

JOURNAL OF OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH, RISK MANAGEMENT AND SAFETY

A Journal of Department of Environmental Management, Faculty of Environmental Sciences, University of Calabar, Nigeria
<https://johrms-unical.com.ng/>



<https://doi.org/10.60787/johrms.vol1no1.28>

ONLINE ISSN: 3121-8806

Hotel Security Preparedness and Vulnerability to Armed Robbery and Kidnapping in Cross River State, Nigeria

¹Eyo Ekei Effiong, Department of Environmental Management, University of Calabar, Calabar, Nigeria,
<https://orcid.org/-0000-0001-8296-8231>, Email: ekeieyo@unical.edu.ng

Ajake Anim Obongha, Department of Geography and Environmental Science, University of Calabar, Calabar, Nigeria,
<https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5947-6124>, Email: aoajake@unical.edu.ng

Omubo Ruth Fingite, Department of Environmental Management, University of Calabar, Calabar, Nigeria,
<https://orcid.org/-0009-0008-9071-8943>, Email: ruthomubo@unical.edu.ng

Ekpe Anthony Okon, Department of Environmental Management, University of Calabar, Calabar, Nigeria, Email: tonyekpe@unical.edu.ng

Bassey Bernard Obagha, Department of Geography and Environmental Science, University of Calabar, Nigeria,
<https://orcid.org/0009-0007-4212-502X>, Email: bobassey@unical.edu.ng

Ndiyo Ndiyo Nkpo, Department of Environmental Health, Cross River State College of Health Technology, Calabar, Cross River State
Oyo-Ita Dorothy Edet, Department of Marketing, University of Calabar, Nigeria, Email: dorothyoyoita@unical.edu.ng

Oboma Patrick Onen, Department of Environmental Education, University of Calabar, Nigeria, Email: obomapatrick80@gmail.com

¹Corresponding Author.

Abstract

This study compared hotel safety preparedness against armed robbery and kidnapping in Cross River State. A mixed-methods design was employed, involving surveys, interviews, and physical observation. A multi-stage sampling technique was used to select participants. Calabar Municipality, Ikom, and Ogoja LGAs were chosen as administrative centres representing the Southern, Central, and Northern regions, respectively. In the second stage, hotels in these LGAs were stratified into three-star, two-star, and one-star categories. The study population comprised 359 registered hotels, from which 36 hotels (10%) that had operated for at least five years in their respective LGAs were sampled. Respondents were hotel workers with a minimum of two years' experience who participated in the study, resulting in 531 respondents across the regions. One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test a hypothesis, to show the differences in safety preparedness across the hotel categories. The findings revealed a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level ($F=11.826$, $p=.042$), with three-star hotels demonstrating higher levels of safety preparedness. This disparity suggests increased vulnerability in lower-ranked hotels. The study recommends that all hotel categories strengthen their security infrastructure and enhance collaboration with security agencies to improve safety within the hotel environment.

Keywords: Hotels, Safety, Security, Kidnapping, Tourism, Cross River State.

Introduction

When people travel for business, conferences, religious activities, leisure, research, or other purposes, they expect to find safe and comfortable accommodations, where they can rest and return home without incident. Hotels, by global standards, are designed to provide this homely environment, serving as

temporary abodes for guests and workplaces for staff. However, in recent times, many hotels have increasingly become sites of insecurity, turning what should be places of comfort into sources of fear and vulnerability. Cases of armed robbery, kidnapping, theft, assault, and other violent crimes have been reported in hotels across different regions of the world, exposing both guests and employees to significant risks. These security challenges not only endanger the lives of the guests and staff, but also undermine the reputation of the hotels and the tourism destinations in which they operate. As public establishments, hotels are expected by standards to have adequate safety preparedness measures in place, to prevent, respond to, and mitigate security threats (George, 2010).

Globally, the hotel market is expanding rapidly and is projected to reach revenues of about US\$483.40 billion, with an estimated 1.33 billion hotel users by 2027. However, a pressing challenge remains, which is ensuring a safe and secure stay for guests (Savita & Singh, 2024). Increasing security incidents in hotels and related sectors have drawn greater attention from guests to the safety and security measures provided by these establishments. Safety and security concerns significantly influence guests' choice of accommodation and can affect the hotel's revenues when patronage declines due to security issues. Typically, a guest's choice of a hotel for vacation or business is based on the assumption that the facility has well-established security measures. Unfortunately, most low rated hotels lack such measures including trained security personnel, closed circuit television (CCTV) systems, secured fencing, walk-in metal detector, alarm stations at entry points, key activated elevators, emergency lighting in guest rooms, secured parking lots, emergency contact lists for local authorities, in-room safes, corridor voice monitoring devices, biometric door locks and mobile app based check-in and check-out systems. Conversely, some hotels that possess these security systems face legal or privacy constraints that limit their full implementation (Taiping, Jinlin, & Brendan, 2017).

