

FUDMA Journal of Sciences (FJS) ISSN online: 2616-1370 ISSN print: 2645 - 2944 Vol. 4 No. 4, December, 2020, pp 144 – 154

DOI: https://doi.org/10.33003/fjs-2020-0404-444



AN INVESTIGATION OF STAKEHOLDERS' STRATEGIES FOR EXTERNAL CRISIS PREPAREDNESS: PERSPECTIVES OF TOURISM INDUSTRY STAKEHOLDER IN JOS, PLATEAU STATE, NIGERIA. Majebi, E. C.

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ABSTRACT

Based on the collective realisation that destinations and organisations are becoming increasingly vulnerable to external crises which can negatively impact on the tourism sectors of economies, this article evaluated the strategies that stakeholders utilised towards effective preparedness for external crisis related incidents. The study employed a qualitative case study approach, using interviews and available documents in exploring the crisis preparedness strategies employed by stakeholders in the city of Jos, Plateau State, Nigeria towards addressing the impact of external crisis incidents and threats on their destinations' tourism industry and subsectors. The study's field research was based on semi structured interview sessions, covering core questions and probes on the stakeholders' preparedness for external crises that can affect their tourism sectors, and if there are factors that can affect their efforts towards preparedness for identified crises. The results from the interviews and discussion of findings based on emergent themes from the studies identified a range of recommendations for the study's destination stakeholders, who were mostly found to be deficient in appropriate crisis preparedness measures, owing to in adequate resources from government, and in some instances, lack of efficient crisis preparedness plan. Of these recommendations, one of the key suggestions was for stakeholders of the city of Jos, Nigeria and similar destination(s) and organisations to adopt or develop a formal crisis preparedness plan, and complete risk assessment on their destination, and other places that could be vulnerable to external crises, for effective crisis preparedness.

Keywords; External crisis, tourism, crisis preparedness strategies, tourism industry stakeholders.

INTRODUCTION

The 2020 World Travel and Tourism Council's (WTTC 2020) report shows that travel and tourism in 2019 accounted for:

- \$8.9 trillion to the world's GDP
- 10.3% of global GDP
- 300 million jobs, i.e. 1 in 10 jobs around the world
- US\$1.7 trillion visitor exports (6.8% of total exports, 28.3% of global services exports) and,
- US\$948 billion capital investment (4.3% total investment).

However, in spite of the economic impact and social importance of the global tourism sector, it is vulnerable to especially human induced crises (e.g. political instability, terrorism, violent civil unrests, economic recession, industrial accidents) and sometimes, naturally occurring incidents (e.g. volcanic eruption, flooding, and hurricanes), including health crisis such as the recent COVID-19 pandemic, which can affect both destinations and organisations offering a wide range of services in the tourism industry value chain (Glaesser 2006; Henderson 2007; Ritchie 2009; Ritchie et al. 2014; Morakabati and Beavis 2017; Mykhailo and Halyna 2020; Sigala 2020; UNWTO 2020; WTTC 2020).

Several research studies reveal that crisis incidents can negatively influence tourist perceptions of safety and security of affected destinations and organisations, causing disruptions to the normal operations of the tourism sectors in affected destinations, and beyond (Asongu *et al.* 2019; Cró, and Martins 2017; De Sausmarez 2013; Ghaderi, MatSom, and Henderson 2012; Ghaderi, MatSom, and Wang. 2014; Hajibaba, Boztug, and Dolnicar 2016; Henderson 2002; Henderson 2006; Lanouar and Goaied 2019; Misrahi 2015; Mykhailo and Halyna 2020; Pappas 2018; Pappas and Papatheodorou 2017; Perles-Ribes *et al.* 2019; Perles-Ribes and Ramon-Rodriguez 2013; Rittichainuwat 2013; Seabra *et al.* 2020; Sigala 2020; UNWTO 2020; WTTC 2020; Zopiatis *et al.* 2019) . What this implies, however, is high economic costs for the affected region(s) of a destination, and often, an entire nation. For example, Misrahi (2015) finds that;

- In 2009, cases of H1N1 influenza health crisis led to \$5 billion of losses for the Mexican tourism industry.
- The Arab Spring and unrest prior to and after President Mubarak's presidency in 2011 saw tourist arrivals in Egypt declined from 14 million in 2010 to 10.2 million in 2011. Also, in 2013, the overthrow of President Morsi of Egypt led to a decline in tourist arrivals from 11.5 million in 2012 to 9.5 million in 2013.
- The earthquake in Nepal in 2015 led to 80% cancellations of hotel reservations in the months that followed, and an estimated 45,000 tourists left the country.

