

Crime, Tourism and Trust in a Developing Country

Paul A. Bourne

Department of Community Health and Psychiatry, Faculty of Medical Sciences,
The University of the West Indies – Mona Kingston, Jamaica

Abstract: This study seeks to (1) model self-protection in Jamaica, (2) determine the explanatory power of the model, (3) evaluate the role of trust in self protection, and (4) show how interpersonal distrust will affect tourism. This is an explanatory cross-sectional study which is accommodated by the data collected by the Centre of Leadership and Governance, Department of Government, the University of the West Indies at Mona. The data were collected on April 2007. It was a nationally representative survey of 1,438 Jamaicans, using stratified random sample of the 14 parishes, with a 105-item instrument (i.e. questionnaire). Logistic regression was used to estimate the variables for the model. Of the 12 predisposed variables that are used in this paper, only 5 of them are statistically significant (i.e. $p < 0.05$). The 5-variable explain 17.2% of the variance in self-protection. Of the primarily aforementioned explanatory variables, age of the respondent is the most influential factor (OR = 1.05, 95% CI = 1.02-1.08) followed by tertiary level education with reference to primary and below education (OR = 8.37, 95% CI = 2.43-28.82); political inequality (OR = 1.07, 95% CI = 1.02-1.11); secondary level education with reference to primary and below education (OR = 3.34, 95% CI = 1.30-8.62); post-secondary level education with reference to below primary level education (OR = 3.47, 95% CI = 1.17-10.25); income (OR = 0.82, 95% CI = 0.68-0.99) and lastly by an orderly society (OR = 0.58, 95% CI = 0.34-1.00). The predisposed variables that are found to be associated with self protection display more than an associative relationship; they are predictors of self protection. These have implications for the behaviour of Jamaican regarding perceived threat to person, property, loved ones or ego. This is important for tourism as some tourist fall victims to crime because of a lack of understanding of how the average Jamaican feels about their own protection. Although the explanatory power the variables are very low (R-squared = 17.2%) it is the first of type and provide a platform for future research.

Key words: Crime, Jamaica, orderly society, personal values, political inequality, self protection, tourism, trust

INTRODUCTION

Currently, the issues of crime and violence, nepotism, corruption and social decay have reemerged as topical subjects within the sociopolitical and geopolitical space of Jamaica owing to the upsurge of homicides, corruption and violent crimes (Jamaica Gleaner, 2008; Boxill *et al.*, 2007; Powell *et al.*, 2007; Waller *et al.*, 2007; Harriott *et al.*, 2004; Harriott, 2000, 2003a; 2004 Transparency International, 2000-2007). It is not the rise of those sociopolitical events that are of concern to the average person, but it is the impact those conditions have on sociopolitical and economic development, mortality, health, psychological conditions, stable liberal democracy, production and productivity, sustainable development and prosperity. Statistics have shown that the violent crime rates have increased from 254.6 incidents per 100, 000 citizens (in 1977) to 633.4 per 100,000 by 2000 (i.e., a 149% increase in 23 years, with an average of 6.5% in each year). What explains this drastic increase in homicides over the last 2-decade in Jamaica? And how does distrust (or low trust) explains an aspect of this phenomenon? And is this likely to impact on tourist arrivals?

The issue of amicable solutions and resolutions of differences are problematic in an environment of distrust. Distrust (or low trust) is at the opposite end on the trust spectrum, and is developed over time as well as it is fostered through the culture in which an individual lives. Physical confrontations or crimes are more than the actual event to that of what gave rise to the event. As in high trusting milieu, people do not generally resort to violence to resolve differences, and the opposite is the case in low trusting environment. Hence, high crime environment is an indicator of low trusting milieu. This regular occurs in states like Haiti, Jamaica, Columbia, Trinidad and Tobago, Nigeria, Zimbabwe, unlike in Japan, America, Switzerland and other nations in which trust is high. This paper is about Jamaica.

It should be noted here that distrust, crime and violence, and police excesses extend beyond the geopolitical boundary of Jamaica to the wider Caribbean and the world (Boxill *et al.*, 2007; Lewicki *et al.*, 2006; Brathwaite, 2004; Brathwaite and Harriott, 2004; Mars, 2004; Uslander, 2002; Fukuyama, 1995). Francis Fukuyama (1995), Eric Uslander (2002), Covey and Merrill (2006) have been arguing that trust is the crux of all human relations, and so any social decay owes a

constituent to trust (or distrust). But, what are the public's perception of the various problems that affect them and the level of self-protection (a proxy that will indicate the tendency to commit crime) and trust?

A recent study has shown that Jamaicans believe that; crime and violence (4 out of every 10 people); unemployment (3 out of every 10 individual); education (6 out of every 100 people); corruption (3 out of every 100 person); poverty (3 out of 100 persons); cost of living and inflation (2 out of every 100 people); and drugs and gangs (1 out of every 100 individuals); are among a list of problems that topped all sociopolitical ills facing the nation at this time (Powell *et al.*, 2007). Powell *et al.* (2007) made us aware that trust is crucial to democracy, confidence in political leaders, the government and other major social institutions (Fukuyama, 1995; Putnam, 1993; 1995), and low confidence in the social system due to negative expectation will produce unresolved confrontations. The scholars, using cross-sectional survey research of some 1,340 Jamaicans from across the island by way of stratified random sampling, found that 3 out of every 10 persons trust each other with only 1 out every 10 persons, trusted the government (Powell *et al.*, 2007). It is argued that it is trust at the micro level that explains trust at the macro level (Luhmann, 1988), which speaks to the importance of culture in societal trust. Thus, why the absence of more studies on crime and trust, and examination of the role of trust on crime, violence and victimization?

Over the years, studies on crime (an extensive reading lists is forwarded here – Harriott, 2000, 2003a, 2004) have excluded an examination of role of trust as a factor in crime (or self-protection) or victimization. Crime has consumed the debate to the point where we (i.e. academics) are not in 'blickers' and the problem and symptoms are one and the same, crime, crime and more crime. Given that tourism contributes the second largest to the foreign exchange in Jamaica, decrease in tourists' arrivals due to increases in crime have been of interest to many academics (Boxill, 1995; Dunn and Dunn, 2002). Whereas Dunn and Dunn's work (2002) was perception as it relates to high crimes and tourists arrivals, it was Boxill's contribution to the space that applied empiricism to the study of crime and tourists arrivals in Jamaica. What is absent in the discourse so far is trust as a factor in understanding crime. Currently and historical, crime is a staple in the fixture of the Jamaican experience; but what is missing is the discourse is the sociology of crime and the pivotal nature of trust in explaining many of the aspects of human relations. It is within this framework that this study seeks to bridge the gap. If people have a low trust for each other (distrust), how will they treat the tourist who is not a part of their culture?

Francis Fukuyama (1995) defines trust as "the expectation that arises within a community of regular, honest, and cooperative behavior, based on commonly shared norms, on the part of other members of the

community." In Fukuyama's conceptualization of trust, expectation speaks to the reciprocity of trust, which means that trustworthiness begets trust (Misztal, 1996). Another definition of trust is "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor" (Mayer *et al.*, 1995). Hence, in both conceptualizations, trust is needed for social order and continued cooperation between humans, and for the sustenance of future human relations. The willingness of vulnerability speaks to the openness with which trust takes its cue. A social system can create rules that are to foster cooperation through incentives and sanctions. The purpose for this is to encourage people to behave in a trustworthy manner, but culture enhances this exercise. If people believe that a social system will not benefit them or that the structure favours a particular group owing to past experiences, there will be a likelihood that litigation will not be able to offset the behaviours that will emerge owing to low confidence or low trust. Trust and distrust are inverse related, as one scholar contends that trust and distrust are at opposite ends on the same continuum.