Safety and security are vital components of tourism and the success of any tourism investment in a destination largely depends on safety and security measures put in place for timely response. Over the decades, hotels' safety and security facilities have evolved significantly in other places around the world. Early hotels did not have room keys, which made guest security weak. In 1829 AD, hotels began using locks with metal keys to safeguard private rooms. Today, traditional metal keys are gradually replaced with electronic room- locking systems, which have helped strengthen hotel security. In addition to room locks, lighting plays an essential role in ensuring the safety of the hotel environment for both guests and staff. Hotels with bright hallways and well-illuminated emergency exits are often perceived by guests as safer options when choosing accommodation (Hilliard & Baloglu, 2008). In many cases, hotels upgrade their safety and security infrastructure following major security incidents. For example, in the United States, significant hotel security upgrades took place after the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks (Enz, 2003). However, the most notable changes were observed among luxury or high-ranked hotels that already had extensive safety and security systems in place. This may explain why crimes tend to be more effectively moderated in high-ranked hotels compared to the low-ranked ones (Enz, 2003).

The management of safety and security in hotels remains a major challenge as it is often difficult to distinguish genuine guests, legitimate visitors, and individuals who may pose potential threats (Nzei & Ekeke, 2021). Moreover, hoteliers struggle to maintain high security standards, while simultaneously preserving the image and the hospitality of the establishments (Enz, 2009). Consequently, criminal activities continue to persist within the hotel environment. Notable examples include the terrorist attack that led to the JW Marriot Hotel bombing in Jakarta, Indonesia, in 2013 and the coordinated attacks on the Taj Mahal Palace and Oberoi Hotels in Mumbai, India, in 2008. In Nigeria, the hospitality industry, particularly hotels, has been among the most affected by the growing phenomenon of kidnapping, largely due to weakly enforced security measures. Many hotels are no longer considered safe for tourists as kidnapping cases continue to rise. Reports indicate that several successful kidnapping incidents have involved collaboration with hotel employees who leak sensitive guest information to perpetrators (Akpan, 2017 & Odeku, 2020). This situation poses a significant threat to Nigeria's image as a safe travel destination and discourages both domestic and international tourism. Similarly, Cross River State, which is widely

recognized as the hub of tourism in Nigeria and West Africa, risks losing patronage due to increasing cases of armed robbery and kidnapping targeting the hotels within this region (Adebayo, 2013).

The rising threat of insecurity in hotels underscores the urgent need for systematic evaluation of safety standards and protective strategies. Understanding the extent of these challenges is vital not only for ensuring guest satisfaction but also for safeguarding the well-being of hotel employees, who are equally exposed to such hazards in the course of their duties. Despite the increasing concern over hotel insecurity, the level of preparedness against crimes such as armed robbery and kidnapping remains uncertain across different hotel categories and regions within Cross River State. However, there is limited empirical evidence that compares the level of safety preparedness among various categories of hotels across the regions of the State. This lack of research attention has created a clear knowledge gap in assessing the level of safety and security preparedness against criminal threats within the hotel sector in Cross River State. Therefore, this study aimed to assess the types of safety preparedness measures in place against armed robbery in hotels, examine the preparedness of hotels to prevent and respond to kidnapping incidents, compare safety preparedness levels between the different categories of hotels, and identify challenges limiting effective hotel safety preparedness against armed robbery and kidnapping in Cross River State.

The terms security and safety are often used interchangeably in the tourism and hospitality literature, though they are conceptually distinct. Security refers to the state of being free from danger, while safety denotes the condition of being protected from danger, risk or injury. In the hotel context, safety and security measures refer to facilities and procedures designed to safeguard both guests and staff within the hotel environment (Ghazi, 2015). Security in hotels is particularly vital, as every organization strives to protect its customers and employees from potential harm, injury, or loss of life. Diminyi, Agaku, Ibuo, Anyanwu, and Odey (2020) stated that security challenges constitute some of the greatest threats that hinder organisational growth and reduce the likelihood of achieving set objectives. Tabaku and Cerri (2016) emphasized that hotel security should be treated with utmost importance, as it influences guests' assessment of service quality. Effective security management helps hotels differentiate themselves from competitors, gain competitive advantage, enhance corporate image, foster customer loyalty and improve overall business performance.

Ezenagu, Diminyi and Adewale (2019) emphasized that one of the most influential factors guests consider when selecting a hotel is the assurance of their safety and security during their stay. Similarly, Berenzina, Cobanoglu, Miller and Kwansa (2012) explained that continuous patronage can only be achieved when the returning guests are confident of their safety within the hotel premises. Adebayo and Adebayo (2015) also observed that insecurity has significantly discouraged tourists from visiting Maiduguri, Nigeria, over the past decade, leading to a drastic decline in patronage of small and medium hotels in the area. Likewise, Akpan (2017) reported that cult related activities contributed to staggering decline in the demand of hospitality products and services in Nigeria in 2016. Consequently, many employees in affected hotels lost their jobs due to reduced operations and financial instability.

Among the major crimes reported by hotel guests and staff, theft and burglary remain the most prevalent. Savita & Singh (2024) noted that approximately two-thirds of the hotel-related crimes occur within the parking lots, which are often poorly monitored areas. However, Hua and Yang (2017) observed that crimes occurring on the hotel premises, including parking facilities, may not significantly affect a hotel's operating performance when effective and well-established safety and security measures are in place. Such measures include both human and technological interventions, such as the deployment of uniformed and plain-clothed security personnel, regular safety and security training, closed-circuit television (CCTV) systems, secure fencing, surveillance teams and an emergency command centre. Additional preventive strategies highlighted by Anichiti, Dragolea, Tacu, Harsan, Haller and Butnaru (2021); Kim, Lee, and Ham (2013) include alarm stations, vehicle screening using metal detectors, key activated elevators, emergency lighting, contingency communication networks, sniffer dogs, biometric and finger print door lock systems, robotic assistants, facial recognition technology, loitering detection software, image servers, documentation control mechanisms, intrusion detection systems and data base security.

