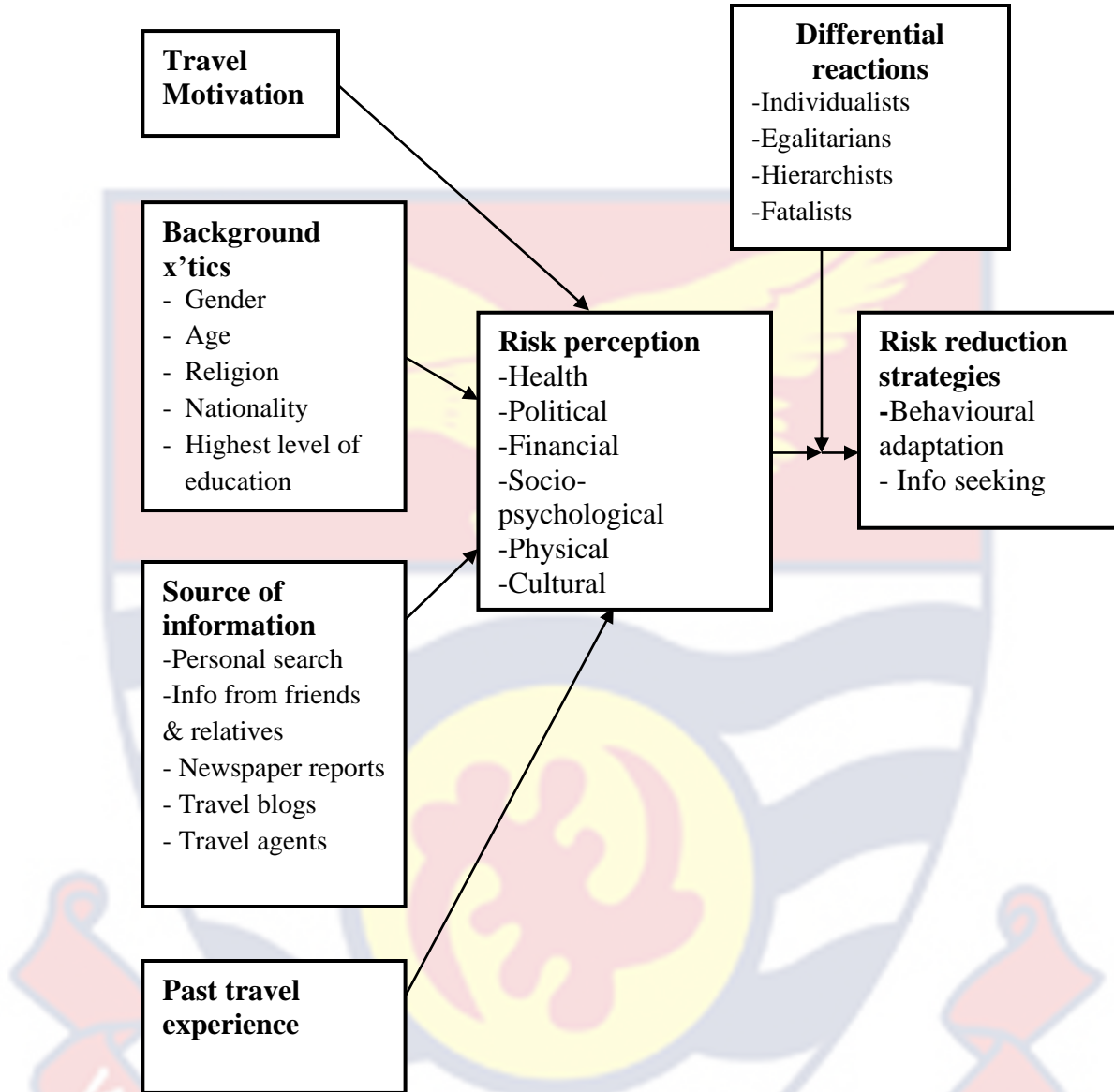
Figure 1: Risk Perception Model

Source: Adapted from Douglas (1978) and Moutinho (1987)

To this end, the insufficiency of the Cultural Risk Theory called for its modification (as shown in Figure 1) so that it could adequately guide this study. The adapted Risk Perception Model captures the independent variables which

55

include travel motivations, background characteristics, sources of information on travel related risks and past travel experience.

First, the model looks at the background characteristics of the backpackers. These are age, educational level, nationality, marital status, gender and religion. These features could influence the person's perception of risk and safety. For instance males may perceive risk differently from females. Also, people's age can influence their perception of risk in that; young backpackers between the ages of 18-30 may not take certain risks as a result of their inexperience in backpacking. Therefore certain reduction strategies may be employed during their trip. On the other hand, the aged (40+) tourist may be more receptive to risk because of their experience in backpacking. Also, people's perception of risks could be influenced by their nationality. Some tourists belonging to certain nationalities may be more particular about certain kinds of risks, whereas tourists from other countries may not. Hunter-Jones, Jeffs and Smith (2008) observe that British backpackers are more concerned about health risks than backpackers from other continents.

Backpackers have various motivations for travel. According to Cooper et al. (2008), motivation is concerned with causing a person to act in a certain way or to stimulate the person's interest. Some of the factors that motivate backpackers to travel include adventure, relaxation, new experiences, self-development and learning. These factors could also influence the tourist's perception of risk in the sense that, a tourist who is travelling purposely for an adventure or new experiences may be receptive to risk because of the thrills and sometimes the excitement associated with them. Similarly, a tourist whose motive is to travel for relaxation

may have a different perception of risk compared with the one who is solely travelling for adventure or for new experiences.

As regards information, the credibility of information that the tourist receives prior to the actual journey could influence their perception of risk. Some potential tourists who have heard bad news about a destination through their families and friend, blogs on the internet, newspaper reports and travel agents may brand such areas as risky. On the other hand, credible and good information about a destination will foster a low perception of risk. Again, tourists who receive credible information about a destination may not be shocked with what they see or encounter because sometimes, what they read about or hear is what they actually see. In such situations tourists may associate low risk with what they do because they are already aware or prepared for them. In this case the bottom line is that, if the potential tourists perceive the destination to be highly risky, then the travel may be terminated and if booked, cancelled. However, those who may decide to travel may devise some measures/strategies to reduce risks that they may be exposed to.

Also, past travel experience could influence people's perception of risk. The good and the bad experience that tourists get at destinations influence their perception of risks at those destinations or another destination of choice. For instance, if a tourist got robbed or got defrauded in Ghana during his/her last visit, their perception of risk about Ghana as a destination would be influenced by that experience they had and ultimately, they will devise measures or strategies to protect themselves against such risks that might arise. In the same vein, if they had

57

a nice time, devoid of any case of fraud or theft, then Ghana becomes the best option because little or no risk is perceived by the tourist.

Summary

This chapter reviewed related literature, an important component of the study. The chapter began, by making readers understand who the main subjects of study are by discussing several debatable views on the definition of a backpacker. The review suggests that 'backpacking' could be traced to the period of the Grand Tour, in the 16th century. It is argued that backpackers are not homogeneous as a group; hence, a critical look was taken of the typologies of backpackers from the perspective of different authors. Also the kinds of risk that several authors have identified were discussed in this chapter as well as backpackers own construction of risk. Some risk reduction strategies discussed in this chapter were word-of-mouth recommendations, information search on the internet, not walking alone at night, keeping money in safe places among others. The chapter also discussed backpackers' motivation for travelling as well as the conceptual and theoretical frameworks guiding this study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter provides information on the techniques and methods, approach that was used to select respondents and analyse the data. Specifically, it describes the study area, study design, research paradigm, data and sources, target population, sample size determination and sampling procedures/techniques. Other issues discussed include the data collection instrument, recruitment of field assistants, pre-testing of instrument, fieldwork and challenges, ethical issues, and data processing and analysis.

Study Area

Cape Coast is the capital of the Central Region of Ghana and it is located about six kilometres east of Elmina. The city is located at the southern part of Ghana and has numerous tourist attractions, making it a very suitable area for the study. Being a coastal city, the major economic activities of the people are fishing and fish mongering by men and women respectively.

As a tourism hub, Cape Coast has a number of tourism resources and products such as hotels, restaurants, craft shops, transportation businesses among others. Tourist attractions include Cape Coast Castle, Fort Victoria, the Omanhene's Palace (Emintsimadze), Oguaa Fetu Afahye and PANAFEST which is celebrated biennially (CCMA, 2006). The most prominent historical attraction

59

(Cape Coast Castle) receives great numbers of both domestic and international tourists each year (GMMB, 2012). In addition to these, Cape Coast boasts a rich history with regards to the Trans- Atlantic slave trade. Therefore, not only in-bound tourists but domestic tourists and other excursionists visit the town to listen to and learn about the history of the Slave Trade.

Being the first European settlement in West Africa, Elmina is well noted for its historical attractions; namely the Castle, Fort St. Jago, Elmina Java Museum and the Dutch Cemetery (Arthur & Mensah, 2006). Aside these attractions, the town boasts other tourism related facilities such as restaurants, and well known hotels such as Elmina Beach Resort and Coconut Grove Hotel. The town, as a result of its historical and other attractions, receives a number of tourists (both domestic and international) each year (GMMB, 2012). Just like Cape Coast, tourists are also drawn to Elmina to learn the history of the Slave Trade. The town is predominantly inhabited by Fantes. Economically, the people of Elmina engage in fishing, vegetable production, canoe and boat building, salt mining, trading and tourism. Fishing is the predominant economic activity and it provides both direct and indirect jobs to about 75 per cent of the inhabitants of Elmina (Arthur & Mensah, 2006).

Figure 2: Map of Cape Coast-Elmina Area

Source: Remote Sensing and Cartographic Unit, University Cape Coast, 2013.

Cape Coast and Elmina were deemed suitable for the study because of the following reasons;

Firstly, over the years, statistics from the Ghana Tourism Authority has shown that Cape Coast and Elmina are two towns that receive a substantial number of tourist arrivals to the country. Abane, Awusabo-Asare and Kissi (1999)

61

estimate that Cape Coast receives at least half of all in-bound tourists. Also, the towns are endowed with a variety of attractions (historical, ecological and cultural); notable among them being the UNESCO (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation) heritage sites - Elmina and Cape Coast Castles - which attract a number of tourists worldwide. Aside the castles is PANAFEST (Pan African Historical Theatre Festival) which is celebrated biennially to attract tourists especially African-Americans who wish to trace their roots to Africa. Lastly, there is Oguaa Fetu Afahye- a festival which is celebrated annually by the people of Cape Coast. This festival also draws a number of tourists both domestic and inbound, to witness the culture of the people of Cape Coast between the months of August and September.

Secondly, a survey by Dayour (2013) indicates that some service providers in the Cape Coast-Elmina area, in addition to the mainstream lodging facilities, provide separate facilities for backpackers or budget travellers. The provision of these facilities by service providers perhaps indicates the presence of backpackers in these areas, thus, these areas are seen as a haven for backpackers to lodge and carry out their activities

Lastly, Boakye (2012) opines that the Cape Coast- Elmina area is noted as a budget destination, therefore, it has become appealing to tourists such as backpackers. The points noted above suggest that the Cape Coast-Elmina area is suitable for conducting this study.

62

Research Design

The research design for the study is descriptive (non-experimental) since it does not allow for any manipulation of the key variables. A descriptive design describes and interprets what exists. Again, descriptive research design focuses on "what" is going on. It describes the situation or the phenomenon as it exists and does not focus on 'causes'. According to Creswell (2003), a descriptive study design is concerned with conditions or interrelationships that exist, opinions that are held, processes that are going on, effects that are evident, and trends that are developing.

Descriptive research design was considered for this study because the objectives of the study were to examine backpackers' travel motivations, identify the sources of information on travel related risk, assess the nature of risk that backpackers perceive in the Cape Coast-Elmina area, and lastly, to explore their risk reduction strategies.

Data and Sources

The study adopted both primary and secondary data sources for data collection. Primary data on backpackers' travel motivations, risk perception, information seeking behaviour, risk reduction strategies among others was sourced from backpackers in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. Secondary information, such as the list of budget accommodation facilities in the Cape Coast-Elmina area was obtained from the Central Regional Office of the Ghana Tourism Authority in Cape Coast. This data (list of budget accommodation facilities) assisted the

researcher in the selection of budget accommodation facilities (areas where backpackers were contacted).

Secondary information on international students was also obtained from Ghana Museums and Monuments Board (GMMB) in Cape Coast. This data was used as a proxy for calculating the sample size for the study because the literature states that backpackers are usually young student travellers. The literature on risk perception, motivations for travel, risk reduction strategies as well as the historical perspectives of backpacking was sourced from books, journals and the internet.