Literatures have shown that people have a greater degree of trust for their own group members more than for those who are on the outside (Fukuyama, 1999; Tan and Vogel, 2005) – Uslaner (2002) refers to this as particularized trust - as networking between groups are stronger and closer than for persons out of the network. Groups whether large or small, developed into 'in-groups', which helps the group to become cohesive and trustworthier. There are a number of examples of this in the world where there are consensus in each group but conflicts between the different groups. Examples here are (1) between Shittes and Kurds in Iraq; (2) the Muslims and the Hindus in Bangladesh, (3) Christians and Buddhists in many parts of Asia; (4) between supporters of the People's National Party (PNP) and those of the Jamaica Labour Party (JLP) in Jamaica, (5) among the social classes, educational and occupational groups as well as between owners of resources and workers, (7) between the races or ethnicities, (9) Indians and Blacks in Guyana or Trinidad and Tobago. Corruption will further intensify the distrust (read for example, Transparency International Report on Global Corruption, 2005), whenever it is present in those societies. Given that Jamaica is labeled as a highly corrupt country, coupled with the high degree of distrust, this speaks volume about the vulnerability of tourists in such an environment of low trust and corruption. The Jamaica Constabulary Force is equally plagued with corruption, and so it has joined the social institutions which is seeking to address this problem among its members (The Professional Standards Branch, Jamaica Constabulary Force, 2005), but what about mistrust and its influence on other areas in the crime, violence, victimization and corruption debate?

Like Fukuyama, Covey and Merrill and other scholars on trust (Boxill *et al.*, 2007); we have come to

accept that trust is pivotal to social capital development, all forms of development and human relations. The importance of trust warrants some examination as an explanation of social deviance, in particular crime, whether on the general citizenry or on visitors. Before we venture into issues of the public's perception on different things in the society, a group of scholars have helped us to focus on the validity of interdependence and the role that trust plays in democracy. This is presented as follows:

Powell *et al.* (2007) conducted a nationally representative systemic cross-sectional survey of some 1,338 Jamaicans, and they find that 44% of Jamaicans believe that 'crime and violence' was the most serious problem in the country, followed by unemployment (31%), education and training (6%), corruption (3%), and poverty (2%). In addition to these things, scholars cited that interpersonal trust was 37.3%, compared to a lower level of trust in government (8%). But the data for interpersonal trust in Jamaica is not as heartrending as it may have appeared initially, as the average rate of interpersonal trust for Europe is less than that for Jamaica (30.7% - UNDP, 2005).

In the Caribbean and in particular Jamaica, all the studies on crime, tourism, and crime and tourism have not sought to coalesce a study that integrate crime, tourism and trust in understanding the likelihood of distrust (or low confidence) in the society affecting these areas. This study will bridge the gap in the current literature by provide a scientific investigation on the aforementioned phenomena. The current study will be twofold – the first part will test a number of hypotheses on self protection with different socio-demographic variables, and secondly, develop a general model that will identify correlates of self protection as well as to establish the explanatory power of the model. In order to establish this current work we will provide a conceptual framework that provides a basis upon which this research will be carried out.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Conceptual Framework: Within the context that the nation relies on tourism, then there is a reality that what has eluded many persons to date is that, the self-protection mechanism of the average person, and the probability that visitors may experience this culture of the self-protection and/or crimes, then it is timely to examine 'Crime, Tourism and Trust in Jamaica'. But what are the level of crimes and the typologies of crimes in the society? And, should tourists and policy planners be cognizant of the low levels of trusts? Crime, as well as other social problems caused by inflation and unemployment affects the way the average Jamaican respond to many issues. Due to these social pressures, those who are experiencing such socioeconomic hardship may not decide to cooperate with current tourism thrust

by government, and thereby may see the tourist as the needed economic dollar that they so 'badly' need to change their current economic reality. Hence, what are the crime rates in Jamaica to date; this would reflect the degree of self-protection with further implication for the populace relation with the tourists?

If the current increase in violent crimes is allowed to continue, it will have devastating effect on our tourism industry. While crime against tourists is not a major component of the crime statistics, this will continue to rise if efforts are not made to educate and inform the tourists about behavioural patterns that can lead to crime. In a study titled 'The Impact of Crime on Tourist Arrivals in Jamaica: A Transfer Function Analysis', Alleyne and Boxill (2003) examine the aforementioned phenomenon from the use of empirical data, and they found that crimes negatively impact on tourist arrivals to Jamaica (Harriott, 2003b). This was not the first time the crime and tourism arrivals have been examined by scholars. Boxill (1995), using multiple regression had concluded some 8 years prior that an inverse association exists between the two aforementioned phenomena, but that the crime was not a good predictor of the tourists arrivals to the nation- the coefficient of determination was 5%, meaning that only 5% of the variance in tourists arrivals can be explained by crime and violence.

Alleyne and Boxill (2003) critique the early work of Ian Boxill (1995) that the assumption of linearity in multiple regressions is not the case for crime and tourists arrivals. They argued that such a model failed to address aspects of crime and tourism that is non-linear, which the new study seeks to bridge with the use of the transfer function. The transfer function was

$$T_t = \alpha_0 + A(L)T_{t-1} + C(L)X_t + B(L)\epsilon_t \quad (1)$$

Where, T_t is total annual number of tourists in period t ; X_t being total annual number of crimes committed in Jamaica in period t ; $A(L)$, $C(L)$, $B(L)$ are polynomials in the lag operator L , and $C(L) = c_0 + c_1L + c_2L^2$.

Some scholars outside of Jamaica but within the wider Caribbean have equally shown there is a negative relationship between crime and tourism (Pattullo, 1996; de Albuquerque and McKlroy, 1999). Harriott (2003b) have examined perception of crime and/or fear of crime and victimization; and established that there was a negative statistical association between the two aforementioned variables. Harriott (2003b), using sample survey data, found that physical vulnerability, area of residence, occupational status, were the "best predictors of anxiety; and that physical vulnerability and level of confidence in police were "best predictors" of worry. Embedded in Harriott's work is the association between a negative psychological state (i.e. worry or anxiety) and crime. He went on to explain "...the fears of the victims of domestic violence are perhaps best explained by the feelings of powerlessness and loss of control...".

According to Harriott (2003a), there is a fairly strong association between the risk evaluation and physical vulnerability.

Studies have concurred with Harriott that fear of crime and feelings of vulnerability of crime are statistically associated with gender and age (Chadee, 2001a, b; Chadee and Ditton, 1999; Erskine, 1974; Clemente and Kleiman, 1977; Ortega and Myles, 1987; Skogan and Maxfield, 1981; Parker and McMorris, 1993). The literature revealed that females are likely to be fearful of crime and victimization compared to their male counterparts. Studies also found a negative association between age and fear of crime and victimization (Baldassare, 1986; Box *et al.*, 1988; Braungart *et al.*, 1980; Brillon, 1987; Clarke and Lewis, 1982; Clarke, 1984; Clemente and Kleiman, 1976). Whether the aforementioned researchers used different sampling techniques, national sample survey data or a particular typology of method of data collection, there is a consensus that age and gender are predictors of fear of crime and victimization. People's perception affect their behaviour, and Harriott (2003b) said it aptly, "...Both slavery and indentureship have altered the demographic features of the society. But even more important, these features played a paramount part in the construction of interpersonal relationships among the various ethnic groups in the society". A group of scholars have refined the association between victimization experiences and fear of crime to show that it is not a strong one (Myers and Chung, 1998).