The adoption of technological devices such as smart locks, contactless check-in systems, intelligent surveillance, and Artificial Intelligence (AI) analytics are often widely promoted to enhance both safety and service efficiency in hotels. However, this trend has also raised serious security and privacy concerns. While these technologies can improve monitoring and emergency response, they may simultaneously introduce vulnerabilities that hotels may be ill-prepared to manage. Thus, technology has a double-edged sword in modern hotel security strategy (Aniebiet & Aniekan, 2025). Kim et al. (2013) emphasized that hoteliers should place greater focus on information technology security as many hotels remain vulnerable to cyber attacks. Such vulnerabilities provide opportunity for criminals to exploit guests' personal and financial data when hotels fail to secure vital information systems properly (Nwokorie, 2017). Beyond technological measures, Nwokorie, Everest, and Ojo (2014) suggested that security collaborations among hotel organizations operating within the same vicinity are essential for improving overall safety. For instance, during civil unrest or emergency situations, an individual hotel may lose control of its internal security before state security agencies intervene, leaving it vulnerable to attacks or vandalism. Therefore, collaborative security networks among nearby hotels can provide mutual support and surveillance, helping to forestall potential civil disturbances and protect both guests and staff.

The study adopted the Routine Activity Theory (RAT) developed by Cohen and Felson in 1979. RAT is a criminological framework that explains the occurrence of predatory crimes, that is, crimes that directly affect individuals or their property. The theory posits that for a crime to occur, three essential elements must converge in time and space. First is a motivated offender, an individual with the intent and capability to commit a crime. Second, it is a suitable target, which is a person or property that is attractive to the offender and lacks adequate protection. The third factor is the absence of a capable guardianship, meaning there is no effective means of supervision or deterrence, such as door locks, surveillance cameras, lighting, or security personnel. Cohen and Felson (1979) argued that crime is more likely to occur when these three factors are present simultaneously. The theory further emphasizes that it is the responsibility of individuals or institutions to provide guardianship over spaces where crime is likely to occur, such as schools, offices, factories, stores, or hotel environments. In the context of the hotels, this guardianship role is performed by the security guards, attendants, receptionists, and other staff responsible for controlling access, monitoring activities, and ensuring the safety of both guests and employees. Cohen and Felson (1979) referred to such individuals as place managers, persons responsible for overseeing specific locations and controlling access to them. These place managers are also accountable for managing entry points or gates. Thus, Perera (2024) remarked that an effective and actively involved place manager can significantly reduce the likelihood of a crime occurring within a given environment.

Despite its usefulness, the Routine Activity Theory has several limitations. The theory does not account for why certain individuals are more likely to engage in criminal behaviour, as it overlooks factors such as social background, mental health, and economic pressures. Critics also argue that it places excessive emphasis on the role of opportunity while neglecting broader social and structural influences, such as poverty and inequality, which contribute to criminal activity. Furthermore, although Routine Activity Theory effectively explains opportunistic crimes such as burglary and theft, it is less applicable to complex forms of crime, including organized crime and crimes of passion. Overall, while the theory provides valuable insights into situational factors that enable crime, it does not fully address the deeper motivational or psychological elements that drive offenders (Perera, 2024).

However, Routine Activity Theory (RAT) remains highly relevant in modern criminology, particularly in explaining contemporary crime trends. It is valuable for understanding how technological changes influence opportunities for crime. The theory's simplicity and flexibility make it easily applicable to real-world crime patterns. For instance, Kevin, Sydnee, Yazdan, and Michel (2017) applied RAT in a study on cyber intrusion and time, while Schoenberger (2021) utilized it in analyzing the Sonya Farak drug scandal in Massachusetts. Therefore, it was applied in this study to offer insights for developing strategies aimed at enhancing safety and security preparedness, specifically by increasing guardianship and preventive measures against armed robbery and kidnapping in hotels across the regions in Cross River State.

Study area

Location and size

Cross River State lies within Latitudes 4°33'0" and 6°35'0" North of the Equator and Longitudes 8°05'0" and 9°06'0" East of the Greenwich Meridian. Cross River State is bounded on the North by Benue, on the South by Akwa Ibom State, and on the East by the Republic of Cameroon and on the West by Abia and Ebonyi States respectively (Figure I). Cross River State has a total area of 20,156 sq km (Cross River State Report for Congress, 2008).