Target Population

The target population for the study was inbound backpackers, who visited Cape Coast and Elmina between November 2013 and January, 2014. According to Maoz (2007), backpackers are predominantly of Western origin although the vast majority comes from Canada, North America, Australia, New Zealand, the Netherlands and Western and Northern Europe.

Sample Size for the Study

Fisher, Laing, Stoeckel and Townsend's (1998) formula was used to calculate the sample size. This formula is used when the target population is less than 10,000. Data obtained from the Ghana Museums and Monuments Board (GMMB) (2013) in Cape Coast suggests that international arrivals for student tourists in Cape Coast and Elmina between November and December 2012 stood

64

at 6,253. According to GMMB, there is no existing data specifically for backpackers in Cape Coast and Elmina. Therefore, data on international students to the Castles was used as a proxy to calculate the sample size for this study. This reflects what the literature suggests - that backpackers are usually young student travellers (Hottola, 1999; Kontogeorgopoulos, 2003; Noy, 2004; Muzaini, 2006; Huang, 2008).

It must be noted that the figure obtained from the GMMB might not be a true reflection of all the arrivals in 2012 since the data was only collected from the two main attractions namely, Cape Coast and Elmina Castles. Therefore, tourists who might have visited other areas either than these two attractions were not captured.

Fisher et al.'s formula is given as:

$$n_f = \frac{n}{1 + \frac{n}{N}}$$

Where:

n_f = the desired sample size (when population is less than 10,000),

n = the desired sample size (when population is greater than 10,000),

N = the estimate of the target population size.

In order to get 'n', Fisher et al. (1998) provided another formula, which is:

$$n = \frac{z^2\,pq}{d^2}$$

Where:

n = the desired sample size when the population is more than 10,000

65

z = the normal standard deviation, usually set at 1.96 which corresponds to 95% confidence level;

p = the proportion of the target population that has similar characteristics;

q = 1.0 minus 'p' and

d = the margin of error which is equal to 0.05

If the z-statistic is equal to 1.96, margin of error (d) equals to 0.05% and the proportion of the target population with similar characteristic (p) equals to 85% (0.85), then (n) is:

$$n = \frac{(1.96)^2 \, (0.85) \, (0.15)}{0.05^2}$$

$$= \ 196$$

A calculated n=196 was obtained. According to GMMB (2013), international student arrivals stood at 6,253 between November and December, 2012 (estimate of the target population size or 'N') therefore substituting 'n' and 'N' into the formula, the sample size for the study was calculated as follows:

$$n_f \ = \ \frac{196}{1 + \dfrac{196}{6253}}$$

$$= 190$$

The (n_f) calculated is 190. This therefore explains that the calculated sample size for this study will be 190 backpackers. An extra 10 (5% of the original sample size) was added to cater for errors and non-responses that occurred in some instruments.

In all a sample size of 200 was used, however, 187 questionnaires were found useful for the study representing a response rate of 94%. The discussion on

how large a sample size should be largely remains unresolved with researchers coming out with varying figures. Hair, Black, Babin Anderson and Tatham (2006) argue that for effective statistical analysis to be conducted, reliable estimates can be obtained from samples above 150.

Sampling Procedures/Technique

According to Richards and Wilson (2004), backpackers are very mobile; therefore, an effective way of contacting backpackers is through hostel facilities at tourists' destinations. Similarly, Dayour (2013) targeted backpackers in the Cape Coast-Elmina area at budget accommodation facilities which yielded reliable data. Accordingly, this study adopted their approach and targeted respondents in budget lodging facilities in the study area.   A sampling frame of 38 budget accommodation facilities was thus obtained from the Ghana Tourism Authority in Cape Coast. Using the lottery method of the simple random sampling technique, 11 budget accommodation facilities in Cape Coast and 3 in Elmina were selected for the study. The differentials in the samples for the accommodation facilities in the two areas were due to proportionate allocation. The allocation was arrived at based on the percentage each area contributed to the total number of accommodation facilities in the area. Proportional samples were then allocated to the sampled budget accommodation facilities based on the average number of guests received monthly within each facility (Table 1).

67

Table 1: Average Monthly (November to January) Customer Turnover

Accommodation Facilities	Location	Number of guest Received	Proportion
1. Sammo	Cape Coast	300	26
2. Oasis Beach Resort	Cape Coast	320	28
3. Mudek	Cape Coast	250	22
4. Mighty Victory	Cape Coast	100	9
5. Amkred	Cape Coast	160	14
6. Sarah Lotte	Cape Coast	150	13
7. Kofgan	Cape Coast	150	13
8. Almon Tree	Elmina	150	13
9. Haizel Lodge	Cape Coast	150	13
10. One Africa	Elmina	150	13
11. Grass Root	Elmina	100	9
12. Pakap Lodge	Cape Coast	100	9
13. Saint Guest House	Cape Coast	100	9
14. Kakumdo Lodge	Cape Coast	100	9
Total sample size		2280	200

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The selected facilities were then visited and upon an initial probing by the researcher to ascertain whether potential respondents considered themselves as backpackers, questionnaires were finally administered to those backpackers by using the convenience sampling technique.

68

Instrument for Data Collection

In conformity with the positivist paradigm, a questionnaire (with both open and close ended questions) was administered to backpackers in various 'areas/facilities' where backpackers were found. Questionnaire was preferred because inbound tourists who visit Ghana can somewhat read, understand and write in English. Also, the use of questionnaire helps ensure the independence and anonymity of respondents in the study.

In terms of structure, the instrument consisted of five modules, the first module solicited respondents' sources of information on travel safety in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. This included information sources such as personal search, newspaper reports, international television channels and friends and family who have visited the Cape Coast-Elmina area. The second module dealt with questions relating to risk reduction strategies. Respondents were asked whether they consider travel to Ghana risky. Also a question on respondents' strategies employed to reduce risk was included.

Module three covered the perception of backpackers on risk and safety in Cape Coast and Elmina. The risk perception part of the instrument was an adaptation of Fuchs and Reichel's (2004) questionnaire on risk dimensions which measure destination risk perceptions. The adaptation was done to situate the questions to reflect the Ghanaian context. Respondents were therefore asked to indicate their extent of agreement (either Yes or No) with six main risk factors namely; health, political, financial, socio-psychological, physical harm and cultural.

69

The fourth module centred on backpackers' motivation to travel to Cape Coast and Elmina. In this module, respondents were asked about their motivation for travelling to the Cape Coast-Elmina area. They were also asked about their travel itinerary - the activities that they undertook in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. Some filter questions such as how the respondents describe themselves, their choice of accommodation facility and how they evaluate themselves in terms of risk taking were solicited to ascertain whether the respondents exhibit the characteristics of a backpacker.

The final module touched on the background information of respondents and variables such as age, sex, highest level of education, country of origin, religion, marital status and occupation were solicited. Other questions such as respondents' purpose of visit and the kind of accommodation patronised most during their stay were also solicited.

Recruitment of Field Assistants and Pre-testing of Instrument

A total of three field assistants were recruited and trained on the rudiments of field work that took place on 29th November, 2013. The field assistants assisted with the administration of the questionnaire. Respondents were informed of the purpose of the study before copies of the questionnaire were handed over to them. The entire fieldwork lasted six weeks from 23rd November 2013 to 5th January 2014 with the researcher himself participating in and supervising the process.

Pre-testing of the instrument was conducted on twenty (20) backpackers in Cape Coast on 6th and 7th November, 2013. This exercise was vital because it

70

afforded the researcher the opportunity to do away with improperly worded questions and other questions which were not clearly understood by the respondents. It also helped the researcher to assess the feasibility of the area for the study. Besides, it threw light on some of the problems that were likely to be encountered during the actual study.

Fieldwork and Challenges

Data collection poses some challenges and this survey was not an exception. Nevertheless, some of the challenges encountered were addressed. Firstly, some respondents declined to participate in the study because they had the presumption that the researcher came to solicit money from them. This is attributed to the fact that, the 'beach boys' and other locals usually solicit money from tourists with the use of cards that they call 'scholarships'. This made some potential respondents alert upon seeing the researcher with a questionnaire because they had the presumption that it was a scholarship card. In this instance, the researcher had to introduce himself and clearly explain the purpose of the research to them and yet, some still declined to participate in the study.

Secondly, some respondents who decided to take the questionnaire away and fill them never returned the questionnaire. The researcher was therefore compelled to reprint some questionnaire to make up for the 'lost' ones. Also, some respondents decided to tear off some pages of the instrument. Their reasons for taking such an action remain unknown to the researcher.

71

Moreover, the inability of some respondents to read and comprehend English was another challenge. This resulted in some of the questionnaire being partially answered. The researcher was therefore compelled to discard those partially filled questionnaire.

Lastly, the owners of some accommodation facilities did not allow the researcher to administer the questionnaire to potential respondents in their facilities. They indicated that they wanted to safeguard their guests and so they did not want to allow 'intruders' into their facilities. Again, some stated that previous researchers did not give them feedback on the surveys that they conducted in their facilities. To tackle this challenge, an official letter from the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, University of Cape Coast was shown as proof of the Department's consent and backing. Consequently, the researcher was allowed access to some of these facilities. In spite of all these challenges during the data collection exercise, it must be emphasised that quality was not compromised.

Ethical Issues

This study adhered to ethical issues such as informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality. Informed consent according to Payne and Payne (2004) implies a responsibility on the researcher to explain as fully as possible, and in terms meaningful to participants, what the research is about, who is undertaking and financing it, why it is being undertaken and how it is to be promoted. Informed consent was sought from respondents and facility owners, before

72

undertaking the research. The purpose of the study was made known to them, but respondents who declined to participate were not forced or unduly influenced to participate in the study.

Secondly, the issue of anonymity was also ensured. The principle of anonymity, according to Babbie (2007), essentially implies that the participant will remain unknown throughout the study; even to the researchers themselves. Respondents were assured of their anonymity since names and other personal details were not associated with specific responses given.

According to Trochim (2006), the participant must be assured that any identified information which they make available will not be made known to anyone who is not directly involved in the study. For this study, respondents were assured of their confidentiality; the information they provided was not to be passed on to any third party other than its intended purpose, which is an academic exercise.

Data Processing and Analysis

Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS) version seventeen (17) was used to analyse the data from the field. The data was subsequently screened, coded and entered into the SPSS software for further processing and analysis.

Descriptive statistical presentations which included averages, bar charts, cross-tabulations and frequencies were presented to display various background characteristics of respondents among others. Inferential statistical measures included Chi Square Test of Independence which was used to test for association

73

in backpackers' background characteristics by their perception of risk. The Factor Analysis Model (a data reduction technique) was used to draw out the various risk factors perceived by backpackers in the Cape Coast-Elmina area.

Summary

The researcher discussed the methodology used in the research in this chapter. The chapter discussed issues relating to the study area. The study employed the descriptive research design. Again, a quantitative method of data collection and analysis was employed. In addition, the chapter also discussed the target population, sample size, sources of data and sampling procedures. The instruments for data collection as well as how the data was to be analysed and presented were also discussed. Lastly, the pre-test, the entire fieldwork and the challenges encountered as well as ethical issues were considered. The next chapter presents the results and discusses the findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the data that is in line with the objectives of the study. It begins by providing a description of the background characteristics of backpackers who visited the Cape Coast-Elmina area in Ghana. Again, it also looks at backpackers' travel motivations, backpackers' information seeking behaviour, risk perceptions, and risk reduction strategies. Lastly, the chapter analyses the nature of risk that respondents are exposed to in the Cape Coast-Elmina area.

Background Characteristics of Backpackers

A number of writers such as Pearce (1990), Loker-Murphy and Pearce (1995), Markward (2008) and Hannam and Ateljevic (2008) have given various definitions of backpackers. Those definitions that have been put forward by these authors have either profiled backpackers based on their age, education, occupation/profession, travel characteristics, motivations for travelling or expenditure patterns.

In the same vein, the background characteristics of backpackers used in this study are sex, age, highest level of education, religion, country of origin,

75

profession and marital status. Table 2 therefore provides an overview of the background characteristics of backpackers to the Cape Coast-Elmina area.

Table 2: Background Characteristics of Backpackers

Background characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Sex		
Male	73	39.2
Female	114	61.3
Total	187	100.0
Marital Status		
Married	24	12.8
Unmarried	163	87.2
Total	187	100.0
Age		
<20	63	33.7
20-29	82	43.9
30-39	33	17.6
40+	9	4.8
Total	187	100.0
Highest level of education		
Senior High School	51	27.3
University/College	104	55.6
Post Graduate	32	17.1
Total	187	100.0
Profession		
Student	96	51.3
Sales/Marketing	7	3.7
Educator	16	8.6
Students in gap year	36	19.3
Professional/technical	32	17.1
Total	187	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The figures from Table 2 clearly indicate that there were more females (61.0%) than males (39.0%) in the study. This therefore differs from the findings

76

of Sorensen (2003) and Reichel et al. (2009) which indicated the dominance of males over female backpackers. However, other studies suggest that there is almost an even distribution of male and female backpackers (Uriely, Yonay & Simchai, 2002; Slaughter, 2004; Rogerson, 2007; Prideaux & Shiga, 2007). On the other hand, this finding is supported by Murphy (2001), Paris and Teye (2010), Paris (2010) and Dayour (2013) who observed a growing number of independent female backpackers who are taking trips across the African continent.