Perception is not necessarily supported by reality, but it affects people's behaviour. In a study conducted by Powell *et al.* (2007), Jamaicans reported the most pressing problems were crime, corruption and unemployment. However, when they were asked "Have you or a family member [ever] been assaulted, attacked or [been] a victim of a crime in last 12 months?", 18% reported 'yes' with 21% knowing of corrupt acts, whereas 12.6% indicated that the 'war against crime and delinquency in Jamaica' is being adequately addressed (2007). Despite the low degree of known crime and violence, and corruption in the country, 14 out of every 100 people trust the government, and 4 out of 10 individuals trust other people. In this case the perception outstripped the reality, and people are using perception to aid their future behaviour. In the research conducted by aforementioned scholars, civic engagement in the country is very low although we have established that crime statistics only affect a few persons within the wider population. A part of the reason for the disparity between reality and perception is the role of the media.

The media is opened to all Jamaicans, and so its use as an agent of socialization affects the behavior of individuals who interacts with it (Inkeles, 1964; Haralambus and Holborn, 2002). In King's study, 86% of tourists revealed that the stories in the media affect how

they feel about safety, 56% reported that their perception was affected by the knowledge of friends or family's experiences. Another important finding in the research was that 63% of tourists indicated that occasionally 'friends or clients planning to visit the Caribbean expressed concerns about crime and safety issues (King, 2003). Some 30% of the sample mentioned that they were never victims of crimes whereas 56% reported some degree of harassment, 2.3% sexual assaults, 9.3% non-sexual assault and 44% theft of property/money (King, 2003). Based on the work of King, tourists are impacted by; crime and violence, perception of crime and victimization, and stories carried in the media on the state of the economy including crime statistics. There were a few headlines that appeared in the United States about particular tourists destination in the Caribbean that read – "Crime Driving Jamaicans out of Their Homes" (Chacon, 1999); "Rising Crime in Bahamas Could Threaten Tourism" (Emling, 1998); "Killings, Cocaine Hurt Bahamas Reputations" (Adam, 1998) and lastly 'Jamaica Enlisting Soldiers to Curt Recent Crimes (Bly, 1999). Can these not affect the psyche of tourists planning to visit the various Caribbean destinations?

Using aforementioned studies, we now know that visitors are no different from the natives, regarding their reaction to the media. They will respond to a particular advertisement or news item on crime, violence or victimization; as their individual safety and security is paramount in making a decision to visit a certain geographic location for holidays. It follows that the tourists are equally likely to respond to fear of crime and victimization in the same way as Jamaicans or Trinidadians. This is evident after September 11, 2001, when tourists' arrivals to Jamaican destinations fell due to the fear of crime and victimization (Appendix II) and so did the total expenditure from tourist arrivals (Appendix III). Tourist arrivals in the United States did not fall post-September 11, 2001 or in 2002, but it had an influence on tourists visiting Canada, United Kingdom, Latin American and Japan. This could be due to the high proportion of Americans that visit these countries. We would expect to see a drop in overseas travelling by tourist from the USA immediately following September 11, 2001 due to the fear of further attacks on Americans by militant groups (Appendix III). Most of the tourists arriving in this country are from America (Appendix III). The risk perception that is construed by each visitor will affect his/her probability of travel. Tourists are people and the primary response to fear is avoidance. This holds true across cultures, and human response to perceived fear and victimization is same across culture and social structure. Normally, people will not knowingly venture into a particular geopolitical space in which they are aware that they can become vulnerable to crime and/or violence. A chapter (i.e. chapter 8) in the book 'Understanding Crime in Jamaica: New Challenges for Public Policy' titled

“Perceptions of Crime and Safety among Tourists Visiting the Caribbean” addressed the issue of perception of fear of crime and its influence on tourist arrival to the Caribbean. The author (King, 2003) wrote that at the individual level, perception affect behaviour decision making process of the tourist’s desire to travel or not to travel. King argued that there is no consensus in the literature that the association between crime rates and tourist arrivals. However in his paper, using survey research of some 175 professional travel agencies in New York, New Jersey, Illinois and Florida, he found that people’s perception of the relative safety of the destination affects their choices in destination.

The issue is not only about crime and violence, but can distrust affects tourist’s perception that will influence their decision-making process to travel to a particular destination? Tourists have also been murdered on the island (Jamaica), and one tourist was killed because while driving past a dance in procession ‘turns over’ a pot of soup. The crimes against tourist are no different in Jamaica and Barbados than for those for the locals. Despite that fact, the rates are substantially lower for tourists compared to the national average of crimes against persons in each state. However, in 1999, 0.01% ‘crimes against persons’ were committed against tourists in Jamaica, with 0.07% in Barbados (Harriott *et al.*, 2004). In Jamaica, 43% of all crimes are violent compared to 25% in Barbados; and that between 1990 and 2002, 2 tourists who traveled to Barbados were murdered compared to 18 in Jamaica. Once again, can tourist trust Jamaicans, and will this affect the likeliness of them choosing a destination?

Trust is a necessary component for tolerance, cooperation, social capital and by extension development (Morgan, 2005; Zak and Knack, 2001). Crime, victimization, corruption are tenets of reduced social capital. They indicate a disjoint between a good civil society and one that is experiencing internal conflicts. A society is not built simply on the litigation of all forms of behaviour of its people. Laws do not solicit automatic cooperation, tolerance and harmonious living among people of different cultures. Hence, a society that is experiencing a high crime rate may not be simultaneously undergoing high trust, social collaboration, and tolerance among the various agents. Trust, therefore, is a critical component in the construction of a harmonious society as cooperation is difficult without this ingredient.

The findings and explanations will be of importance to policy makers and other players in the tourism industry. Hence, using observation data, the researchers will use the survey methodology to model ‘Crime, Tourism and Trust in Jamaica’. Thus, we will examine the possible predictive relationship between the particular factors and self protection (use to indicate the likeliness of Crime).

$$\text{Prob (SPI)} = 1 / [1 + e^{-z}] \quad (2)$$

In logistic regression, the direct estimate of the probability of an event occurring (in this case it is self protection) is written using a probability model - Eq. (1) - and where Z is a linear combination expressed in Eq. (2).

$$Z = B_0 + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + B_3X_3 + B_4X_4 + \dots + B_pX_p \quad (3)$$

where SPI is self protection index (use to indicate the likeliness of Crime); B_0 is the value for the constant and B_1 to B_p are the coefficients estimated from the data, X is the independent variable and Z is a component within the probability of the event occurring. We will now illustrate the use of Z as follows – let us replace each X with the variable that is statistically significant from the model in along with the constant and the estimators.

Methods:

Sample: In April 2007, the Centre of Leadership and Governance, department of Government, the University of the West Indies at Mona conducted a descriptive cross-sectional study to gather data on National Values and Beliefs of Jamaicans. It was a nationally representative sample of 1,438 respondents drawn from the 14 parishes, with a 105-item questionnaire. The instrument (i.e. the questionnaire) had the standard socio-demographic variables – age, subjective social class, income, ethnicity, educational level, occupation – self protection and violence; past, current, and future perceived economic situation; personal values; leadership, party, and electoral preferences; civic culture and orientation to democracy, interpersonal trust and administration of justice. Data were collected and stored using the Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS). All the variables that were predisposed for this study were conceptualized followed by performing descriptive statistics, which were used to examine the background information on the key variables; then, normal logistic regression technique was used to model the factors that may determine the dependent variable. Cronbach alpha was used to ascertain the reliability of a final variable, which constitutes a number of questions. The model was tested for its usefulness and its strength of predictability.