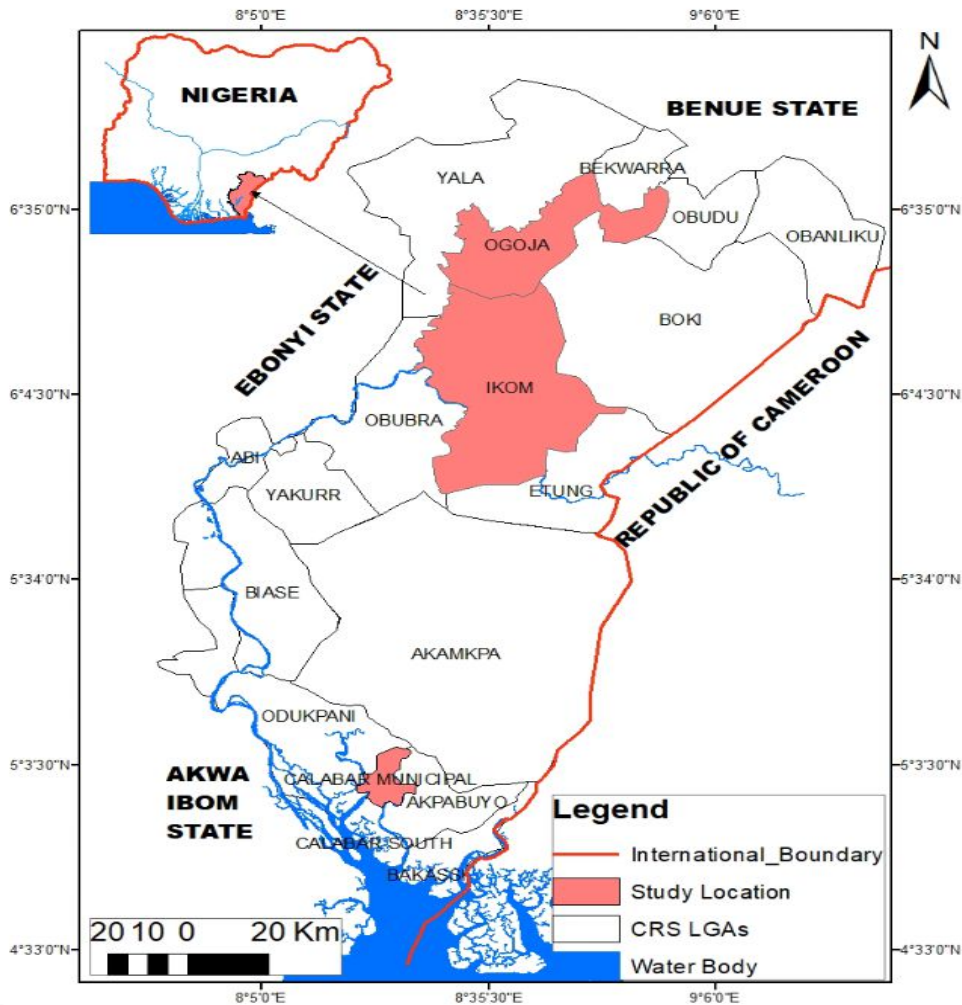


Figure. I: Cross River State showing locations of sampled hotels

Source: Cross River Geographic Information Agency, Calabar (CRGIA).

Climate and Vegetation

Cross River State lies within the tropical rainforest zone of Nigeria, characterized by heavy rainfall and lush vegetation. The state experiences two distinct seasons, the rainy and the dry seasons, with an average annual rainfall of about 3000mm and a mean annual temperature of approximately 30°C, except in Obudu Plateau, where the temperature is relatively lower (Ushie, 2012). Cross River State is rich in biodiversity and globally recognized for its ecotourism potential, which largely depends on its tropical rainforest that hosts several endemic species (Philip, Akintoye, Olorundami, Nkpena, Ukata & Harrison, 2014). The state's natural environment provides significant tourism resources that attract both domestic and international visitors, most of whom are accommodated in the hotels across the state (Eyo, Omubo, Joshua, Oboma, Bassey, Ndiyo & Ekpe, 2025).

History of hotels in Cross River State

The history of hotels in Cross River State could be traced to the establishment of the African Club in 1904 in Calabar. The British erected the African Club as a relaxation and event centre along Calabar Road, Calabar (Nsa, 2017). Nsa (2017) noted that between 1967 and 1979, the Metropolitan Hotel was constructed, featuring approximately 150 rooms. By 2003, due to rapid development in the tourism sector, several new hotels were established across the state to accommodate the increasing number of visitors and tourists. At present, Cross River State has a total of three hundred and fifty nine (359) duly registered hotels with the Cross River State Tourism Bureau (Cross River State Tourism Bureau, 2022). In the southern region comprising Calabar South, Calabar Municipality, Akpabuyo, Bakassi, Odukpani, Akamkpa and Biase, there are two hundred and forty-nine (249) registered hotels. In the central region, which includes Yakurr, Abi, Obubra, Ikom, Etung and Boki, there are sixty-three (63) registered hotels, while the northern region, made up of Ogoja, Bekwarra, Yala, Obudu and Obanliku, has forty-seven (47) hotels. Altogether, hotels in Cross River State employ 25,000 people and provide nearly 43,000 rooms (Nsa, 2017).

Methods

A mixed-method approach within a comparative descriptive design was employed, as it was deemed appropriate for assessing and comparing safety and security preparedness levels across different hotel categories in Cross River State (Creswell, 2014). The study utilized a combination of quantitative surveys, qualitative interviews and direct observation to obtain comprehensive data on hotel safety preparedness and ability to respond to security threats.

A Structured questionnaire was administered to hotel employees to assess preparedness measures against armed robbery and kidnapping. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with managers and departmental heads to confirm the availability and implementation of security measures. Furthermore, direct observation of the hotel premises was carried out using a checklist to verify the presence of security infrastructure and safety procedures. The data obtained from the field were tested with the use of One way -Analysis of Variance statistical tool. Analysis of Variance, or ANOVA, is a strong statistical technique that is used to show the difference in the security safety preparedness across the different hotel categories in Cross River State.