Marital status is another characteristic that is used to identify a backpacker. It is evident from Table 2 that the majority of the backpackers (87.2%) were unmarried. Again, this is supported by the works of Richards and Wilson (2004), and Paris and Teye (2010) that most backpackers are unmarried. This can be attributed to the fact that 'young adults' mostly have free time at their disposal and a curiosity for novelty with little or no marital commitments back at home (Cooper et al., 2008). They therefore get enough time to undertake their backpacking activities, not having to think of their spouses and children.

With regard to the age of backpackers, Table 2 indicates the dominance of those aged between 20 and 29 (43.9%) which is closely followed by those aged less than 20, which is at 33.7%. Pearce (1990), Rogerson (2007) and Paris (2010) suggest that most backpackers are usually young travellers between the ages of 20 and 29. The 'grey gappers' (Rogerson, 2007) - the over 40 age group appears to be a marginal segment of the inbound backpackers visiting the Cape Coast-Elmina area. On the whole, the average age of the inbound backpackers to Cape

Coast and Elmina was calculated as 25 years. Again, this further explains that most of the backpackers in this study are 'young' travellers (Loker-Murphy & Pearce, 1995).

In general, all the backpackers had attained some level of formal education. Table 2 clearly shows that, majority of the respondents (55.6%) possessed a university/college degree. Again, 27.3% of the respondents had attained Senior High School qualification whereas about 17 per cent had post graduate education. This is akin to Rogerson's (2007) observation that majority of backpackers had attained tertiary qualifications.

A little more than half of the backpackers (51.3%) were students with about 19 per cent falling in the 'gap year' category. This finding is in consonance with Godfrey's (2011) affirmation that most backpackers are students. Also Muzaini (2006) and Huang (2008) assert that backpackers usually consist of young 'white' individuals who are predominantly students who go on extended journeys. In the same vein, Boakye (2012) observes that Ghana is gradually becoming a preferred destination for educational tourists. The 'students in gap year' means the period in-between Senior High School and university where young people, who have just completed school, decide to travel for an extended period before taking up a job (Dayour, 2013). Professionals/technicians followed next with 17.1 per cent. The least profession in this study was sales and marketing (3.7%).
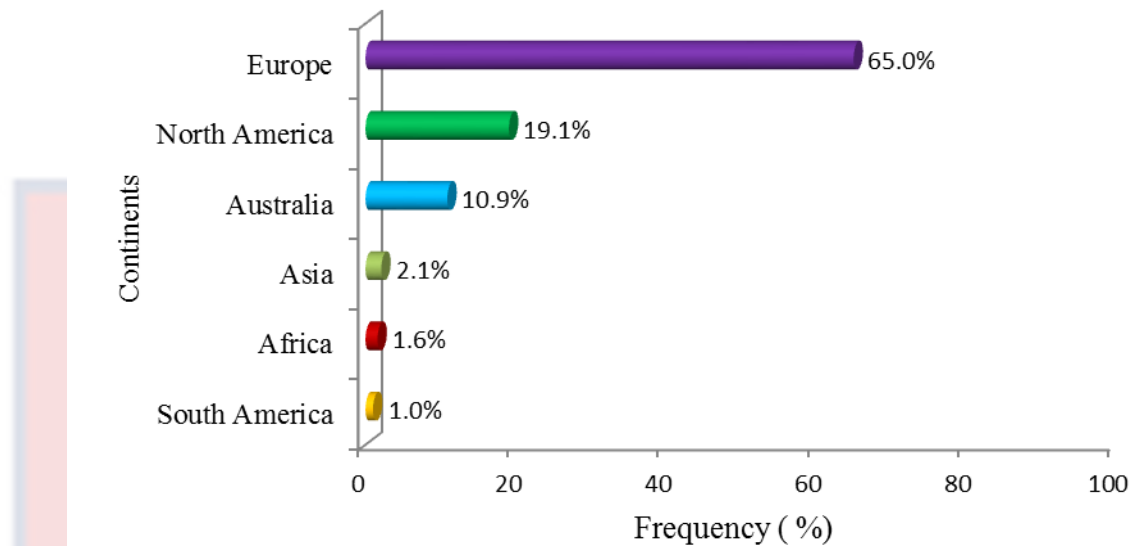
Figure 3: Backpackers' Continent of Origin

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Figure 3 shows that majority (65.0%) of backpackers originated from Europe. This finding is in tandem with that of the figures of GTA which shows that over the past five years, majority of the inbound tourists to Ghana were from Europe. Specifically, in 2011 about 33 per cent of all inbound tourists to Ghana were Europeans with Germans being the majority (GTA, 2011). Again, Cohen (2004) asserts that most backpackers are of European origin. The study also found North Americans as the next highest with about 19 per cent, and followed closely by Australians (10.9%). Maoz (2007) also observes that backpackers have historically been mainly of Western origin with the majority coming from Western Europe, North America, Australia and New Zealand. This assertion is clearly evident in this study. Bhatia (2006) further argues that Europe and North America are widely recognised as leading tourist generating regions globally. The

79

low figure reported by Africans validates the assertions of Sindinga (1999) and Boakye (2012) that Africans rarely travel for tourism-related purposes.

According to Leslie and Wilson (2005) and Dayour (2013), backpackers are gradually shifting from being a homogeneous segment consisting of youngsters to a segment with diverse profiles. This notwithstanding, the findings from this study indicates that although there are some differences in their background characteristics, the backpacker segment is fairly homogeneous.

Travel Characteristics of Backpackers

In relation to background characteristics, the study also identified the travel characteristics of backpackers to Cape Coast and Elmina. Travel characteristics are key constituents of tourists' behaviour (Cooper et al., 2008) hence backpackers have peculiar travel characteristics such as sources of information, preference for individual tours, accommodation used, length of stay, mode of transportation, and the degree of institutionalisation which help in identifying them. Table 3 therefore presents an insight into the travel characteristics of backpackers to Cape Coast and Elmina.

From Table 3, about a half (50.7%) of the backpackers indicated that their purpose for visiting Cape Coast and Elmina is leisure whereas 45.5% visited for educational purposes. This finding is consistent with Markward (2008) who found that most backpackers to Australia visit for leisure purposes.

80

Table 3: Backpackers' Travel Characteristics

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Purpose of visit		
Leisure	77	50.7
Education	69	45.4
VFR	6	3.9
Total	152	100.0
Type of accommodation		
Guest house	80	45.4
Budget hotel	39	22.2
Hostel	57	32.4
Total	176	100.0
Mode of transport		
Public transport	156	84.3
Rental car	11	5.9
Walking	9	4.9
Private car	5	2.7
Tour bus	4	2.2
Total	185	100.0
Means of transport to Ghana		
Airplane	170	91.9
Bus/coach	11	5.9
Backpacker tour bus	4	2.1
Total	185	100.0
Nature of tour		
Individually organised trip	151	86.8
Package tour	23	13.2
Total	174	100.0
Length of stay in Ghana		
1 week	26	13.9
2weeks	18	9.6
3weeks	22	11.8
1 month	31	16.6
More than one month	90	48.1
Total	187	100.0
Travel Experience		
First timers	162	86.6
Repeat visitors	25	13.4
Total	187	100.0
Travel Itinerary		
Yes	73	39.0
No	114	61.0
Total	187	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2014
(Differences in totals are as a result of missing cases)

According to Richards and Wilson (2004), backpackers mostly travel for leisure purposes. Also, the desire for real experiences feature strongly in their quest to travel to budget destinations. To Boakye (2012), Ghana is recognised as a budget destination and it clearly falls under the ambit of backpackers who have the desire to travel for leisure. It is therefore not surprising to note that majority of the backpackers to the Cape Coast-Elmina area visited for leisure purposes. On the other hand, since the sample was dominated by students and those in their post- student gap year, it is not surprising that 45 per cent came purposely for both formal and informal education. Formal education in this context refers to students who came to study in educational institutions as part of their exchange programmes whereas informal education consists of those who also came for adventurism. It could therefore be conjectured that perhaps, they still have that urge to study and learn more from Ghana especially the history of the Trans-Atlantic Slave Trade.

With regards to the most preferred accommodation type, most backpackers (45.4%) lodged in guest houses, followed by hostels (32.4%) and budget accommodation facilities (22.2%). Pearce (1990), Loker-Murphy and Pearce (1995), Richards and Wilson (2004) assert that backpackers prefer to lodge in budget accommodation facilities. Guest houses are accommodation facilities that provide basic furnishing and very limited or no facilities, amenities and guest services (GTA, 2007 cited in Mensah, 2009). Again, their charges are not as expensive as the star rated ones in Ghana. Moreover, they are usually ranked above budget accommodation facilities but lower than 1 star hotels. The

82

backpackers' preference for guesthouses could imply their sensitivity to the standards of accommodation facilities in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. Whilst they may prefer to spend as little as possible for accommodation, they also want value for money and may not always choose the cheapest accommodation facility available. Again, it could be conjectured that perhaps, the issue of security is one of the key reasons why backpackers prefer guest houses to other low cost accommodation facilities. This is because guest houses are assumed to have some level of safety and security mechanisms in place to cater for their guests; backpackers therefore felt more secure lodging there. Another reason could be the fact that, according to Dayour (2013), there is quite a sizeable number of guest houses, budget accommodation and hostel facilities in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. Therefore, it is not surprising to find most backpackers patronising those accommodation facilities.

The backpacker profile was also evident in their transport choice. From Table 3 it appears that more than three quarters of the backpackers (84.3%) patronised public transport services whenever they were in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. In fact, as components of the public transport services, quite a number of the respondents indicated that they patronised taxis and 'trotro' (a relatively inexpensive public transport means in Ghana). Only a marginal number used private cars (2.7%) and tour buses (2.1%) in the area. In congruence with the assertions made by Moshin and Ryan (2003), Noy (2004) and Chang (2009) public transport systems are usually important to backpackers. It is observed that taxis are one of the commonest and efficient modes of transport in Cape Coast

83

and Elmina. Therefore there is the likelihood for backpackers to patronize them. It was therefore not out of place to find majority of backpackers using this mode of public transport. On the other hand, it could be argued that perhaps backpackers feel more secure in patronising public transport because they are not likely to be defrauded or robbed of their possessions unlike in private cars for example. Again, it affords them the opportunity to interact more with the other passengers and familiarise themselves with the local terrain.

In terms of responsibility for planning and organisation of trips, majority (86.8%) of the backpackers who were surveyed planned and organised their own trips. About 13 per cent of them patronised the services of travel consultants, such as tour operators and travel agents. The result confirms Westerhausen's (2002) conclusion that most backpackers organise trips by themselves. It can also be argued that since most of the backpackers were found to be students, a number of them relied on information from the Internet which enabled them to plan and organise their own trips. Again it is argued that, characteristically, backpackers (risk seekers) immerse themselves in the local culture and experience authenticity (Richards & Wilson, 2004). Therefore, they plan and organize their own trips in order to have the real experience at the destination. It must be noted that packaged tours are mostly patronised by mass tourists (Cohen, 2003).

In terms of length of stay of backpackers in the country, almost half (48.1%) of the respondents did say they intended to stay for more than one month whereas a little above one- tenth (13.9%) planned to stay for a week. This finding validates the claims by Pearce (1990) and Dayour (2013) that most backpackers

84

stay for more than a month at their chosen destinations. Again it could be conjectured that perhaps, backpackers perceive the Cape Coast-Elmina area as generally safe and welcoming which allows them pursue their backpacking activities. Also, they may see the area as a relatively inexpensive destination and therefore plan to spend more weeks there.

By and large, it is explicit from Table 3 that majority of the backpackers (86.6%) were visiting the country for the first time whereas 13.4 per cent were repeat visitors. This result could be used to argue that, perhaps, based on the good experiences of earlier backpackers to the country, they have marketed it through positive word-of-mouth and recommended it to their peers to come and enjoy the warmth and hospitality nature of Ghanaians. In the same vein, Bigne, Sanchez and Sanchez (2001) assert that backpackers seek out variety and prefer to visit new destinations; however, based on their satisfaction, they recommend the previously visited one to their peers.