Similarly, Lanouar and Goaied (2019) observe that in 2015, following two terrorist incidents: Bardo Museum in Tunis and the Resort in Sousse, Tunisia, tourist arrivals fell to the lowest level (5.5million) in decades, and tourism revenues fell 35% to USD1.5billion. This is sequel to two decades of political instability or terrorists attacks in Tunisia that has resulted in the decline in the number of tourist arrivals, tourist overnight stays, and tourism receipts by 31.5%, 54.5% and 32.2%, respectively (Lanouar and Goaied 2019). Even when these incidents are not aimed at tourists, they can still impact the travel and tourism sectors due to perceived risks of affected destinations (Ajogbeje, Adeniyi, and Folarin 2017; Lanouar and Goaied 2019; Musavengane, Siakwah, and Leonard 2020; Nwokorie and Igbojekwe 2020; Pennington-Gray, Schroeder, and Gale 2014; Ritchie, Chien, and Sharifpour 2017; Seabra, Reis, and Abrantes 2020; WTTC 2020).

In the same vein, the United Nations World Tourism Organisation's (UNWTO) recent report on the impact of the novel COVID-19 global pandemic on tourism suggests that international tourist arrivals are estimated to drop to 78%, resulting in a loss of US\$ 1.2 trillion in export revenue from tourism and 120 million direct job cuts, representing seven times the impact of the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks in the US, and constitutes the largest decline in the history of tourism (Sigala 2020; UNWTO 2020). This constitutes a challenge for the global and national economy, and ultimately for the tourism sectors of destinations (Mykhailo and Halyna 2020).

In spite of the vulnerability of tourism to the impact of crises as several case studies suggest (Ghaderi, MatSom, and Henderson 2012; Ghaderi, MatSom, and Wang 2014; Hajibaba, Boztug, and Dolnicar 2016; Lanouar and Goaied 2019; Misrahi 2015; Mykhailo and Halyna 2020; Perles-Ribes et al. 2019; Samitas et al. 2018; Sigala 2020; UNWTO 2020; WTTC 2020) and the fact that when organisations and destinations are not in crisis, they are considered to be in a pre-crisis situation; pre-event or prodromal state (Fink 1986; Faulkner 2001; Faulkner and Vikulov 2001; Pforr and Hosie 2007; Ritchie 2009), a number of research reports reveal that key stakeholders of destination management organisations, tourism businesses (e.g. major hotels) and emergency organisations are often not prepared, or (ill prepared) for crisis incidents (Ashley, Lori, and Kelly 2014; Faulkner 2001; Faulkner and Vikulov 2001; Ghaderi, MatSom, and Henderson. 2012; Ghaderi, MatSom, and Wang 2014; Granville, Mehta, and Pike 2016; Hystad and Keller 2008; Morakabati, Page, and Fletcher 2017; Okumus and Karamustafa 2005; Pennington-Gray et al. 2010; Pennington-Gray and Schroeder 2018; Ritchie 2004; Speakman 2014). In order for a destination to improve and sustain relevance in the global competitive multi-billion-dollar tourism industry and subsectors, its stakeholders would have to collaborate in developing or adapting effective strategies that are designed to prepare for crisis incidents. Stakeholders concerted efforts toward preparedness for crisis incidents would no doubt help in reducing crises impacts on tourist, organisations and destinations in the wake of an occurrence.

Nigeria is an example of a country that has experienced several crisis incidents in most of its six regions, which comprise of 36 states, and the Nation's Federal Capital Territory, Abuja. For instance, in addition to the recent COVID-19 health pandemic being experienced cross the globe, including Nigeria, terrorist attacks (e.g. including

previous cases of bomb and suicide attacks and incessant cases of kidnappings of persons for ransom by the Boko Haram Islamist sect and other groups and other forms of human induced crises including inter-communal violence have been experienced in many parts of Nigeria (Human Rights Watch 2018). The frequency of these crises dates to 1999, shortly after Nigeria returned to civil rule, from several years of military dictatorship, to date. In addition to terrorist related attacks, political violence remains another major type of crisis that has been experienced in Nigeria. For example, according to the 2011 Human Rights Watch's report, the April 2011 post presidential election violence resulted in the deaths of more than 800 persons, over a period of three days, in 12 Northern states, after an opposition candidate, a Muslim from a Northwest state of Katsina lost in the election (Human Rights Watch 2011). Other examples of political related violence in Nigeria include destructions of oil facilities and kidnappings of oil workers by some militants in the oil rich Niger Delta region of Nigeria, who seek equity in oil resource control, and demand for better corporate social responsibility from government multinationals who explore oil from the region (BBC News 2016). The destructions of the oil pipelines in the Niger Delta region by the militants often affect the region's ecosystem, and cause economic hardship for the dwellers, businesses and destinations (Elum, Mopipi, and Henri-Ukoha 2016).