Sampling technique and sampling size

The study population comprised 359 registered hotels in Cross River State as documented the Cross River State Tourism Bureau (CRSTB). Cross River State is divided into three geographical regions (Southern, Central and Northern) comprising a total of 18 Local Government Areas (LGAs). A multistage sampling design was employed for the study. At the first stage, one LGA was selected based on the criterion of being the administrative and commercial center of that region. Accordingly, Calabar Municipality was selected for the Southern region, Ikom for the Central region and Ogoja for the Northern region.

Table 1: Categories of hotels within the region and samples drawn

Regions	Three-star	Two-star	One-star	Number of hotels sampled in each region	Number of respondents in each region
South	Metropolitan hotel, Monty Suites, UG WIS, Hogis	Country Home Resort, Dannic hotel, Pyramid, Axari, Calabar Harbour, Jorany, Channel View, Five Two Zero, Marian, Freeman and Adsuit hotel.	Keves and Inn Suites, Suites Franphinas, Penuel, Kal Vegas, Le Chateau, Pearl Suites, AB Armany, Etaval, Treasureland and Noble Place.	25	372
Central	Ebenezer Beim Excellence	Gold Palm, Jorany, Side View hotel.	Living Fine and Kengto Plaza	6	84
North	All Star hotel		Gakuna, Monique, Liberty and La Kristo	5	75
Total	6	14	16	36	531

Source: Fieldwork, 2024.

At the second stage, the hotels within each selected LGA were stratified into three categories (three-star, two-star and one-star) to enable comparison of preparedness levels across the different hotel types. A sample size of 10% of the total number of registered hotels (359), amounting to 36 hotels, were used for the study. Out of these, 25 hotels were selected in the Southern region, 6 hotels in the Central region and 5 hotels in the Northern region. Hotels that participated in the study were further stratified based on at least 5 years of existence, while the respondents (hotel workers), were stratified based on years of service to ensure adequate experience and understanding of safety preparedness. Consequently, only employees who had served for at least two years in the respective hotels were included in the study. This resulted to a total of 531 respondents across the sampled hotels in the three regions in Cross River State (Table 1).

Hypothesis

H₀: There is no significant difference in the level of security safety preparedness across the different hotel categories in Cross River State. This hypothesis was tested using one-way Analysis of Variance. The formula is given as:

Where:

F= Anova Coefficient

MST=Mean sum-of-squares-due-to-treatment

MSE = Mean sum of squares due to error

Results

The result in Table 2 shows that the hotels across the geographical regions in Cross River State have implemented various safety measures against armed robbery. Perimeter fencing was the most commonly reported measure cited by 40.87% of the respondents. In contrast, the availability of emergency contact information was reported by only 2.07% of the respondents across the regions. Hotels in the different regions also indicated the presence of measures aimed at protecting the guests and the staff from kidnapping incidents. As shown in Figure 2, 33.52%, 7.16% and 6.9% of the respondents across the South, Central and North regions respectively, reported the availability of confidentiality policies. The presence of technological items such as Global Positioning System (GPS) trackers was limited. Only 1.13% of the workers in the South and 0.19% in the Central region reported the availability of GPS devices, while none of the respondents from the Northern region reported having the GPS trackers. Security preparedness also varied across the different hotel categories within CRS. Perimeter fencing was available in 9.04% of the three-star hotels, 8.85% of the two-star hotels and 5.27% of the one-star hotels. None of the hotel categories reported having corridor voice monitoring systems or robot assistants. Regarding the challenges hindering hotel safety preparedness against armed robbery and kidnapping, respondents identified financial constraints (22.77%) and negative publicity (3.96%) as major barriers.

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore levels of difference in security safety preparedness across the different hotel categories in Cross River State. Subjects were divided into three (3) groups according to agencies' inspection (Group 1: Three-Star Hotel; Group 2: Two-Star Hotel; Group 3: One-Star Hotel). The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level of security safety preparedness across the different hotel categories in the area ($F=11.826$, $p=.042$). Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was of insignificant effect. The effect size, calculated using eta- squared, was .02. This is shown in Table 4.

Table 2: Hotels' safety measures against armed robbery

Safety measures	South		Central		North		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Security personnel	103	19.40	29	5.46	26	4.89	158	29.75
Perimeter fencing	145	27.31	37	6.97	35	6.59	217	40.87
Adequate lighting	60	11.30	11	2.07	9	1.69	80	15.06
Closed circuit television (CCTV)	22	4.14	3	0.56	1	0.19	26	4.90
Alarm system	18	3.39	2	0.38	2	0.38	22	4.15
Access control system	15	2.82	1	0.19	1	0.19	17	3.20
Emergency contact information	09	1.69	1	0.19	1	0.19	11	2.07
Total	372	70.05	84	15.82	75	14.12	531	100

Source: Researcher's Fieldwork, 2024.