With regard to their use of a travel itinerary, majority (61.0%) indicated that they travelled without any fixed itinerary. This finding is in consonance with that of Pearce (1990) and Loker-Murphy and Pearce (1995) that backpackers do not have fixed travel schedule. This means that the backpacker's stay and movements in the study area were entirely planned and controlled by themselves. Backpackers are therefore able to go wherever they want to go, eat their choice of food at their preferred time, lodge in their self-arranged accommodation facility and visit attractions at their own convenience.

85

Information Seeking Behaviour of Backpackers

Another constituent of backpackers' travel characteristics is information search. Table 4 sheds light on backpackers' information seeking behaviour which touches on the sources of information backpackers gather on travel related risk and safety in the Cape Coast-Elmina area.

Table 4: Backpackers' Information Seeking Behaviour

Information sources	Frequency	Percentage
Internet search	200	34.6
Newspaper reports	15	2.6
International television channels	12	2.1
Foreign missions	30	5.2
Word-of-mouth from family and friends	274	47.5
Travel agents/Tour operators	46	8.0
Total	577*	100.0

*Multiple responses

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Sources of information are indispensable in the tourist decision making process. The credibility of the sources of information that the backpacker possesses could influence their perception of a particular destination. Chang (2009) posits that during travel, backpackers search for information and get travel advice that will help them overcome problematic situations that might be encountered along their way from other backpackers.

86

Six main sources of information on travel related risk were identified in this study. They ranged from internet search to information from travel agents. It is evident from Table 4 that majority (47.5%) of the backpackers stated that word-of-mouth recommendations from family and friends was the most reliable source of information on travel safety. The importance of this source of information has been recognised by Reid et al. (2002) and Chang (2009) who noted that backpackers' source for information on travel related risk from their colleagues and relatives who had previously visited destinations. Again, about 35 per cent indicated that they searched for information on travel related risk on the internet whereas the least was that of international television channels (2.1%). It is suggested that destination marketers could channel their marketing efforts through the internet to target more backpackers and other tourists as this study has shown that a number of them source information form the internet.

Backpackers Background Characteristics by Information Sources

Table 5 presents a cross tabulation of backpackers background characteristics and sources of information.

With regard to sex, it emerged from the study that about three quarters (73.5% and 73.8%) of both male and female backpackers searched for information on travel related risk on the internet. According to Bell (2008), most backpackers personally search for information on the internet and word-of-mouth recommendations.

87

Table 5: Backpackers' Profile by Information Sources

Background Characteristics	N	Internet search		Newspaper reports		Television channels		Foreign missions		Word-of-mouth from F&F		Travel agents	
		Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %	Yes %	No %
Sex													
Male	73	73.5	26.5	14.4	85.5	7.5	92.5	22.7	77.3	76.8	23.2	23.9	76.1
Female	114	73.8	26.2	3.8	96.2	5.8	94.2	11.5	88.5	80.7	19.3	25.4	74.6
Total	187												
Marital Status													
Married	24	75.0	25.0	14.3	85.7	10.0	90.0	25.0	75.0	86.3	13.7	35.0	65.0
Unmarried	163	73.4	26.6	7.9	92.1	6.7	93.3	15.5	84.5	78.9	21.1	24.6	75.4
Total	187												
Age													
<20	63	66.6	33.4	4.9	95.1	-	100.0	17.0	83.0	83.6	16.4	23.4	76.6
20-29	82	75.7	24.3	7.6	92.4	9.3	90.7	11.8	88.2	73.7	26.3	26.9	73.1
30-39	33	78.1	21.9	10.3	89.7	10.3	89.7	20.7	79.3	83.3	16.7	20.7	79.3
40+	9	80.0	20.0	28.6	71.4	16.7	83.3	33.3	77.7	83.3	16.7	33.4	66.6
Total	187												
Highest level of education													
Senior High School	51	63.1	36.9	8.6	91.4	4.4	95.6	19.5	80.5	80.8	19.2	29.8	70.2
University/College	104	76.3	23.7	8.2	91.8	8.6	91.4	12.7	87.3	81.0	19.0	23.9	76.1
Post Graduate	32	77.7	22.3	8.0	92.0	4.0	96.0	24.0	76.0	65.3	34.7	24.0	76.0
Total	187												

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

88

Again, Fuchs and Reichel (2006) suggest that independent travellers (risk seekers) mainly employ personal information seeking strategies whereas group travellers (risk averse) acquire information through travel agents, the print and electronic media, and foreign missions. A fairly fewer number of backpackers utilised information from newspapers.

Another pattern was realised when it came to word-of-mouth recommendations. It is evident that majority of both sexes (76.8% and 80.7% respectively) utilised this information source. About a quarter of the male backpackers sourced information from travel agents. Lastly, only a marginal number (7.5% and 5.8%) gathered information from international television channels. It could be argued that perhaps backpackers deem the information received from their colleagues and relatives as a true picture of what pertains in the destination rather than information on international television channels for example. Reid et al. (2002) assert that backpackers source information on travel safety from their colleagues and relatives who had previously visited destinations.

With regard to marital status, it is explicit from Table 5 that about 75 per cent of the male respondents utilised the internet for information on travel related risk. Similarly, about three quarters of the female respondents sourced information on travel related risk on the internet. On information sourced from newspapers, it came out that about a quarter of both married and unmarried backpackers utilised this source. Again, marginal numbers emerged (10.0% and 6.7%) when it came to information from international television channels. With regard to word-of-mouth recommendations, Table 5 indicates that more than three

89

quarters of the married backpackers patronised this source. The same applied to the unmarried ones as about 79 per cent of them also utilised this information source.

Age is another background characteristic that was used to juxtapose the various information sources. It is evident from Table 5 that for those aged below 20 years, majority of the respondents (66.6%) sourced information from the Internet. Again, only a moderate number (4.9%) utilised information from newspapers. On the contrary, more than three quarters (83.6%) of the respondents utilised word-of-mouth recommendations from their colleagues and family. The story was different when it came to information from travel agents. It was realised that 23.4% of the respondents relied on this source.

Furthermore, for those aged 20-29, it was revealed that majority (75.7%) of the respondents utilised information from the internet. Again, it emerged that a moderate number (7.6%) relied on information from newspapers. About 74 per cent of the backpackers who were surveyed indicated that they relied on word-of-mouth recommendations from their family and friends. As regards those aged 40+, the results were similar to the different age categories as majority (80.0%) utilised the internet. About 33 per cent of the grey gappers relied on information from travel agents.

Lastly, it is evident from Table 5 that as regards respondents' highest level of education, majority (66.7%) of those who had attained had Senior High School qualification searched for information on travel related risk on the internet. In the same vein, about 81 per cent sourced information from their peers and family. On

90

the contrary, moderate numbers (8.6% and 4.4%) of the respondents utilised information from newspapers and international television channels. On the part of the university graduates, about three quarters (76.3%) also utilised the internet for information on travel related risk. Again, about 66 per cent of the backpackers relied on first-hand information from their family and friends. For the post-graduates, the study revealed that 65 per cent utilised word-of-mouth recommendations from their colleagues and family who probably might have visited the Cape Coast-Elmina area.

Backpackers' Travel Motivations

Table 6 sheds light on a cross tabulation of backpackers' background characteristics and travel motivation. The various travel motivations included historical, ecological, adventure, relaxation, education, VFR and volunteering. It came out from the study that a chunk of the backpackers visited the Cape Coast-Elmina area for historical and ecological reasons.

With regard to sex and historical motives, it was realised that, majority (52.3%) of the male backpackers were attracted to the area to learn about the history of the Trans Atlantic Slave Trade. Similarly, about 35 per cent of the female backpackers visited the Cape Coast-Elmina area for historical reasons. This finding supports Dayour's (2013) affirmation that most backpackers to the Cape Coast-Elmina area are attracted to historical sites. Notable among the historical sites visited were the three main UNESCO-designated World Heritage Monuments - Cape Coast Castle, Elmina Castle and Fort St. Jago. In the words of

91

Akyeampong and Asiedu (2008), forts and castles in Ghana are integral in the country's historical resources.

Another pattern was realised when sex was tied with ecological motives. It is evident from Table 6 that about 18 per cent of the male backpackers that were surveyed indicated that ecological motives were stimulus for their visit. The story was similar to that of the females as a quarter of them (25.0%) were attracted to ecological sites. This result was found to be consistent with an observation made by Morgan, Pritchard and Piggott (2002) that one of the spurs of backpacker's visit to New Zealand is the beauty of its natural environment. On the whole, about 14 per cent and 20 per cent of both male and female backpackers respectively came to the Cape Coast-Elmina area to relax.

With regards to marital status and historical motives, Table 6 shows that more than half of the married backpackers were attracted to the Cape Coast-Elmina area to visit historical sites and learn about the history of Cape Coast and Ghana at large. Again, about 20 per cent of the respondents came to relax. It was clear that about 10 per cent of the backpackers came to the Cape Coast-Elmina area for education which included research and study and another 10 per cent for VFR. On the part of the unmarried ones, an interesting pattern was realised as majority (37.1%) visited for historical motives, 25.8% for ecological motives and 18.2% for relaxation.

Table 6: Background Characteristics by Travel Motivations

Background characteristics	N	Historical %	Ecological %	Adventure %	Relaxation %	Education %	VFR %	Volunteering %
Sex								
Male	73	52.3	18.5	1.5	13.8	3.1	9.2	1.5
Female	114	35.0	25.0	1.0	20.0	8.0	10.0	1.0
Total	187							
Marital Status								
Married	24	55.0	5.0	0.0	20.0	10.0	10.0	0.0
Unmarried	163	37.1	25.8	1.5	18.2	6.1	9.8	1.5
Total	187							
Age								
<20	63	28.6	25.0	0.0	25.0	12.5	7.1	1.8
20-29	82	33.3	30.6	2.8	16.7	2.8	12.5	1.4
30-39	33	79.3	3.4	0.0	10.3	0.0	6.9	0.0
40+	9	71.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	14.3	14.3	0.0
Total	187							
Highest level of education								
Senior High School	51	34.8	26.1	0.0	17.4	8.7	8.7	4.3
University/College	104	41.1	23.2	2.1	17.9	5.3	10.5	0.0
Post Graduate	32	70.0	15.0	0.0	10.0	0.0	5.0	0.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

93

Age is another variable that was juxtaposed with travel motivation. From Table 6, it is evident that for those aged below 20, about 29 per cent were interested in visiting historical sites. Again, about a quarter of those surveyed indicated that ecological resources were a spur for their visit. The same percentage (25.0%) travelled for relaxation motives. For those aged between 20 and 29, the study found that 33.3% came for historical motives. About 31 per cent were attracted to visit the ecological resources of the country whereas 16.7% came for relaxation. About 13 per cent came to visit their family and friends. On the part of those aged 30-39, it was realised that an overwhelming majority (80.0%) were attracted to the area to learn about the history of the Trans Atlantic Slave Trade and also visit historical sites. Again, 10.3% indicated that relaxation was a stimulus for their visit to the Cape Coast-Elmina area. For the grey gappers, about three quarters visited for historical motives.

With regard to the respondents' highest level of education and their travel motivation, Table 6 indicates that about 35 per cent of those who had attained Senior High School qualification visited for historical motives. Again, 26.1% were attracted to ecological sites while 17.4% came for relaxation. On the part of the University graduates, the story was similar to that of the Senior High School graduates as 41.1% indicated that they were attracted to visit historical sites. Again, about 23 per cent preferred to enjoy the beaches of Cape Coast and Elmina while a little less than 20% came to relax. For the post-graduates, the result was similar to the Senior High School and University graduates as about three quarters (70.0%) indicated that historical motives were a stimulus for their visit. About 15

94

per cent visited for ecological motives whereas 10 per cent also visited for relaxation.

Backpackers' Travel Motivations by Risk Perception

A cross tabulation of various motivational factors by risk perception of backpackers to the Cape Coast-Elmina area is shown in Table 7. It emerged that out of the 187 backpackers that were surveyed, a bulk of them did not associate risk with their travel motivations.