Conceptual definitions: Subjective Social class (i.e. social class). This variable is perceived social standings in a society, which is based on ‘work performed; ownership [of resources], authority, training and skill levels’ (Gordon, 1989).

Soclass 1	1 = lower middle class,	0 = otherwise
Soclass 2	1 = upper middle class,	0 = otherwise
Soclass 3	1 = upper class	0 = otherwise
Working class (reference group)		

Ethnicity/race. Race is ethnic background of a person, which is selected from a question with different ethnicity.

Ethn 1	1 = African/Black	0 = otherwise
Ethn 2	1 = Caucasian/white	0 = otherwise
Ethn 3	1 = Mixed	0 = otherwise
Indian, Asian (non-Indian) - Chinese, Syrian/Lebanese		

Gender. Gender is a social construct, which speaks to the roles that males and females performed in a society. This variable is a dummy variable, 1 if male and 0 if otherwise. Self Protection Index (use to indicate the likeliness of Crime) is the summation of 21 Likert scale questions, with a Cronbach alpha of 0.895. The Likert scale is from 1 being strongly agreed to 4 which indicates strongly disagree. Based on the Index higher scores indicate least self-protection, with lower scores representing greater degree of self-protection. The least score is 1, with the highest score being 96 [$1 \leq SPI \leq 96$]. The self-protection index can be interpreted based on three categories, low, moderate and high. Values' ranging from 0 to 42 are low self-protection, from 43 to 63 are moderate protection and from 64 to 92 represent high self-protection. (Appendix I for items that constitute 'self protection').

Age. Age is the total number of years, which have elapsed since birth (Demographic Statistics, 2005 in Bourne (2009). This is a continuous variable, in years.

Occupation is a dummy variable, 1 if in high occupation, 0 if otherwise. Those categories which are classified within this are – teachers, doctors, lawyers, businessmen, managers and/or supervisors whereas in the low category the following were included – farmers, tradesmen, unskilled worker, shopkeeper, haggler, vendor, office workers and so on.

Governance of country is a dummy variable; 1 if benefits a few powerful interest, 0 if otherwise (i.e. everyone)

Educational level: The total number of years of schooling, (including apprenticeship and/or the completion of particular typology of school) that an individual completes within the formal educational system (Bourne, 2009).

Edu 1	1 = Secondary level,	0 = otherwise
Edu 2	1 = Post-Secondary,	0 = otherwise
Edu 3	1 = Tertiary	0 = otherwise
Primary education (reference group)		

Political Inequality Index, PII. This variable was created by summing 16 Likert scale questions. The response ranges from strongly agree (i.e. 1) to strongly disagree (i.e. 4). The 16-item questions had a Cronbach alpha of 0.662. The PII values range from 1 to 64 [$1 \leq PII \leq 64$], with higher values indicating more political inequality.

Personal Values Index, PVI. Some 35 Likert scale questions were asked of the respondents, ranging from loyalty, privacy to spiritual practices. Each question had

an option, with regard to the question, from 0 to 10. Thus, the Personal Value Index is the summation of all 35 questions, with a Cronbach alpha of 0.935. Therefore, the PVI ranges from a minimum of 0 to a maximum of 355 [$0 \leq PVI \leq 355$], where higher scores indicate greater personal values.

RESULTS

Of the surveyed respondents (n=1,438), the response rate for the question on gender was 99.4% (n=1430). Of the valid cases (n=1,430), 49.2% were males compared to 50.8% females. The median age of the sample was 30 years, with a range of 68 years (86 – 18 years), with the mean age of men being 34.72 years \pm 12.7 years compared a median age of 32.5 years. From Table 1, the mean for self-protection of sample is moderate (i.e. 63 out of 92) with the males having a lower self-protection (mean = 60.3 \pm 13.6) than their female counterparts (mean = 63.02 \pm 12.2). The self-protection index was disaggregated to provide pertinent information on the views of respondents on particular questions (Appendix I).

Based on Table 1, the personal values index of each gender in the sample was very high (i.e. minimum of 289 out of 350 or 82.6%). Although it may appear as if males have a greater personal value system than their female counterparts, using Table 1, there is no statistical difference between the sexes (P=0.448, n=1,422: 696 males and 726 females). Another issue that we examined was the association between personal values index and the age of the respondents, we found that no statistical relationship existed between the aforementioned variables (Pearson's correlation coefficient = 0.026, P= 0.327; n=1,401).

There were some other interesting findings based on Table 1, one was the difference between the men and women perspective of the administration of justice. There is the general perception in Jamaica that the administration of justice favours the affluent more so than the general population (74.4%, n=1009 of 1,356). Further analysis of this finding by gender revealed differences between the sexes. Marginally more men (4.1%) than women believe that the administration of justice in Jamaica favours the rich instead of the poor (or the general populace). This perception can be attributed to the caring nature of the feminine gender. Women will more likely exhibit compassion than men. The mothers of so called bad men will still have more concern for their welfare than the associated fathers, if they can be found. This behaviour of women can be linked to their perception of the roles they are expected to play in society. The role of mother imparts perception of compassion to the female. This is some times seen as natural. Generally the sampled population revealed that the political inequality index was moderate (i.e. 34.5 out of 64 \pm 6.4), and that this was dissimilar for both sexes (Table 1).

Table 1: Demographic characteristic of respondents, by gender

Characteristic	Male % (n) N=703	Female % (n) N=727	p
Personal value Index*	290.4 ± 1.7	289.3 ± 1.6	> 0.05
Age 34.7 yrs. ± 12.7yrs	32.5 yrs. ± 12.5yrs		
Self-protection Index	60.3 ± 13.6	63.02 ± 12.2	0.001
Political Inequality	34.5 ± 6.6	34.5 ± 6.3	0.215
Education:			0.003
No formal	1.7 (12)	1.1 (8)	
Primary	4.0 (28)	2.8 (20)	
Secondary	53.4 (373)	47.1 (341)	
Post-secondary	16.7 (117)	17.4 (126)	
Tertiary	24.2 (169)	31.6 (229)	
Administration of Justice			0.087
Does not favour	23.4 (155)	27.5 (189)	
Favours rich	76.6 (506)	72.5 (498)	
Governance of country			0.951
For all	26.2 (174)	26.1 (184)	
For few powerful int.	73.8 (489)	73.9 (521)	
Ethnicity			
African, Black	82.2 (577)	80.9 (588)	
Caucasian	0.5 (4)	0 (0)	
Mixed	12.3 (86)	14.0 (102)	
Others	5.0 (35)	5.1 (34)	
Subjective Social Class			0.980
Lower	65.7 (459)	64.2 (588)	
Middle-middle	25.4 (170)	29.6 (28)	
Upper-middle	3.6 (24)	4.6 (31)	
Upper	2.2 (15)	1.6 (11)	

*The aggregate mean of the personal value index was 289 (out of 355) ± 44.3, with the median being 299