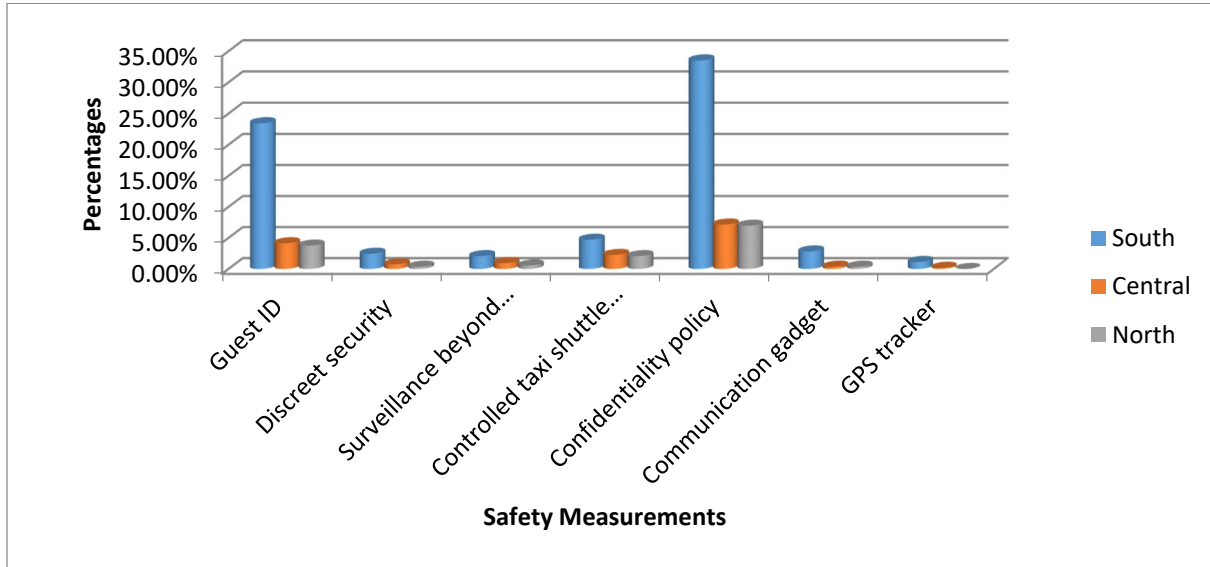


FIG. 2: Safety measures against kidnapping in hotels in Cross River State.

Source: Fieldwork, 2024.

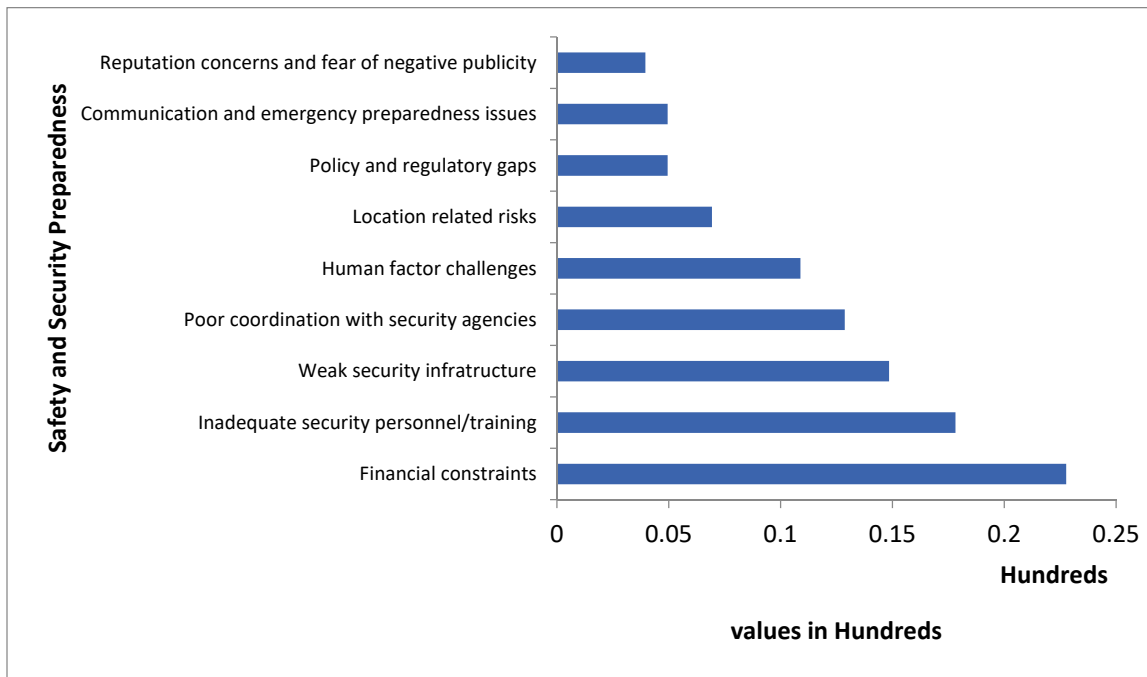


FIG. 3: Safety and security preparedness challenges in hotels in Cross River State

Source: Fieldwork, 2024.