Table 7: Travel Motivations by Risk Perception in the Cape Coast-Elmina Area

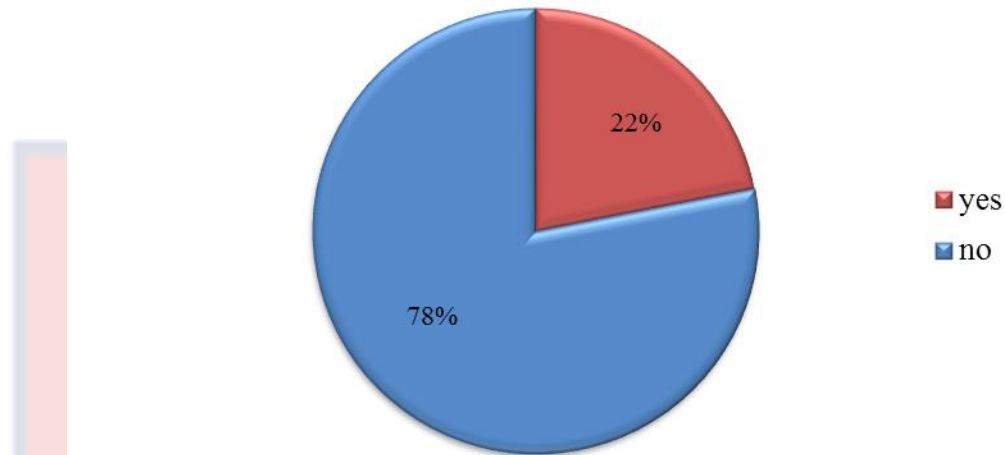|	N	Risky	
Motivation	(187)	Yes	No
Historical and heritage	69	28.4	71.6
Ecological motivation	38	23.7	76.3
Adventure	29	50.0	50.0
Relaxation	23	17.2	82.8
Education	10	0.00	100.0
VFR	4	25.0	75.0
Volunteering	14	0.00	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Table 7 shows that most backpackers (71.6%) who travelled for historical and heritage reasons did not perceive the Cape Coast-Elmina area as risky. It

95

could be conjectured that perhaps these backpackers basically visited historic sites and probably learnt about the history of the slave trade which did not really involve too much of risk taking. Similar to those who came for historical motives, it was revealed that about 76 per cent of the respondents who came for ecological motives also felt that the Cape Coast-Elmina area is not risky.

Interestingly, about a half of the adventure seekers associated some levels of risk with the destination. This could be argued that perhaps backpackers perceive some levels of risk because of the associated levels of thrills and excitement involved in taking adventure. More importantly, it could possibly be as a result of the nature of their activities that they engage in such as eating local foods, drifting to the core areas of the local neighbourhoods among others which made them think that perhaps they were at risk than those who came for other motives. Lastly, for those who visited their family and friends, only a quarter attributed some levels of risk with the area.

Risk Perception

With regard to risk perception, backpackers to the Cape Coast-Elmina area were asked whether they considered their travel to Ghana as risky. Figure 4 explicitly shows that a bulk of the backpackers (78%) did not consider their travel to Ghana as risky whereas less than a quarter of them (22%) affirmed that Ghana was a risky destination.

Figure 4: Backpackers' Risk Perception

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

This suggests that, generally, the backpackers that were surveyed felt that Ghana is not a risky destination. Lepp and Gibson (2011) state that most backpackers, - akin to Cohen's (1972) drifters, perceived less risk related to international travel because, to some, they had already visited riskier destinations. The result of this study is in tandem with that of Boakye (2012) who stated that most tourists to Ghana perceived it as safe.

As regards the minority that considered Ghana as risky, the story was quite different. Reasons cited in the follow up open ended questions include malaria (22.9%), poor road networks (14.6%), incidences of theft and mugging (14.6%), unfamiliarity with the local terrain (12.5%) and reckless driving (6.2%).

97

Nature of Risks Backpackers Perceive in Cape Coast and Elmina

This study examined backpackers' perception of risk in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. As noted earlier, the study adapted Fuchs and Reichel's (2004) risk factors to suit the context of the study. Risk factors such as health related, political, financial, physical harm and cultural risks were used for the study. Respondents were therefore asked to indicate which factors they perceived to be of risk. It must be noted that the table constitutes the proportion those who responded in the affirmative. The results are therefore presented in Table 8.

With regard to health and related risk, out of the five items that were identified, majority of the backpackers (56.1%) indicated that there were poor sanitary conditions in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. This finding is also consistent with Boakye's (2012) observation that poor sanitation was the most disliked aspect of the tourist experience in Cape Coast and Elmina. Arthur and Mensah (2006) also observe that most places in the Cape Coast-Elmina area are polluted. Another important concern expressed by backpackers regarding the Cape Coast-Elmina area was the prevalence of tropical diseases such as malaria, cholera and diarrhoea (46.3%). It could be conjectured that, there are probably inadequate waste disposal bins at vantage points in these towns. Residents and other inhabitants in these areas are compelled to dump refuse indiscriminately which ultimately gives rise to such tropical diseases highlighted above. Again, about 37 per cent stated that there were severe pollution levels in the Cape Coast- Elmina area whereas a moderate number (17.1%) thought that the foods sold along the streets and town were unhygienic (Table 8).

98

Table 8: Nature of Perceived Risks by Backpackers in the Cape Coast -

Elmina area

Risks	Frequency	Percentage
Health and related risks		
Poor sanitation	23	56.1
A lot of tropical diseases	19	46.3
Severe pollution levels	15	36.5
High rate of car crashes	9	21.9
Unhygienic foods	7	17.1
Political risks		
Human trafficking	4	9.7
Civil Strikes	2	5.0
Political unrest	1	2.4
Financial risks		
Deception	15	36.5
Exposure to corrupt officials	14	34.1
High cost of living	13	31.5
Physical harm risks		
Crime	11	26.8
Physical assault	6	14.6
Terrorism	2	4.8
Natural disasters	1	2.4
Cultural risk		
Strange language	10	24.4
Primitive cultural practices	7	17.1
Unfriendly people	2	4.9

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

On the issue of political risk, the study showed that more than half of the backpackers saw Cape Coast and Elmina as politically stable. Only a little less than a quarter of the backpackers felt that there were some issues with political instability in the country. Furthermore, a modest number (9.7%) felt that there is human trafficking existing in these areas.

As regards financial risk, it is clear from Table 8 that less than a half (36.5%) indicated that there were some tricksters who could financially dupe

99

them of their money. Reasons cited include, traders and taxi drivers having different prices for goods and fares for locals and foreigners (tourists). Again, this finding is consistent with Boakye's (2012) results that taxi drivers were accused of "charging arbitrarily high prices because visitors to the study area are white" (p.6). About 32 per cent felt that the cost of living in Ghana is high.

From Table 8, it is evident that although a number of the backpackers did not attribute Ghana with high incidence of physical harm risks, some of them showed some few concerns. Explicitly, about 27 per cent thought that crime happened in the Cape Coast- Elmina area. This finding somewhat agrees with Boakye's (2012) finding that about 13 per cent of tourists to Ghana felt that there is crime although the vast majority thought otherwise. Also, 14.6 per cent indicated that they could be physically assaulted. Boakye (2012) cites some reasons for physical assault as "too many people grabbing your arm" and "people forcing tourists to buy their wares by touching them" (p.332).

By and large, most of the backpackers did not really see culture as much of an issue. This suggests that a bulk of the respondents that were surveyed were able to adapt or cope with the culture of Ghanaians without experiencing a lot of difficulties. Out of the number that had some concerns with the culture of Ghanaians, about 24 per cent indicated that they were not familiar with the various local languages whereas about 5 per cent felt that Ghanaians are not friendly enough.

100

Backpackers' Background Characteristics by Risk Perception

Overall, apart from profession, Table 9 did not show significant differences between the various background characteristics of backpackers and their perceptions of risk in Cape Coast and Elmina. Table 9 presents a summary of the analysis of the background characteristics of backpackers by their perception of risk.

With respect to the sex of the backpackers, there was no significant difference in the perception of males and females at a significance level of <0.05. Specifically, both sexes males (16.4%) and females (25.2%) were of the view that it was risky travelling to Ghana. On the contrary, majority (86.3%) of the male backpackers admitted that it was not risky travelling to Ghana with about 75 per cent of the females also affirming this observation. The position then is that, there is no association between backpackers' perception of risk as regards gender. This result is therefore in congruence with that of Sonmez and Graefe (1998) and Lepp and Gibson (2011) that gender does not influence an individual's perception of risk.

It is evident from Table 9 that there is no significant difference in the perception of risk among the various age groups. Out of the young (aged <20), only 24.2% perceived Cape Coast and Elmina as risky with the majority (75.8%) not claiming so. Again, with regard to the dominant age category (20-29) of the backpackers, 20.7% perceived the study area as risky whereas 79.3 per cent did not. From Table 9, not even the elderly (aged 40+) perceived the study area to be risky.

101

Table 9: Backpackers' Background Characteristics by Perception of Risk

Characteristics	Yes N	Yes %	No N	No %	X^2	p-value
Sex						
Male	12	16.4	61	86.3	1.999(df =1)	0.157
Female	28	25.2	83	74.8		
Total						
Marital Status						
Married	4	17.4	19	82.6	0.284 (df=1)	0.59
Unmarried	35	22.3	122	77.7		
Total						
Age						
<20	15	24.2	47	75.8		
20-29	17	20.7	65	79.3	0.494 (df =3)	0.92
30-39	7	21.9	25	78.1		
40+	1	14.3	6	85.7		
Total						
Highest level of education						
Senior High School	13	27.1	35	72.9	1.246(df=3)	0.74
University	22	21.4	83	78.6		
Post Graduate	6	21.4	22	78.6		
Total						
Continent of origin						
Europe	27	22.9	91	77.1		
North America	5	14.7	29	85.3	5.190(df=6)	0.92
Australia	7	35.0	13	65.0		
South America	1	50.0	1	50.0		
Asia	0	0.00	1	100.0		
Total						
Profession						
Student	20	22.2	70	77.8		
Educator	6	37.5	10	62.5		
Sales/marketing	0	0.00	7	100.0	12.02 (df=4)	0.01*
Professional / technical	2	6.2	30	93.8		
Total						
Travel experience						
First timers	38	23.9	121	76.1	1.766(df =1)	0.18
Repeat visitors	3	12.0	22	88.0		
Total						

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

This finding from the study suggests that age is not associated with backpackers' perception of risk in Cape Coast and Elmina. This is in agreement to an earlier observation made by Sonmez and Graefe (1998) that age does not influence an individual's perception of risk.

Marital status equally did not influence perception of backpackers with regard to risk in Cape Coast and Elmina (*p-value* = 0.59). It is explicit from Table 9 that less than a quarter (17.4%) of the backpackers who are married perceived travel risks associated with Cape Coast and Elmina whereas 22.3 per cent of the unmarried also attested to the fact that travel to Ghana is risky. On the contrary, majority of the married (82.6%) did not associate Ghana with risk as well as 77.7 per cent for the unmarried. Again, this study did not return significant association as regards marital status and risk perception in Cape Coast and Elmina.

Again, it appears from the findings that education did not produce significant association with risk. It is evident from Table 9 that 72.9 per cent of those who had Senior High School qualification did not see Ghana as risky. The finding produced the same percentages for those who had both university and post graduate qualifications (78.9%). This further affirms that generally Ghana is not perceived as a risky destination.

With regards to respondents' continent of origin, the study did not produce significant association (*p* = 5.190) when this variable was juxtaposed with risk perception. On the part of the Europeans, majority (77.1%) did not attribute Ghana with risk although about 23 per cent did so. About 85.3 per cent of the backpackers from North America alluded to the fact that Ghana was not risky

103

whereas 14.7 per cent indicated otherwise. Interestingly, all the respondents from Asia stated that travel to Ghana was not risky.

The only socio-demographic characteristic that produced significant association when juxtaposed with risk was profession ($p = 0.01$). From Table 9 it is evident that, more than a third of the students (77.8%) indicated that Ghana was not risky whereas about 22 per cent did. In the same vein, about 62 per cent of the backpackers who were educators acknowledged that Ghana was not risky whereas a moderate percentage (37.5%) stated otherwise. Again, it is also not surprising to note from the study that about 94 per cent of the backpackers who were in the professional working category also indicated that Ghana is not risky.

Lastly with regard to backpackers' travel experience, 76.1 per cent of the first time travellers to Ghana acknowledged that Ghana is not risky although about 24 per cent considered travel to Ghana risky. Similarly, as regards those who had the experience of travelling to Ghana, more than a third (88.0%) agreed that Ghana is safe; however 12.0% of them indicated otherwise.

The study showed that apart from profession, other background characteristics and travel experience did not return significant association with risk perception. This conclusion suggests that, to an extent, some background characteristics of backpackers have an association with risk perception, as suggested in the adapted conceptual framework (Douglas, 1978 & Moutinho, 1987).

Perceived Risk Factors

Following the assessment of backpackers' perception of risk, it was then of essence to take a further look at the major underlying risk factors that were perceived by backpackers after visiting the Cape Coast-Elmina area. Accordingly, an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used following Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson's (2010) recommendation that it is a colossal data reduction technique, which prioritises components and their underlying variables.