Generally, 7.6% of the sample (n=1424) reported a low self protection, with 45.9% indicated a moderate self protection compared to 46.5% who claimed a high self protection. Further analyses of these general findings reveal some important results. Of the sampled population (n=1,430), the response rate for the cross tabulation between self-protection and gender was 98.5%. Of those who responded, 49% were males compared to 51% females. Of the male respondents, 10.2% of them reported to take a low stance about personal self protection, with 48% revealed a moderate approach compared to 41.8% were willing to protect themselves at a high degree (Table 2). The effect of this type of behaviour by men can be seen in the large gender disparity relating to the committal of crime. Men are more willing to protect themselves to a higher degree. This higher degree involves the use of force if perceive as necessary. There is a cultural component to this behaviour. This is one area that is often overlooked when behavioral attributes and crime are examined. According to Reiss (1964), "whatever may be the psychological and temperamental differences between various races and societies, one thing is certain, namely that their cultures are different Their traditions, their modes of living and making a living, the values that they place on certain types of conduct are often so strikingly different that what is punished as a crime in one group is celebrated as heroic in another." The behaviour of the male and female towards the committal of a crime in the Jamaican society will be influenced by the culture of the wider national and regional groups. Policy makers in the tourism sector

Table 2: Percentage of self protection index by gender of respondents

Details	Gender of Respondents	
	Male	Female
Low Self Protection	10.2	5.1
Moderate Self Protection	48.0	44.0
High Self Protection	41.8	50.2
Count	694	722

should never assume homogeneity of behaviour regarding crime and criminal acts.

In comparison to the males, the females exhibited a greater degree of high self protection (a difference of 8.3% higher than their male counterparts), with one-half less females indicated that they take a low perspective to self-protection. Embedded in this finding is the greater degree of self-protection that women use compared to their male counterparts. This implies that females are key instigators in violence, and that a number of violent acts, which are committed, would arise because of female involvement. Their classification as the 'weaker sex' coupled with their generally smaller physical frames would motivate the need for grater self protection. Furthermore, there is an association between self-protection and gender of the respondents. With regard to the degree of the relationship, it is a very weak one (contingency coefficient = 0.117 or 11.7%). Thus, meaning that 1.4% variation (or change) in self-protection can be explained by the gender of the individual.

Based on the findings in Table 3, there is an association between self-protection and the age cohort of the individual. The cross tabulation revealed that relationship between the two variables is a weak one

Table 3: Percentage of self protection by age group of respondents

Details	Gender of Respondents		
	Youth	Other Adults	Elderly
Low Self Protection	9.6	7.2	2.8
Moderate Self Protection	45.8	46.6	29.6
High Self Protection	44.6	46.2	67.6
Count	437	888	71

$\chi^2(2) = 15.8, P = 0.003$

Table 4: Self protection by age group controlled gender, N=1,377

	Age Group		
	Youth (15 to 25 y)	Other Adults (26 to 59 y)	Elderly (60 y and over)
Male*			
Self Protection Index:			
Low	14.3	9.2	5.3
Moderate	53.4	46.9	26.3
High	32.3	43.9	68.4
Count 189	458		26
Female**			
Self Protection Index			
Low	6.1	5.2	0.0
Moderate	40.1	46.5	33.3
High	53.8	48.3	66.7
Count 247	424		33

*: $\chi^2(4) = , P = 0.001$, **: $\chi^2(4) = , P = 0.141$

Table 5: Self protection by interpersonal trust of respondents (in %)

Details	Interpersonal trust		
	No	Yes	Total
Low self protection	7.2	9.0	7.4
Moderate self protection	46.4	44.5	46.1
High self protection	46.4	46.5	46.5
Count	1201	200	1401

$\chi^2(2) = 0.913, P = 0.634$

(cc = 10.6%), with only 1.2% of the change in self protection can be explained by changes in the age cohort of the respondent. Further analysis revealed that throughout the different age typologies, the elderly has the greatest level of self protection (67.6%) followed by other adults (ages from 26 to 59 years) and lastly by youth (ages 15 through 25 years). This is not strange, as the elderly feels more vulnerable to acts of criminality by younger persons. The sagging strength of this age cohort would also result in the need for greater self-protection.

In attempting to examine the association between self-protection and particular demographic variable so as to conclude on the age-gender difference in self-protection, the researcher investigated a trivariate relationship among self-protection, age and gender of respondents to arrive at a finality of sort. We found that self-protection is primarily a male phenomenon, with elderly men reporting the greatest degree of self-protection followed by other adults and lastly by youths (Table 4). Masculinity is the gender most synonymous with crime. Various theorists to explain this phenomenon have put some reasons forward. Macionis and Plummer (2005), opines that "...in virtually every society in the world there would seem to be more stringent controls on women than men. These social controls or the lack thereof, would affects one's perception of the amount of self protection needed. The fact that men are allowed to

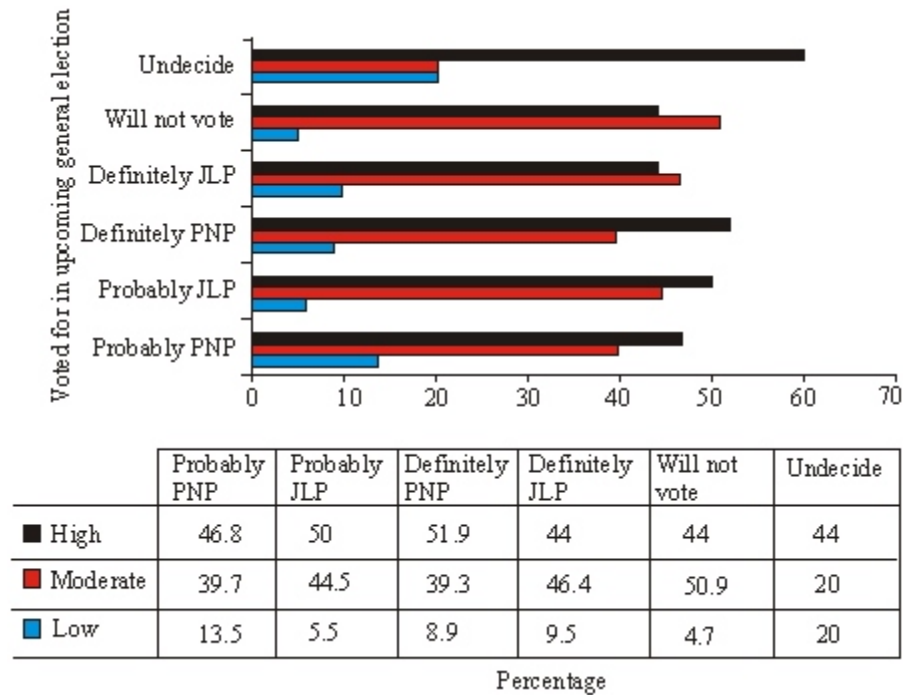
roam freely outside of the home and to have more control over the home sphere would motivate the need for more self protection. Some societies exert greater control over women regarding what they can or cannot do. Added to this phenomenon is the reality that crime against women commands more emotional out cry than crime against men. This could be one of the factors that result in less crime against women and the corresponding need for men to protect themselves more than women.

From Table 5, it is revealed that there was no statistical association between self-protection and interpersonal trust ($\chi^2(2) = 0.913, P = 0.634$). Embedded in this finding is the fact that people do not protect (or protect) them because there is low, moderate or high interpersonal trust.