Table 3: Security safety preparedness in the different categories of hotels

Safety Measures	Three-star hotels		Two-star hotels		One-star hotels		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Trained security personnel	40	7.53	38	7.12	25	4.70	103	19.40
Perimeter fencing	48	9.04	47	8.85	28	5.27	123	23.16
Adequate lighting	35	6.59	33	6.21	20	3.77	88	16.57
CCTV	19	3.57	16	3.01	8	1.51	43	8.10
Alarm system	12	2.26	10	1.88	5	0.94	27	5.08
Emergency contact Information	7	1.32	5	0.94	1	0.19	13	2.45
Access control	15	2.82	13	2.45	2	0.38	30	5.65
Guest ID	6	1.13	4	0.75	0	0	10	1.88
Discreet security	4	0.75	2	0.38	0	0	6	1.13
Surveillance beyond premises	3	0.56	1	0.19	0	0	4	0.75
Controlled taxi shuttle	5	0.94	3	0.56	0	0	8	1.51
Confidentiality	13	2.44	12	2.26	6	1.12	31	5.84
Communication gadget	5	0.94	2	0.38	0	0	7	1.32
GPS tracker	3	0.56	1	0.19	0	0	4	0.75
Key activated elevators	4	0.75	1	0.19	0	0	5	0.94
Corridor voice monitoring	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mobile app based check in and check out	8	1.50	4	0.75	1	0.19	13	2.45
Robot assistant	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Database security	5	0.94	2	0.38	0	0	7	1.32
Network access	6	1.13	2	0.38	1	0.19	9	1.70
Total	238	44.82	196	36.87	97	18.26	531	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2024.

Table 4: Analysis of Variance
Variables

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	546.433	2	273.217	11.826	.042
Within Groups	8530.550	57	149.659		
Total	9076.983	59			

Discussion of Findings

The findings from the study revealed that perimeter fencing was the most commonly reported physical security measure across the different categories of hotels in Cross River State. This suggests that hotels in CRS rely predominantly on visible, low-technology and physical measures to deter crime, while such measures can improve guests' perception of safety, they are not sufficient to prevent crimes that employ sophisticated technology, such as technologically coordinated armed robbery and organised kidnapping (Savita & Singh, 2024). The very low prevalence of emergency contact information and near absence of GPS trackers across hotels in the region indicate a major gap between perceived and operational readiness. This shows that the hotels in CRS are under-equipped to respond to, detect, verify and respond quickly to armed robbery or abduction attempts.

The findings further revealed notable variations in security preparedness across the hotel categories. Three-star and two-star hotels tend to invest more in visible and some electronic security measures than one-star hotels. However, advanced and expensive safety technologies such as corridor voice monitoring and robotic security systems were absent in all the hotels surveyed. This pattern is typical of many developing countries, where hotels are constrained by the cost of acquisition, maintenance requirements and the technical skills needed to operate sophisticated security systems. The unequal distribution of safety infrastructure increases the vulnerability of lower-rated hotels and may negatively influence the levels of patronage and competitiveness in the hospitality industry, especially in developing countries (Savita & Singh, 2024).

Respondents identified financial constraints and fear of negative publicity as major barriers to implementing adequate safety measures against armed robbery and kidnapping. This aligns with studies showing that lower-rated hotels often lack the financial capacity for capital investments such as CCTV cameras, alarm systems, GPS integration and other advanced security tools, as well as the recurring costs of system maintenance and staff training. Similarly, fear of negative publicity discourages transparent incident reporting and weakens cooperation with law enforcement agencies. This reluctance undermines crime prevention efforts, which rely heavily on timely intelligence sharing and coordinated response (Oladehinde, Oladele, Adeniyi, Oladeji & Ogungbe, 2024).

Conclusion

The study concludes that hotels in Cross River State rely heavily on visible physical security measures but lack many of the procedural and technological systems required for an integrated and effective security posture. Financial constraints and fear of negative publicity remain major barriers to the implementation of comprehensive safety measures. The level of compliance with security protocols varied

across hotel categories, with three-star and two-star hotels demonstrating higher safety preparedness compared to the one-star hotels. Consequently, guests and staff in the lower-ranked hotels may be exposed to the risks of armed robbery and kidnapping. The fragile safety preparedness identified across hotels in the state contradicts the objectives of SDG 16, which seeks to reduce violence and strengthen institutional responses to threats. To address this gap, there is a need to strengthen baseline safety and emergency response capacity in CRS hotels by moving beyond physical measures to incorporate technological systems, surveillance integration and stronger collaboration with security agencies. This will enhance hotel safety and support sustainable tourism, in line with SDG 8, which promotes a safe and resilient tourism environment.