As a lead up to employing FA in this study, the sampling adequacy and the factorability of the data were examined to ensure that all assumptions were met for the FA. For this study, the Bartlett's test of Sphericity (1149.655) was found to be very significant at ($p = 0.00$). Also, the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) coefficient of 0.703 confirmed the suitability of the PCA technique on the data. To Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), the Bartlett's test of sphericity should be significant (p<0.05) for the FA to be considered appropriate while the KMO index ranges from 0-1, with 0.6 recommended as the minimum value .

Again, the Cronbach's Alpha, a scale reliability measure, was used to determine the extent to which the risk variables contribute in explaining a dimension. For this study, the reliability of the scale ranged between 0.711 and 0.864. Pallant (2005) maintains that for a good scale reliability, the Cronbach' Alpha coefficient should be significant at ($\alpha \geq 0.70$). Subsequently, the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation (using Kaiser Normalisation) was performed on the twenty nine (29) explanatory variables. Also, correlation matrixes of ≥ 0.4 components with eigenvalues of ≥ 1.0 were retained. The output

105

showed a reduction in the variables from twenty nine (29) to eleven (11), forming

three (3) main underlying uncorrelated risk constructs which accounted for

backpackers' risk perceptions in the Cape Coast- Elmina area.

Together the factors explained 49.08 per cent of the total variance,

implying that 50.92 per cent of other perceived risk factors of backpackers could

not be accounted for. The factors, however, contributed differently to the

explanation of the total variance (Table 10).

Table 10: Exploratory Risk Factors Perceived by Backpackers

Risks	Loadings	Eigen values	% of Variance Explained	Cronbach Alpha
Health and related risks				
Severe pollution levels	0.774			
Poor sanitary conditions	0.702			
Unhygienic foods	0.670	4.61	22.86	0.864
High rate of car crashes	0.485			
A lot of tropical diseases	0.427			
Financial risks				
Cheats	0.769			
Tricksters	0.741	2.37	15.97	0.760
Crime				
Exposure to corrupt officials	0.753			
Physical assault	0.719	1.68	10.25	0.711
Civil strikes	0.668			
Total variance			49.08	

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sample Adequacy = 0.703, Bartlett's

Test of Sphericity (Approx. X^2) = 1149.655, P = 0.000

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The first factor (I) labelled as 'health and related risks' embraced issues

such as severe pollution, poor sanitary conditions, unhygienic foods, high rate of

106

car crashes, and prevalence of tropical diseases. This factor explained 4.61 (22.86%) of the total variance. This factor explains the backpackers' sensitivity to the environment in the Cape Coast- Elmina area. This is evident in Arthur and Mensah's (2006) observation that the Cape Coast-Elmina area has a polluted fishing harbour, the beaches covered with waste and a general poor drainage system.

Ultimately, this finding has implications for policy making as authorities and stakeholders in the Cape Coast-Elmina area must work hard and keep the city tidy by employing various waste management strategies such as providing waste bins at vantage points, educating the residents on proper disposal of waste among others. Linking this finding to the adapted conceptual framework, it is evident that majority of the backpackers who were surveyed exhibited egalitarian tendencies (Douglas, 1978) who are proposed as sensitive to the environment.

Factor two (II) captured concerns relating to 'financial risks'. These included cheats and tricksters. The factor explained 2.37 (15.97%) of the total variation of the risk perceived by backpackers in the Cape Coast- Elmina area. It could be conjectured that backpackers perceived themselves to be at risk financially because of some reported cases of some kinds of fraud against visitors to the country and on the internet (cyber fraud). Apparently, this made them think that they were likely to encounter such incidents here. This issue has in a way dented the image of the country. Most importantly, some reports have indicated the predominance of some cyber fraud and cheating in the Central and Greater Accra regions of Ghana. It is therefore not surprising for backpackers to perceive

107

themselves as being financially at risk in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. A consequence is that, over a long period of time, backpackers may choose alternative destinations that may offer them some reliance in terms of their finances.

Finally, Factor three (III) drew variables such as exposure to corrupt officials, physical assault and civil strikes from the other risk factors. It is labelled as 'crime'. The total variation explained was 1.68 (10.25%). This finding goes on to validate Boakye's (2012) observation of the existence of crime against tourists in Ghana. This factor explains that backpackers to the area perceived that there were some cases of physical assault and subsequently potential exposure to some corrupt security officials. Perhaps, backpackers had been exposed to or heard about some assault or criminal cases which were not handled to their satisfaction. They therefore have the perception that the security agencies are corrupt and inefficient.

This finding is synonymous with the hierarchists group in the Cultural Risk Theory. This group highlights the natural order of the society and they fear such things as social commotion, demonstrations, and crime. Also, hierarchists are most concerned about social issues such as mugging and terrorism which threaten their sense of order and security.

Sequentially, the eigenvalues for all the three (3) uncorrelated factors ranged (Factor I: 4.61, Factor II: 2.37, Factor III: 1.68). On this ground, it is sufficient to conclude that backpackers to the Cape Coast-Elmina area were most sensitive to issues of health, followed by financial risk and lastly crime. Again,

108

the use of the risk types/dimensions in the adapted conceptual framework yielded some results since the EFA produced three main perceived risk factors in the Cape Coast-Elmina area.

Risk Typology

Cooper et al. (2008) assert that typology is a method of sociological investigation that seeks to classify tourists according to a particular phenomenon. Accordingly, authorities such as Cohen (1972) have classified tourists based on their degree of institutionalisation, Plog (1972) their personality traits and Roehl and Fesenmaier (1992), pleasure travellers. Invariably, these categorisations that have been brought forward have also looked at tourists' inclination towards risk taking. Carr (2001), Elsrud (2001), Lepp and Gibson (2003) and Paris and Teye (2010) have indicated that naturally, backpackers have the preference for novelty.

For this study, backpackers to the Cape Coast-Elmina area were profiled based on their affinity for novelty and familiarity. Figure 5 clearly shows that, out of the total of 187 backpackers that were interviewed, majority (82%) considered themselves as novelty seekers.

109
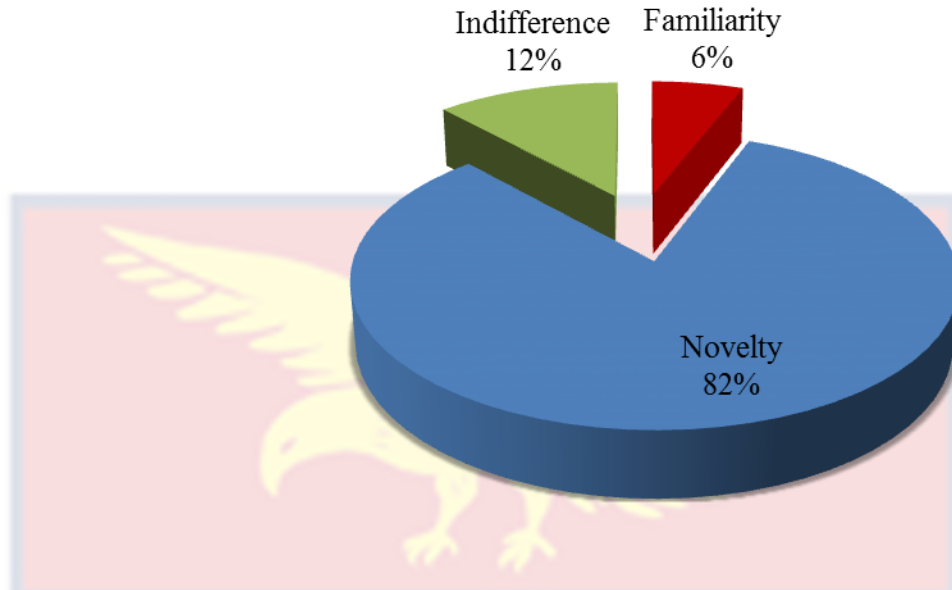
Figure 5: Backpackers' Risk Typology

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

This result affirms Elsrud (2001) and Lepp and Gibson's (2003) proposition that risk taking and novelty seeking is central to the construction of the backpacker's identity. In the same vein, novelty seekers can be linked with Roehl and Fesenmaier's (1992) risk neutral group of tourists who emphasize more of a need to experience excitement and adventure when on vacation.

Furthermore, with regard to the proposition made by Plog (1972) on his tourist typology, the findings of this study agree that most backpackers- akin to allocentrics, have the inclination for risk taking. Similarly, linking this result with Cohen's (1972) classification of tourists, most backpackers exhibited the traits of the non-institutionalised tourists who prefer the novelty and stay off the beaten track.

110

Again, it is evident from Figure 5 that less than a quarter of the backpackers (12%) stated that they are indifferent to risk. Indifference, in this context, implies the backpacker's propensity to take risk and seek novelty in moderation. Lastly, a modest number (6%) indicated their dislike for taking risk.

With respect to the issue of travel related risk, the revealed differences in the backpackers' evaluation with regard to risk in this study also suggest that in addition to the heterogeneity of backpacking as a type of tourism (Uriely et al., 2002), there is a certain level of heterogeneity in terms of their total inclination towards risk and novelty seeking. Although majority (82%) of the backpackers in this study indicated their affinity for risk, the other segments indicated their dislike and indifference towards risk. This agrees with Reichel et al.'s (2007) observation that contemporary backpacking is becoming less distinct from the institutionalised form of tourism where backpackers exhibit the characteristics of Cohen's (2003) drifters but their modus operandi with regard to risk is similar to that of the explorers who seek some level of familiarity.

Risk Profile of Backpackers

Table 11 provides an insight into backpackers' profile in terms of the types of risk. It is evident that more females (65.3%) than males (34.7%) were sensitive to health risks. Health risks embraced issues such as insanitary conditions, prevalence of tropical diseases, severe pollution levels and unhygienic foods. This finding is similar to that of Lepp and Gibson (2003) who found that

111

female backpackers were more concerned with issues of health and food than their male counterparts.

Table 11: Backpackers' Profile by Types of Risk

Background characteristics	N	Health risk %	Political risk %	Financial risk %	Physical harm risk %	Cultural risk %
Sex						
Male	16	34.7	100.0	65.3	41.7	15.4
Female	25	65.3	-	53.3	58.3	84.6
Total	41	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Marital Status						
Married	5	18.8	100.0	18.2	27.3	23.1
Unmarried	36	81.2	-	81.8	72.7	76.9
Total	41	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Age						
<20	14	30.6	33.3	40.0	25.0	23.1
20-29	18	46.9	66.7	44.4	50.0	61.5
30-39	7	18.4	-	11.1	16.7	7.7
40+	2	4.1	-	4.4	8.3	7.7
Total	41	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Highest level of education						
Senior High School	11	22.4	66.7	33.3	16.7	23.1
University	22	55.1	33.3	53.3	75.0	61.5
Post Graduate	8	22.4	-	13.3	8.3	15.4
Total	41	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Continent of origin						
Europe	26	55.1	66.7	60.0	66.7	30.8
North America	7	22.4	-	13.3	16.7	38.5
Australia	5	16.3	33.3	22.2	16.7	30.7
Asia	1	-	-	2.2	-	-
Africa	1	4.1	-	2.2	-	-
South America	1	2.0	-	-	-	-
Total	41	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

112

Linking this finding to the adapted conceptual framework, it could be argued that the female backpackers exhibited egalitarian tendencies since these are proposed to react more to issues of sanitation and pollution that can threaten their health (Douglas, 1978).

As regards political risk, the males overwhelmingly outnumbered the females. Political risk also looked at issues such as human trafficking, civil strikes and political unrest. Again it could be argued that the male backpackers had some traits of the individualists as stated in the conceptual framework. Individualists are the ones who react to issues of war or anything that limits their sense of freedom. Financial risk was also tied with sex of the respondents. It was realised from Table 11 that female backpackers perceived it was less of a risk than their male counterparts.

With regards to marital status and risk type, more unmarried (81.2%) than married (18.8%) had issues with health risk. Linking this finding with the Cultural Risk Theory, it could be argued that the unmarried backpackers showed some traits of the egalitarians who are sensitive to the environment and health. More females (81.8%) than males (18.2%) were found to perceive higher levels of financial risk. Similar findings were returned when it came to physical harm risk. About 73 per cent of the unmarried backpackers associated higher levels with physical harm risks. The percentage was 30 for the married respondents.

The various age categories were also tied with the risk types. It emerged from Table 11 that those aged 20-29 reacted more to health risk than the other age categories. It could be conjectured that, possibly, backpackers of this age category

113

could be egalitarians since they were found to be more sensitive to health related risk. On the issue of physical harm risk, it was revealed that those who were more sensitive were between the age cohort of 20-29. Those aged 40+ were found to be the least with regard to physical harm risk.

With respect to higher levels of education, it emerged that university graduates were found to be more sensitive to health risk than Senior High School graduates and post graduates. An interesting pattern was realised when it came to political risk. Table 11 shows that more Senior High School graduates than their University counterparts associated higher levels of risk in relation to political risk. It could possibly be argued that Senior High School graduates showed traits of the individualists as discussed in the conceptual framework. On the contrary, about 70 per cent of the University graduates reacted more to physical harm risk followed, by their Senior High School colleagues.