The findings in Table 6 revealed that there is no statistical difference between personal values and self-protection of respondents (F-statistic (2, 147) = 1.325, $P = 0.266$)

In attempting to understand self-protection, we sought to cross tabulate this with voting behaviour. The findings revealed that there is a statistical association between self-protection and voting behaviour of Jamaicans ($\chi^2(10) = 19.95, P = 0.030, cc=13.5\%$). Furthermore, the association between the aforementioned variable is a very weak one (i.e. 13.5%). In addition to this, 1.8% of the variation in self-protection of the sampled respondents can be explained by a change in voting behaviour. From Fig. 1, Jamaicans who reported to be 'definitely PNP' and will be voting for the People's National Party (PNP) in the upcoming election of (November 2007) are marginally more self protective (7.9%) than those people within the sample who indicated that they will 'definitely' be voting for the Jamaica Labour Party (JLP). On the other hand, those who stated that they will 'probably' be voting for the JLP are minimal (3.2%) more likely to have a greater 'high' self protection in comparison to their PNP counterparts (i.e. probably will be voting for the PNP). One of the stark findings of the study is that the greater degree of reported self-protection was indicated by those Jamaicans who are undecided about voting in the election of 2007. This finding is critical as more than half of the populace who are undecided more self protective than those who are likely to participate in politically by voting in an election. Embedded in this finding (Fig. 1) is the association between low political participation and self-protection. Thus, it means that losing faith in the political system the individual of a higher probability of protecting him/herself compared with someone who has a greater degree of trust for the political system. Concurringly, there is no significant statistical association between self-protection and political ideology of respondents (Table 7).

Analysis of self protection model: Of the 12 predisposed variables that are used in this paper, only 5 of them are statistically significant in this study ($P < 0.05$). It should



$$\chi^2(10) = 19.95, P = 0.030, cc = 13.5\%$$

Fig. 1: Self protection by 'who will you vote for in the upcoming election' (in %)

Table 6: Personal values by self-protection of respondents (in %)

Details	Descriptive statistics		95 % CI	
Self protection:	Personal values mean	Standard deviation	Lower bound	Upper bound
Low self protection	287.02	51.83	277.13	296.90
Moderate self protection	289.03	45.21	285.56	292.51
High self protection	292.36	39.97	289.31	295.42
Total	290.43	43.42	288.17	292.69

F-statistic (2, 147) = 1.325, P = 0.266

Table 7: Self protection by political ideology of respondents (in %)

Details	Political ideology						
	Far left	Left	Leaning left	Moderate	Right leaning	Right	Far right
Low self protection	287.02	51.83	277.13	296.90			
Moderate self protection	289.03	45.21	285.56	292.51			
High Self protection	292.36	39.97	289.31	295.42			
Total	290.43	43.42	288.17	292.69			

F-statistic (2, 147) = 1.325, P = 0.266

be noted here that we are not saying that only those variables that are used in the model affect self-protection, or that only those, which are statistically significant, relate to the aforementioned variable, but that those which we have identified are testable from the collected data. By using the principle of parsimony in statistics, we will reduce the model to those variables that are statistically significant as they are the only ones, which will affect the variable (self protection). Thus the five statistically significant explanatory variables are (1) education, (2) inequality, (3) orderly society, (4) income, and (5) age of respondents. Of the primarily aforementioned explanatory variables, age of the respondent is the most influential factor (OR =1.05, 95% CI = 1.02-1.08) followed by tertiary level education with reference to primary and below education (OR =8.37, 95% CI = 2.43-28.82);

political inequality (OR =1.07, 95% CI = 1.02-1.11); secondary level education with reference to primary and below education (OR =3.34, 95% CI = 1.30-8.62); post-secondary level education with reference to below primary level education (OR =3.47, 95% CI = 1.17-10.25); income (OR =0.82, 95% CI = 0.68-0.99) and lastly by an orderly society (OR =0.58, 95% CI = 0.34-1.00) (Table 8).

Having identified the 5-variable that are associated with self protection in this study, we are going further to examine whether or not those aforementioned variables are predictors of behaviours rather than being merely associative factors. We will now examine the possible predictive relationship between the factors and self-protection.

Table 8: Logistic regression: self-protection model by some variables

	Coefficient	Std. Error	Waldstatistics	Odds ratio	95.0% C.I.
Justice	0.196	0.352	0.308	1.216	0.610 - 2.426
Governance	-0.763	0.392	3.785	0.466	0.216 - 1.006
Ethn1	-1.658	1.037	2.556	0.191	0.025 - 1.454
Ethn2	17.061	20043.789	0.000	25684716.7	0.000 - 0.00
Ethn3	-0.909	1.132	0.644	0.403	0.044 - 3.709
†Indian, Chinese, Syrian/Lebanese					
Male	-0.456	0.277	2.706	0.634	0.368 - 1.091
Edu1	1.207	0.483	6.238	3.343	1.297 - 8.619*
Edu2	1.243	0.553	5.050	3.466	1.172 - 10.247*
Edu3	2.125	0.631	11.345	8.370	2.431 - 28.820**
†Primary or below					
Inequality	0.064	0.021	9.682	1.067	1.024 - 1.111**
Orderly society	-0.541	0.276	3.850	0.582	0.339 - 0.999*
Inter_trust	-0.126	0.355	0.127	0.881	0.440 - 1.766
values	0.003	0.003	0.687	1.003	0.996 - 1.009
Occupation	0.720	0.396	3.305	2.054	0.945 - 4.461
Socclass1	-0.031	0.350	0.008	0.969	0.489 - 1.923
Socclass2	-0.987	0.686	2.072	0.373	0.097 - 1.429
Socclass3	18.883	11212.6	0.000	158811669.7	0.000 - 0.00
†Working class					
Income	-0.200	0.096	4.364	0.818	0.678 - 0.988*
Age	0.049	0.014	11.956	1.050	1.022 - 1.080**
Constant	-0.394	1.651	0.057	0.674	-

Model: $\chi^2(19) = 65.553$, $P = 0.001$, $-2\text{Log Likelihood} = 406.608$, Nagelkerke R-squared = 0.172, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, †Reference group

From Eq. (3):

$$Z = -0.394 + 1.207(\text{Secondary}) + 1.243(\text{Post-secondary}) + 2.125(\text{Tertiary}) + 0.064(\text{Inequality}) - 0.541(\text{Orderly society}) - 0.200(\text{Income group}) + 0.784(\text{Age}) \quad (4)$$

In order evaluate the predictive power of Eq. (2), we will assume that the individual has secondary level education, there is minimal political inequality, the society is more orderly, base income (under \$5,000), and the age of the individual is 16 years.

$$\begin{aligned} Z &= -0.394 + 1.207 + 0.064(1) - 0.541(1) - 0.200(1) + 0.784(16) \\ &= -0.394 + 1.207 + 0.064 - 0.541 - 0.200 + 12.544 = 12.68 \end{aligned}$$

We will use Eq. (3):

$$\text{Prob (event)} = 1 / (1 + e^{-Z}) \quad (5)$$

As the formula that will test the predictive power of the predisposed factors

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Prob (event)} &= 1 / (1 + e^{-12.68}) \\ &= 1 / (1 + 0.000003113) \\ &= 1 / 1.000003113 = 0.9999 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the value of 0.9999 indicates that the probability of the event occurring is 99.99% (or 0.999).

Therefore, all the factors identified by the model are predictors of self-protection. Furthermore, we have already mentioned that the predisposed factors used in this model do not form the total explanation of self-protection; and this is concurred by the Nagelkerke value of 17.2%. This can be interpreted as 17.2% of the variance in self protection can be explained the statistically significant variable, with a -2 Log likelihood being 408.6, $\chi^2(19) = 65.6$, $p \text{ value} = 0.001$.