References

- Adebayo, I. N., & Adebayo, K. J. (2015). The menace of book haram in hospitality patronage in Nigeria and its effect on health and health care. *Development Country studies*, 5(8), 161-166. <https://www.iste.org>
- Adebayo, A. (2013). Youths unemployment and crime in Nigeria: A nexus and implications for national development. *International Journal of Sociology and Anthropology*, 5(9), 350-357
- Akpan, F.U. (2017). Security issues and challenges in the hospitality and tourism industry in Idah Local Government Area, Kogi State, Nigeria. *Nuhu Bamalli Polytechnic Multidisciplinary Journal*, 2(2), 34-43
- Anichiti, A., Dragolea, L., Tacu Harsan, G., Haller, A., & Butnaru, G. (2021). Aspects regarding safety and security in hotels: Romanian Experience. *Information*, 12(1),44
- Aniebiet, J., & Aniekan, E. (2025). The role of technological service innovation in enhancing customer satisfaction: An IOT and smart hospitality study of hotels in Uyo, Akwa Ibom State. *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Research in Marketing and Management*. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15050816>
- Berezina, K., Cobanoglu, C., Miller, B. L., & Kwansa, F. A. (2012). The impact of information security breach on hotel guest perception of service quality, satisfactions, revisit intentions and word-of-mouth. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 24(7), 991-1010. <https://doi.org/1108/09596111211258883>
- Creswell, J.W. (2014). *Social research methods* (5th ed.). Oxford University
- Cross River State Tourism Bureau (2022, April 18). *Hotels in Cross River State, Nigeria*. Cross River State Tourism Bureau Archive.
- Cross River State Report for Congress, Nigeria (2008, January 30). *Overview of Cross River State*. <https://www.nigerdeltabudget.org>
- Dimnyi, C. A., Agaku, D. D., Ibuo, P. A., Anyanwu, D. E., & Odey, C. I. (2020). Service delivery and customer fulfillment in hospitality industry: A study of hotels in Ogoja, Nigeria. *International Journal of Innovative Research and Advanced Studies*, 7(4), 2394-4404. <https://www.ijiras.com>
- Enz, C.A. (2009). Safety and security in US hotels. *Cornell Hospitality Report*, 9(13), 6-11
- Enz, C.A. (2003). Changes in US Hotel safety and security staffing procedures during 2001 and 2002. *The centre for Hospitality Research at Cornell University*, 3-10
- Eyo, E. E., Omubo, R. F., Joshua, F. G., Ekpe, A.O., Oboma, P.O., Bassey, B. O., & Ndiyo, N. N. (2025). Assessing knowledge and usage of personal protective equipment among hotel employees in Calabar Municipality, Nigeria. *Journal of Occupational Health Risk Management and Safety*, 1(1), 21-32. <https://doi.org/10.60787/johrms.vol1no1.20>

- Ezenagu, N. D., Diminyi, C. A., & Adewale, (2019). Contribution of purpose built attractions to tourism promotion in Nigeria: The role of Magicland amusement park, Abuja. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 8(4), 1-16. [https:// www. ajhtl.com](https://www.ajhtl.com)
- George, R. (2010). *Managing tourism in South Africa*. Oxford University Press
- Ghazi, K. M. (2015). Safety and security measures in Egyptian hotels. *Hotel and Business Management*, 4(1), 1-11
- Hilliard, T., & Baloglu, S. (2008). Safety and security as part of the hotel servicescape for meeting planners. *Journal of Convention and Event Tourism*, 9(1), 15-34.<https://doi.org/10.1080/15470140802104557>
- Kevin, B., Sydnee, S., Yazdan, M., & Michel, C. (2017). Application of routine activity theory to cyber intrusion location and time. *13th European Dependable Computing Conference (EDCC)*, 139-146. <https://doi.org/10.1109/EDCC.2017.24>
- Kim, H., Lee, D., & Ham, S. (2013). Impact of hotel information security on system reliability. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 35, 369-379
- Nsa, A. (2017, May 26). 50 years of tourism and hospitality in Cross River State. *Business Day Newspaper*. <https://businessday.ng>
- Nwokorie, E. C. (2017). *Contemporary hospitality management: Academic and business perspective*. DES Publishing.<https://www.researchgate.net>
- Nwokorie, E. C., Everest, D. A., & Ojo, O. O. (2014). Emerging security challenges for tourism development: Effect on the Nigerian economy. *Journal of Women in Technical Education*, 7(2), 33-40.<https://eprints.federralpolyilaro.edu.ng>
- Nzei, J. A., & Ekeke, J. N. (2021).Hotel security and safety and hotel brand choice in Port Harcourt, Nigeria. *Journal of Academic Multidisciplinary Research (IJAMR)*, 5(2)
- Odeku, K.O. (2020).Kidnappings of international tourists in Nigeria: Impacts on the hospitality sector. *African Journal of Hospitality Tourism and Leisure*, 9(2)
- Oladehinde, G.J., Oladele, A.F., Adeniyi, L.A., Oladeji, P.B., Ogungbe, M.A. (2024). Crime occurrence and hotel operating performance: An empirical investigation in Ibadan Municipality, Nigeria. *International Journal of Tourism Business Research*, 3(2), 199-225
- Perera, A. (2024). Routine activity theory. Definition and examples. *Simply Psychology*, 13
- Philip, F., Akintoye, O. A., Olorundami, T., Nkpena, C. O., Ukata, S. U. & Harrison, U. (2014). Forest resources of Cross River State: Their potentials, threats and mitigation measures. *Journal of Environmental Science, Toxicology and Food Technology (IOSR – JESJFT)*, 8 (16), 64 – 71.<https://www.researchgate.net>
- Savita, R., & Singh, S. (2024). A systematic review on structure of hotel safety and security service: Dimensions and measures. *Academy of Marketing Journal*, 28 (S5), 1-21
- Shoenberger, N. A. (2021). Applying routine activity theory: A case study of the Sonya Farak Drug Scandal in Massachussets. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, 9(10). <https://10.org/4236/jss.2021.910009>
- Tabaku, E., & Cerri, S. (2016). An assessment of service quality and customer satisfaction in the hotel sector. *Tourism and Hospitality Industry*, 36.[https:// www. researchgate.net](https://www.researchgate.net)

Taiping, H., Jinlin, Z., & Brendan, D. (2017). Hotel crimes: An unexplored victimization in the hospitality industry. *Security Journal*, 30 (4). <https://doi.org/10.1057/sj:2016>

Ushie, F. A. (2012). Chemical and mineralogical deterioration of basement schist in parts of Obudu Plateau, southern eastern Nigeria. *Journal of basic Physical Research*, (3), 17-23. <https://www.scrip.org>