With regards to the last variable - continent of origin, it was realised from Table 11 that majority of those who attributed higher levels of health risk were Europeans. Similarly, Europeans dominated the other continents when it came to physical harm risk. North Americans and Australians associated equal levels of risk (16.7%) with regard to physical harm risk. With respect to financial risk, Europeans and Australians reacted more than backpackers from the other continents.

114

Strategies Employed by Backpackers to Reduce Risk

Risk reduction, or ''risk handling'', is most often described as a process by which consumers seek to reduce the uncertainty or consequences of an unsatisfactory decision (Mitchell et al., 1999; Byzalov & Shachar, 2004). Backpackers, during their travels, employ various strategies to reduce certain risks that they might be exposed to. This study explored risk reduction strategies employed by backpackers to the Cape Coast-Elmina area. Ten different risk reduction strategies were identified from the responses from the open ended questions. These strategies ranged from 'keeping all belongings close to them' to 'the use of reliable transportation'. It is also evident from the study that although backpackers have the affinity for risk taking (Carr, 2001; Elsrud, 2001; Lepp & Gibson, 2003) they employ strategies that do not jeopardise their safety at the destination. These risk reduction strategies have further been categorised under two broad strategies namely; *behaviour adaptation strategy* and *information seeking strategy*. *Behaviour adaptation* involves strategies put up by backpackers to enable them modify their behaviour in order to reduce risks inherent at the destination.

Together, *behaviour adaptation strategies* contributed about 94 per cent of the strategies put up by the backpackers to reduce risks. On the other hand, *information seeking strategy* is when backpackers seek information from their peers and other sources to be abreast with the terrain and consequently avoid problematic situations that they could encounter. This strategy also accounted for

115

about six per cent of the total strategies employed by backpackers to the Cape Coast-Elmina area.

Table 12: Strategies Backpackers Employ to Reduce Risk

Dimensions	Strategies	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Behaviour Adaptation	Keep all belongings close to them	56	22.0
	Not carrying too much money	48	18.6
	Avoid frequent night outings	36	14.0
	Not wearing expensive clothes	34	13.2
	Learn the local culture	21	8.20
	Use mosquito repellents and nets	17	6.61
	Always alert for harassers	15	5.83
	Travel in groups	9	3.50
	Use reliable transportation	6	2.33
Information seeking	Seek travel information from friends who have already visited Ghana	15	5.83
	Total	257*	100.0

*Multiple responses

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Table 12 shows lucidly that the most frequently employed risk reduction strategy was 'keeping all belongings close to them' (22.0%). Backpackers mostly

116

kept their valuables safely and close to them in their backpacks when they were on the move because they felt that was the best strategy to prevent them from being stolen. Again, it could imply their lack of trust in the local security system and personnel in their accommodation facilities; therefore their decision to keep their belongings close to them. Hunter-Jones et al. (2008) have suggested in their study on backpackers in the U.K that safety precautions commonly observed by backpackers include not walking alone at night, leaving valuables in safety deposit boxes and wearing money belts. Linking this finding with 'controllability' in the literature, it could be argued that perhaps these were some of the risks that backpackers had some form of control to mitigate.

With regard to the next pertinent strategy, it emerged that about 19 per cent stated that they did not carry too much money on them except a small amount that they use to buy souvenirs and other artefacts when they were in town. This explains the backpacker's sensitivity and fear of being 'robbed/defrauded' of their money in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. In the same vein, they always try to be economical and spend less so as to spread their income across their length of stay. The two top reduction strategies employed by backpackers suggest that a bulk of the backpackers that were surveyed reacted more to issues of crime and financial risks.

The next prevailing strategy employed by the backpackers was the avoidance of frequent night outings (14.0%). This signifies the 'cautiousness' of the backpackers to the Cape Coast-Elmina area, especially at night. Perhaps, they feel they are exposed to all manner of risks hence, their preference to stay in their

117

hostels during that time. Boakye (2012) observes that "the country is not very well lighted hence it makes the night scary for visitors" (p.333). Moreover, it could be argued that since the sample for this study was dominated by females and first time travellers, it perhaps suggests that not moving out at night could be a form of providing security for them. This assertion is in consonance with Fuchs and Reichel's (2011) claim that first time backpackers do not move out at night due to their unfamiliarity with the terrain.

The least employed risk reduction strategy was the use of 'reliable' transportation (2.33%). It is conjectured that, perhaps, the various transport modes found within the Cape Coast- Elmina area are perceived by backpackers as being reliable; giving credence to the assertion made by Chang (2009) that where transport modes are seen as safe and secure, the quest for reliable transportation becomes the least used tactic by backpackers in safeguarding themselves in the involved destination.

Apparently, the use of the risk reduction strategies by backpackers in the conceptual framework was supported by this study. Backpackers to the Cape Coast-Elmina area employed different strategies to mitigate risk that they were exposed to.

Backpackers' Willingness to Recommend Ghana

Backpackers were asked whether they would recommend Ghana to their colleagues when they return to their home countries (Figure 6).

118
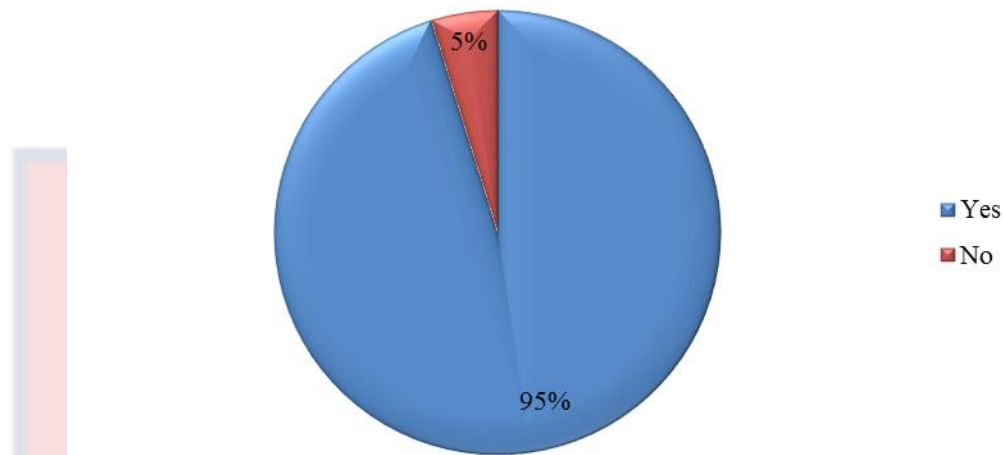
Figure 6: Backpackers' Willingness to Recommend

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Apparently, it is not surprising to note that out of the total of 187 backpackers, the overwhelming majority (95.0%) indicated their satisfaction with the country, thus their affirmation that they would recommend it to their colleagues. This figure ultimately suggests a dominance of positive perceptions of backpackers about the safety of the Cape Coast- Elmina area. Some responses to the follow-up open-ended question indicated that the friendliness of Ghanaians, their preference for beaches in the country as well as historical attractions were some of the reasons why they would recommend Ghana to colleagues. This somewhat sheds light on and agrees with Boakye's (2012) affirmation that tourists would still recommend and revisit Ghana even if they had fallen victim to crime.

119

Summary

Most backpackers who visited the Cape Coast-Elmina area were young students. Again, it emerged from the study that most backpackers relied on word-of-mouth recommendations from family and friends. It was also evident that backpackers visited Ghana mainly for historical/heritage reasons, ecology and relaxation. Generally, the study found that majority of the backpackers did not perceive the Cape Coast-Elmina area as risky. Consequently, the results from the FA identified three (3) main risk factors in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. These included health, financial and crime. Both the theory and conceptual framework were found to have some support in this study as it was evident that most of the backpackers exhibited egalitarian tendencies as a result of their sensitivity to the environment and health.

Nevertheless, apart from profession, there was no association between the background characteristics and risk perception. With regard to risk reduction strategies, the study found out that, backpackers kept all belongings close to them as possible to reduce risk of them being stolen as well as not carrying too much money on them. The use of the risk reduction strategies in the adapted conceptual framework was also validated by this finding. The next chapter takes a look at the summary, conclusions and recommendations based on the findings.

120

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study. It summarises the major findings and draws conclusions based on the results of the study. Furthermore, recommendations are made towards improving the growing nature of the backpacking phenomenon in Ghana.

Summary

The main objective of the study was to examine backpackers' perceptions of risk and safety in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. Specifically, the study sought to:

- Identify backpackers sources of information on travel related risk in the Cape Coast-Elmina area;

- Examine backpackers motivations for travelling to the Cape Coast-Elmina area;

- Assess the nature of perceived risks in Cape Coast and Elmina and;

- Explore the strategies backpackers employ to reduce risks in the Cape Coast-Elmina.

121

A Risk Perception Model was adapted from Douglas (1978) and Moutinho (1987) to guide the study. The framework identifies seven main variables and establishes some linkages among the variables in the Risk Perception Model. These variables include background characteristics, motivations for travelling, source of information, past travel experience, perception of risk, differential reactions and risk reduction strategies.

The study adopted a descriptive research design and a quantitative method of data collection and analysis. Copies of the questionnaires were therefore administered to 200 backpackers through a convenience sampling technique. However, 187 questionnaires were found useful for the study. A simple random sampling procedure (using the lottery method) was used to select 14 budget accommodation facilities, from which backpackers were targeted and interviewed.

The data from the field was edited, coded and analysed using SPSS version 17. Descriptive statistical presentations including frequency tables, bar chart, averages and cross-tabulations, were used in analysing the data. Inferential statistical analyses involved the use of Chi-Square Test of Independence to test for association between the background characteristics of backpackers and their perception of risk. Factor Analysis was also used to determine the underlying factor-solutions that explained backpackers' perception of risk in the Cape Coast-Elmina area.

122

Main Findings

The study found that majority of the backpackers relied on word-of-mouth recommendations from family and friends. Again, close to a half of the backpackers indicated that they searched for information on travel related risk on the internet. The least used information source was that of international television channels.

Backpackers' travel motivation was also looked at. It was revealed that backpackers mostly visited the Cape Coast-Elmina area for historical reasons, ecological reasons and relaxation.

The study examined six main types of risks namely; health, political, financial, socio-psychological, physical and cultural. With regard to health risk, out of the six items that were identified, majority of the backpackers indicated that there were poor sanitary conditions in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. Another important concern expressed by backpackers was the prevalence of tropical diseases such as malaria, cholera and diarrhoea.

Also, less than a half of the backpackers perceived that there were tricksters who could dupe them financially. A reason cited was that, traders and taxi drivers had different prices of goods and fares for locals and foreigners (tourists).

Although a number of the backpackers did not associate Ghana with high incidence of physical harm risks, some of them showed some few concerns. Stated explicitly, about a quarter of the backpackers perceived that crime happened in the Cape Coast-Elmina area.

Three underlying factors accounted for backpackers' perceptions of risk in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. The first factor labelled as 'health and related risks' embraced issues such as severe pollution, poor sanitary conditions, unhygienic foods, car crashes, and improper waste disposal. The next factor was financial risk and the last factor crime. These three risk factors or constructs accounted for nearly half of the total variance.

Apart from profession, the Chi-Square Test of Independence did not return significant association between the background characteristics of backpackers and their perceptions of risk in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. Backpackers who were sales and marketers were the ones who were likely to perceive the Cape Coast-Elmina area as risky compared with the students, for example.

Backpackers employed several strategies to reduce risk. These strategies were grouped under two main dimensions - *Behavioural adaptation strategy* and *information search strategy*. Among some of the cited reduction strategies, the most frequently employed one was 'keeping all belongings close to them'. The next prevailing strategy employed by backpackers was the avoidance of night outings whilst the least employed risk reduction strategy was the use of 'reliable' transportation. Majority of the risk reduction strategies fell under the *behavioural adaptation strategy*.

Conclusions

Based on the objectives of the study and the ensuing findings presented, the following conclusions are drawn:

124

Generally, the study found out that most backpackers indicated that information sourced from their family and friends as well as internet search were the most reliable sources of information on travel related risk.

Again, the study found that majority of the backpackers did not perceive the Cape Coast-Elmina area as risky. However, the results from the FA identified three main perceived risk factors in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. These included health risk, financial risk and crime. It was realised that backpackers were most sensitive to health risk. Their main fear was contracting tropical diseases such as malaria as a result of poor sanitation. Based on this finding, it could be concluded that possibly the backpackers that were surveyed were egalitarians. Again, a number of backpackers expressed negative concerns about high taxi fares charged by taxi drivers. The study also showed that apart from profession, there was no significant relationship between backpackers' background characteristics and risk perception.