Having used logistic regression to model self protection of Jamaicans as well as what has been aforementioned, we can now further examine not only the impact of each of the explanatory variable but also doing some interpreting with the operationalization of that variable. We have established that age is the most influential predictor of self-protection, but we are cognizant that the older someone gets he/she is 1.1 times more likely to protect him/herself. With regard to education, based on the operational definition of this variable, we have come to the conclusion that the more someone becomes educated, the more he/she will use self-protection. If individual is educated at the tertiary level, he/she is 8.4 times more likely to protect him/herself than someone who is at the primary level or below. On the other hand, with respect to secondary or post-secondary level education, an individual who has the aforementioned level, he/she is approximately 3.4 times more likely to protect him/herself with reference to someone who is at the primary or below level of education. Educational level attained have serious implication for behavioural display. The individual with primary educational level or below is

less likely to protect themselves than the other educational groups. This may result in more violent behaviour by this group if their security is threatened. Self-protection gives some level of comfort in your interactions with others. The lack of formal educational training to at least the secondary level will result in anti-social behaviour if the individual is provoked or perceived some levels of threat.

DISCUSSION

The current study revealed that self-protection was moderate in Jamaica and that this was greater among females than males as well as greatest among the elderly than the other age cohorts. Almost 71 out of every 100 Jamaicans somewhat agreed, "It is sometimes necessary to use violence to prevent someone from harming you." Jamaicans have a tolerance for homosexual and lesbians (i.e. at least 68 out of every 100 respondents indicated that they disagreed with killing any homosexual or lesbian who makes a sexual advance on them). Concurring, there is a general psyche in Jamaica that it is justifiable to harm someone who has created some personal, family or close associate injury, and that it is sometimes necessary to use violence to prevent violence (i.e. 45 out of every 100 respondents agree with violence to prevent violence). Furthermore, self-protection in Jamaica is influenced by education, inequality, income and age of respondents. The present research found that people who make more income are less likely to protect themselves, and the older Jamaicans get they are more likely to protect themselves. An interest finding is the fact that if there is perceived inequality in the society, they people are more likely to protect themselves. One finding which appears paradoxical is that those with tertiary level education are more likely have a greater self-protection index than those with lower level education, but statistics revealed that those in the lower socio-economic status are more likely to commit crimes.

Winfrey and Abadinsky (2003) used the work of Herrnstein and Murray (1994) to show the link between intelligent quotient (IQ) and criminality. Herrnstein and Murray (1994) acknowledge the possibility that that high IQ could provide "some protection against lapsing into criminality for people who otherwise are at risk". They further opined that, "among the most firmly established facts about criminal offenders is that their distribution of IQ scores differs from that of the population at large. The relationship of IQ to criminality is especially pronounced in the small fraction of the population, primarily young men, who constitute the chronic criminal, that account for a disproportionate amount of crime." The absence of an interest in self protection by this group with primary or less educational level is not to be interpreted as a reluctance to violently defend oneself or to be involved in acts of criminality. One of the weaknesses of the study

regarding this group is that some of them would have been prevented from answering the questionnaire due to the lack of the necessary reading skills.

Tourists visiting a country should be made aware of the behaviour of the relevant groups regarding self-protection and crime. A misunderstanding or inappropriate reaction to cultural taboos, norms, or values could result in a crime being committed against the tourist. One of the cultural nuances of Jamaica is that the public prefers to take matters into their own hand as against seeking litigation. We proxy such a situation with the question "In general, the dons do a better job of controlling other criminals than the police", 57% of sample support this variable, with 20% of them being strongly supportive of this issue. How does political inequality among other conditions contribute to this culture?

Political inequality is positively related to self-protection. Based on Table 1, the greater the political inequality within the nation, we will expect 1.1 times increase in self-protection. However, income and an orderly society are inversely related to self-protection. This implies that an individual who reported a lower income is 0.8 times more likely to protect him/herself compared to another person who received a greater income. Like income, there is an inverse association between an orderly society and self-protection. Using the odds ratio (Exp (B)), a change from a disorderly to an orderly nation reduces individual self-protection by 0.6 (Table 1). This follows logically, as the existence of order within the society will reduce the perceptive need for individuals residing in that society to protect them. An orderly society would stem from the existence of more value consensus and social equilibrium. More individuals in the state would conform to the expected behaviour regarding norms and values. Thus, very few individuals would exhibit behaviour that deviates from the norm of society.

Self-protection as a concept is very esoteric. Why individuals seek to protect themselves is a product of many socially constructed variables. These include politics, education, and gender. Other factors such age and income also affects one's self-protection.

Tourism is one of the main income earners for many countries of the Caribbean. In any country internecine violence and crime in generally is bad for development. It is well established that crime affects economic growth – as is evident in many African states that are experiencing civil war - and will also impact on economic development (Rapley, 2002; Turner, 1999). Rapley (2002) noted that this was not limited to African states, but is also a reality for many third world countries.

The continued criminality-involving rival gangs that result in high levels of murder in Jamaica has/will negatively affect the population's ability to contribute to

development in a meaningful way. Fear and anomie, which arise from high levels of crime, render residents of the country diffident in their reaction with tourist. The fear factor will result in xenophobia, which will undermine our reputation of being beautiful and loving people who accepts tourists with open arms.

Self-protection is a double-edged sword, which seeks to engulf the individual in a sea of distrust as well as a false sense of security. They secure themselves by buying weapons, employing close circuit television camera, fortifying homes and buildings, and numerous other mechanisms that give them a sense of security. But how effective is this self-protection against the deviant behaviour of individuals some of whom resides in the same domicile with them. Some of the crimes perpetuated against tourists are not carried out by strangers to them, but by friends and 'so call' well wishers. This leads to the need for deeper analysis of crime and its attendant causes. The psych-analysis of the perpetrators as well as the social and cultural situations that lead to crime needs further investigation. The perception of danger by individuals results in feelings about self-protection and manifest actions to fulfill their perception and allay fears of exposure and vulnerability.

The mindset of a tourist makes him/her vulnerable to crime. The lack of knowledge of the environment and its inhabitants can lead to unintended unsocial behaviour that can result in criminal actions being perpetuated against the tourist. As a region we welcome millions of tourist to our beautiful Caribbean islands. Education of these tourists via brochures, fliers and training of tour operators should be done to minimize crime against tourists. All cultures have deviants who engage in criminal actions as defined by the majority. The social settings within which these deviants plot and act out their criminality can be understood in an effort to minimize their criminal actions. Self protection gives an indication of an individual's willingness to protect him/her against criminal/violent acts of other individuals, real or imagined. When we disaggregated the self-protection index, some interesting results were observed as 36% of Jamaicans believe that they have the right to physically harm someone who makes a sexual advance to their partner; 51% reported that an individual has the right to kill someone to protect his/her family, 32% indicated that it is justifiable to kill homosexuals, 45% reported that sometimes it is acceptable to use violence to comeback violence, and more (Appendix I). Hence, the tourists need to be aware of how individuals in the host country perceive their vulnerability and consequently, and seek to protect themselves in particular situations. This apriori knowledge would also allow them to develop their own self-protection mechanism to make their vacation enjoyable and crime free.

In summary, the predisposed variables that are found to be associated with self-protection display more than an

associative relationship; they are predictors of self-protection. These have implications for the behaviour of Jamaican regarding perceived threat to person, property, loved ones or ego. This is important for tourism as some tourist fall victims to crime because of a lack of understanding of how the average Jamaican feels about their own protection. The social interaction of tourists with locals in Jamaica creates social relations that can escalate into misunderstanding and violence. This misunderstanding can be reduced if visitors to our shores know more about how the average Jamaican feels about self-protection.

CONCLUSION

Jamaicans have a moderate self-protection, and this they believe is necessarily to protect themselves from crime and violence as well as to reduce and address other acts of violence in the society. Concurringly, inspite of the widespread perception that Jamaicans are intolerant to homosexuality; however they are moderately high tolerance for non-bisexuality. Despite the aforementioned tolerance, apart of the crime, violence and victimization is in response to self-protection, perceived inequality and self-preservation. Although young males in the lower socioeconomic class mostly perpetuate crime, violence and victimization, self-preservation seemingly is greatest among those with tertiary level education. Another issue, which emerged from the current findings, is the fact that socioeconomic inequalities are also responsible for some proportion of crime, violence and victimization against visitors and residents alike in Jamaica. Hence, some crimes carried out against other people are not due to reprisal but owing to social injustices in the society.

Although sex is related to self-protection, it was found not to be predictive factor. Even though sex is not predictive measure, the findings show that females have a greater degree of self-protection than their male counterparts. Another fascinating finding was that elderly people have greater likeliness for self protection compared to younger folks. Thus, despite past evident from literature that crime is a young men phenomenon; we now know that female and elderly persons have a greater degree of self-protection than other cohorts. This study is not claiming to provide all the answers to the issues of crime, tourism and trust in Jamaica; but this aid policy specialists in understanding Jamaicans, and possible explanations for some of their actions.

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Appendix I: Questions that Constitute Self Protection Index*

Here are some issue related to self-protection, and violence. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. THE CATEGORIES ARE: (1) AGREE STRONGLY, (2) AGREE SOMEWHAT, (3) DISAGREE SOMEWHAT and (4) DISAGREE STRONGLY – PLEASE CIRCLE THE CORRECT ANSWER.

ITEM	Agree strongly %	Agree somewhat %	Disagree somewhat %	Disagree strongly %
Q85. A man/woman has a right to physically harm any one who Insult him/her	5.2	12.0	26.0	56.8
Q86. A man/woman has a right to physically harm someone who Makes a sexual advance to his partner in his/her presence	14.2	21.7	27.9	36.2
Q87. A man/woman is justified in killing any homosexual or Lesbian who makes a sexual advance to them	16.2	15.6	27.3	40.8
Q88. A man/woman has a right to physically harm or to use Violence against any one who violates him/her without Offering an apology	7.8	15.4	34.0	42.8
Q89. It is sometimes necessary to use violence to prevent Someone from harming you	25.6	45.8	15.5	13.1
Q90. A man/woman has a right to kill someone to protect his/her Family	18.3	32.4	24.8	24.5
Q91. People who live in high violence communities sometimes Find it necessary and right to use violence to protect their community	18.7	43.9	20.3	17.1
Q92. I usually travel with a knife or sharp instrument to protect myself	11.8	16.5	20.4	51.3
Q93. I would like to own a gun to protect myself	17.5	19.4	18.3	44.8
Q94. It is right for citizens to kill a cow thief if the cow belong to a Poor person	12.1	18.1	28.8	41.0
Q95. It is sometimes necessary to use violence to prevent violence	11.0	33.9	24.1	31.0
Q96. If I had a dispute with someone and as a result they were to Use violence against me, I would have difficulty forgiving them	21.4	39.1	24.9	14.6
Q97. Is someone were to use violence against me, I would feel Justified in doing equal physical harm to them	18.9	33.9	25.8	21.4
Q98. If someone were to use violence against me, I would feel Justified in doing more physical harm to them	10.7	23.4	34.2	31.6
Q99. If someone were to use violence against a member of my Immediate family, I would feel justified in physically harming them	17.3	33.2	28.1	21.3
Q100. I have a right to kill anyone who rapes a member of my Immediate family	17.2	23.0	28.0	31.8
Q101. If someone were to seriously harm me, I have a right to Physically harm them or a member of their family or close friend Of theirs	6.8	13.4	30.4	49.3
Q102. If you can ketch Quakoo, you ketch him shut. Do you Understand this saying	7.4	12.8	22.8	57.0
Q103. If I had a dispute with someone and as a result they were To use violence against me, I would rather report the matter To the police than take things into my own hands	45.6	30.6	16.1	7.7
Q104. Some community strongmen with criminal reputation have Set up Jungle Courts in their communities. These courts try and Punish person who commit crimes against other members of Their community. Do you support or oppose this	9.8	22.7	23.9	43.6
Q105. In general, the dons do a better job of controlling other Criminals than the police.	19.8	36.8	21.0	22.5

*Lower scores indicate a high degree of self-protection. We will now provide an interpretation of the self-protection index- low, moderate and high. Values' ranging from 0 to 37 are low self protection, from 38 to 66 are moderate protection and from 67 to 96 represent high self-protection.

Source: Computed by author from the dataset collected by the Centre of Leadership and Governance, Department of Government, the University of the West Indies, Mona Campus in Powell *et al.* (2007)

Appendix II: Stopover visitors to jamaica by country of origin, 1985 – 1992, 2001 – 2004

Country of origin	Years											
	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	2001	2002	2003	2004
United States	433,136	494,258	545,476	460,868	481,395	565,504	544,467	563,009	915237	924096	968315	996131
Canada	82,294	100,588	10,9945	92,946	106,250	113,917	94,247	100,770	111158	97413	95265	105623
United Kingdom	21,951	30,047	35,240	44,416	6 7,065	82,429	89,169	96,784	127320	125859	149714	161606
Other European	9,965	12,146	22,879	25,569	29,485	38,620	70,680	91,090	53312	53230	68786	80319
Caribbean	14,237	15,044	14,725	14,498	16,140	18,251	16,442	18,189	42289	42671	45213	49443
Latin America	4,659	6,099	5,758	5,368	7,148	9,627	8,905	16,642	14815	11864	10886	10643
Japan	915	1,251	1,426	1,824	2,958	6,104	11,462	15,901	5446	4664	4182	4430
Other	4,556	4,160	3,378	3,384	4,330	6,325	9,235	6,625	6939	6569	7924	6591
United States												
% of total	75.76	74.48	73.83	71.03	74.32	67.26	64.46	61.94	71.70	72.97	71.71	70.41
Canada												
% of total	14.39	15.16	14.88	14.32	16.40	13.55	11.16	11.09	8.71	7.69	7.06	7.47
UK												
% of total	3.84	4.53	4.77	6.85	10.35	9.80	10.56	10.65	9.97	9.94	11.09	11.42

Source: Economic and Social Survey Jamaica, 1991- 1999, 2004

Appendix III: Total visitor arrivals and expenditure, 1994 - 2004

Category of visitors	Years										
	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Foreign											
Nationals	976635	1018946	1053097	1085399	1128283	1147135	1219311	118996	1179083	1262108	1326918
Non-resident Jamaicans	121652	128055	109353	106795	97004	101262	103379	89520	87283	88177	87868
Total Stop-over	1098287	1147001	1162449	1192194	1225287	1284397	1322690	1276516	1266366	1350285	1414786
Cruise passengers	595036	605178	658179	711699	673690	764341	907611	840337	865419	1132596	1099773
TOTAL	1693323	1752179	1820627	1903893	1898977	2012738	2230301	2116853	2133968	2482881	2514559
Foreign Exchange (US\$M)	973	1069	1128	1140	1196	1233	1332.6	1226.8	1192.9	1350.0	1437.0
% Change over the previous yr.	-	9.866	5.519	1.064	4.912	3.094	8.078	-7.939	-2.763	13.170	6.444

Source: Economic and Social Survey Jamaica, 1994 – 1999, 2004

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