Although majority of the backpackers indicated that Ghana was not risky, they employed some strategies to safeguard themselves. The prevailing strategy employed by backpackers was that they kept all their belongings close to them to avoid the belongings being stolen. Also, they did not carry too much money on them whenever they were on the move. The next strategy was the avoidance of frequent night outings, followed by the use of reliable transport in the Cape Coast-Elmina area.

125

Recommendations

Based on the major findings and the subsequent conclusions drawn, the following recommendations are made:

As per the outcomes of this study, it was clear that health risk dominated all other forms of risk perceived by backpackers in the country. Therefore, it behoves on the Cape Coast Metropolitan Assembly and Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abirem Municipal Assembly to take steps to improve sanitation in the area to reduce the rate of malaria and other environmentally driven diseases. Also, the assemblies can improve sanitation in these areas by involving the private sector in the proper cleaning and management of waste in the area. Again, they can provide waste bins at vantage points in town so as to reduce the indiscriminate dumping of refuse by residents.

Also, the government and other stakeholders should take up the challenge and embark on public education with regards to sanitation issues in the country. The media should be used to reach out to people on sanitation issues. There is also the need for the government to factor the issue of sanitation into the syllabus of the Ghanaian educational system to teach and train citizens on the need to have healthy environments. Also, as part of the awareness creation, the public should be made to understand the health and economic implications of poor sanitation on the nation as a whole.

Furthermore, the Motor Traffic and Transport Union (MTTU) must continue to enforce the law on the use of seat belts and over speeding on our roads and highways because some backpackers expressed negative sentiments about

126

traffic behaviour. Laws on traffic, if enforced, could go a long way to reduce the perception that there is high rate of vehicular crashes because drivers in the Cape Coast-Elmina area drive recklessly. Again, since the study revealed that backpackers patronize 'trotros', measures must be put in place to encourage drivers to keep their vehicles clean and safe for patronage by visitors such as backpackers.

It also emerged from the study that backpackers employed some strategies to mitigate risks inherent in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. It is therefore recommended that potential backpackers to the Cape Coast-Elmina area should employ similar risk reduction strategies used by their colleagues who have already visited the area to safeguard themselves.

It is again recommended that managers of the various budget accommodation facilities advise their clients on safety issues in their vicinities. Some backpackers become victims of threats or crimes because they may be unaware of issues of safety and security in the country. Therefore, service providers need to take up the challenge to educate their clients on some dos and don'ts, where to avoid and what is best to do.

Lastly, the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and the Ghana Tourism Authority should strengthen and empower their inspection teams in order to enable them ensure that service providers adhere strictly to the environmental laws of the country by keeping their premises clean.

Suggestions for Further Research

The study has examined backpackers' perception of risk and safety in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. A study could focus on a comprehensive comparison of backpackers' and mainstream tourists' perception of risk and safety in Ghana as a whole.

Furthermore, since studies have shown that Ghana is gradually becoming a preferred destination for backpackers, further research can be conducted to look at backpackers' pre-visit information search on travel related risk and safety in Ghana.

Lastly, it has been established that backpackers mostly patronize budget accommodation facilities in Ghana, a study on their safety and satisfaction with the level of services in those budget accommodation facilities will be worth researching.

128
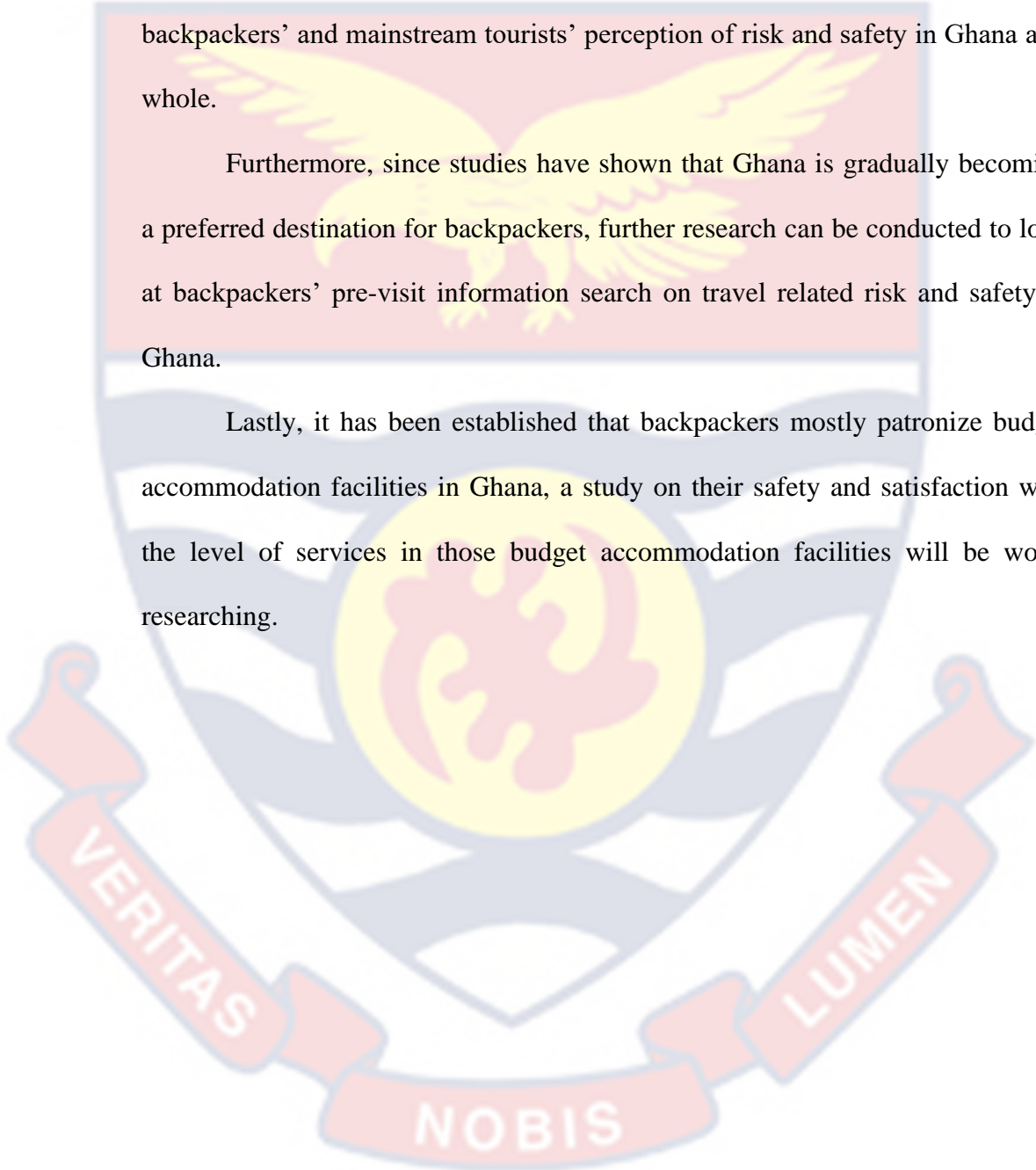
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132

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144

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148

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APPENDIX

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

DEPARTMENT OF HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT

TOPIC: BACKPACKERS' MOTIVATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF

RISK IN THE CAPE COAST-ELMINA AREA

Questionnaire for Backpackers

Introduction

The aim of this questionnaire is to find out Backpackers' motivations and perceptions of risk in the Cape Coast-Elmina area. It would be greatly appreciated if you could complete this questionnaire. This work is for academic purposes and your confidentiality is assured. If you have any questions or reservations, please feel free to contact the researcher on 0262214778 or baiden156@gmail.com.Thank you!

MODULE 1: SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON TRAVEL SAFETY ON CAPE COAST AND ELMINA

1. Please indicate the sources you used in assessing information on travel related risk about Cape Coast and Elmina (Please tick as many as apply)

Information sources	Used	Not Used

Internet search		
Newspaper reports		
International television channels		
Foreign missions		
Word-of-mouth recommendations from family and friends		
Travel agents/tour operators		

MODULE 2: RISK REDUCTION STRATEGIES

2. Do you consider travel to Ghana risky?

    1. Yes ☐

    2. No ☐

3. If yes, why do you think Ghana is risky?

    ....

4. Do you employ strategies to reduce risk during your travel?

    1. Yes ☐   2. No ☐

153

5. If yes, what are some of the strategies that you employ to reduce risk during your travel?

....

MODULE 3: PERCEPTION OF RISK AND SAFETY IN CAPE COAST AND ELMINA

6. Please indicate the extent of your agreement to the following statements about perceptions of risk and safety in Cape Coast and Elmina.

Health risks	Yes	No
I perceived Cape Coast and Elmina as being associated with		
Unhygienic foods		
A lot of tropical diseases (malaria, tuberculosis etc.)		
Poor sanitary conditions		
Severe pollution levels		
Improper disposal of waste		
High rate of car accidents		
Political risks		
Civil strikes		
Political unrest		
Human trafficking		
Drug trade		
Financial risks		

154

I perceived Cape Coast and Elmina as being associated with		
Tricksters		
Cheats		
Expensive than other alternative destinations		
Bribe public authorities like police		
Socio-psychological risks		
This has potential to affect my image positively		
This trip may positively enhance my future career		
This will enhance social standing		
Physical harm risks		
I perceived Cape Coast and Elmina as being associated with		
Natural disasters		
physical assault		
Crime		
Terrorism		
Cultural risks		
I perceived Cape Coast and Elmina as being associated with		
Strange language		
Strange/unhygienic food		
Unfriendly people		
Primitive cultural practices		

MODULE 4: MOTIVATION FOR TRAVEL TO CAPE COAST AND ELMINA

7. What motivated you to travel to the Cape Coast and Elmina area?

   ....

8. Do you have a travel itinerary?

   1. Yes   ☐

   2. No   ☐

9. What activities do you intend to undertake while in Ghana?

   ....

10. Which attraction(s) have you visited or wish to visit in Ghana?

    ....

11. What activities did you undertake while in Ghana?

    ....

12. How will you describe yourself?

1. Someone who wants the familiar   ☐

2. Someone who wants to always experience new things   ☐

3. I am indifferent   ☐

156

13.   Is this your first trip to Ghana? 1. Yes ☐   2. No ☐

14.   If **No**, how many times have you visited Ghana including this

trip……………….................

15. How would you evaluate yourself in terms of risk taking?

   1. I am a risk taker   ☐

   2. I am risk averse   ☐

   3. I am indifferent to risk   ☐

16. Will you recommend Cape Coast and Elmina to your colleagues?

   1. Yes   ☐

   2. No   ☐

17.   If yes, why………………………………………

MODULE 5: BACKGROUND DATA

18. How long are you staying in

Ghana?…………………..………………………

19. Country of origin………………………………………...

20. Religion …………………………………………………….

21. Is this your first international trip?   1. Yes ☐   2. No ☐

22. If **No**, how many international trips have you undertaken?...

23. Did you visit Ghana alone? 1. Yes ☐   2. No ☐

24. If **No**, how many are you in your group?…………………………………………

25. Which of the following did you make use of in travelling to Ghana?

1. Individually organised trip   ☐

2. Packaged tour   ☐

26. By what means did you travel to Ghana?

1. Airplane   ☐   4. Backpacker tour bus   ☐

2. Bus/Coach   ☐   5. Cruise ship   ☐

3. Rental car   ☐   6. Others (Please specify)…………...................................

27. What is your major means of transport in Cape Coast and Elmina?

1. Taxi   ☐   4. Tour buses   ☐

2. Rental car   ☐   5.Others (Please specify)……...................

3. Public transport   ☐

158

28. Estimated budget on your trip to

Ghana…………………………………

29. Which kind of accommodation facility did you patronise most during

your stay?

1. Guest house ☐　　4.　1-star hotel ☐

2. Budget hotel ☐　　5.　2-star hotel ☐

3. Hostel ☐　　6.　3-star hotel ☐

30. Purpose of visit to Ghana

1. Leisure ☐ 3. VFR ☐

2. Education ☐

31. Age………………………………….

32. Sex　　1. Male ☐　　2. Female ☐

33. Highest level of education

　1. Junior High School ☐　2. Senior High School ☐

　2. University/College ☐　4. Post graduate ☐

34. Marital Status

　1. Single ☐　　4. Divorced ☐

159

2. Married ☐   5. Widowed ☐

3. Co-habitation ☐   6. Separated ☐

35. What is your main profession/ occupation?

1. Student ☐   5. Post-student Gap year ☐

2. Retired ☐   6. Professional/Technical ☐

3. Sales/Marketing ☐ 7. Others (please specify)...................

4. Educator ☐

Thank you for partaking in the study

160