The crisis incidents being experienced in the Nigerian cities can constitute civil unrests, and often necessitate nonobligatory advice from foreign offices of tourist generating destinations, regarding taking caution when travelling to Nigeria. For example, in 2019, the UK Government identify places in Nigeria that portend risk to travellers while visiting and staying in Nigeria (UK Government 2019). In addition to travel advisory regarding safety and security concerns at a destination, information regarding risk associated with destination crisis is often widespread in split seconds through various mainstream and social media sources (Avraham 2004; Liu, Pennington-Gray and Klemmer 2015; Pennington-Gray, Kaplanidou, and Schroeder 2013; Schroeder et al. 2013; Walters, Wallin, and Hartley 2019) and by word of mouth (Avraham 2013; Avraham and Ketter 2017). The consequence of travel advices associated with destination crisis is often evident in the decline in tourism demands (De Sausmarez 2013; Lanouar and Goaied 2019; Misrahi 2015; Samitas et al. 2018; Walters, Wallin, and Hartley 2019). Although, it seems difficult to find any harmonised, reliable, current accessible data on international tourism arrivals to Nigeria from relevant authorities responsible for travel statistics that can help to ascertain the impact crises on the country's tourism sector, the World Bank's 2020 report on international arrivals to Nigeria for the period 1995 to 2016 suggests that the Nigerian travel industry experienced significant increase in international arrivals from 1,031, 000 million tourist arrivals in 1995 to more than 6,000,000,000 million arrivals in 2015 (World Bank 2020). However, the World Bank's (2020) report further suggests that international arrivals to Nigeria in 2016 decline by over 700,000 thousand international arrivals when compared to 2015 international arrivals (World Bank 2020).

The decline in international arrivals to Nigeria between 2015 and 2016 may be attributed to the crisis incidents that the country had experienced. The effect of the crisis incidents on the wider Nigerian tourism sector and destination image can only be imagined, as the destination's tourism industry still

lack efficient strategy for the promotion of safe places at the destination's regions, and synergy among key government and industry stakeholders, in spite of her huge tourism potentials (Wole 2018). Undoubtedly, stakeholders may not be able to prevent the occurrence of crisis or disaster, but they can collaborate in developing or adopting preparedness strategies to cushion its effect (Asongu et al. 2019; Faulkner 2001; Fink 1986; Mansour et al. 2019; Morakabati, Page, and Fletcher 2017; Pelfrey 2005; Pennington-Gray et al. 2011; Pennington-Gray and Schroeder 2018; Wang and Ritchie 2013). However, despite the vulnerability of the Nigerian tourism industry to crisis incidents, the industry remains a viable sector for the improvement of the Nigerian economy. For example, the World Travel and Tourism Council's 2020 report (WTTC 2020) shows that travel and tourism in Nigeria in 2019 accounted for;

- 4.5% of the country's total economy
- NGN6,534.4BN of the nation's GDP
- 4.7% of total employment i.e. 3, 354.4 million jobs across the tourism subsectors
- NGN864.9BN in international visitor spending

These socioeconomic attributes of the Nigerian tourism sector can further improve when the nation's relevant stakeholder develop or adopt preparedness measures that can help prevent and reduce the impact of crisis on her destination(s).

Studies on crisis preparedness and management are better conducted at destinations that have experienced crisis related incidents (Armstrong and Ritchie, 2007; Pennington-Gray 2018). This is to ensure unbiased understanding and findings from the perspectives of key destination and organisation stakeholder who have experienced such events (Hystad and Keller 2008; Pelfrey 2005; Pennington-Gray et al. 2010; Pennington-Gray 2018; Pennington-Gray et al. 2011). Thus, this research seeks to explore the strategies being employed by the Nigerian tourism decision-makers (i.e. government representatives and private tourism managers) towards anticipating and responding to the impact of crisis incidents on the country's tourism industry and related subsector. It evaluates the collaborative measures employed by the stakeholders in preparedness for crisis that can affect the normal operation of their tourism sector. Although most of the states in Nigeria's six regions have experienced one form of crisis or the other, this study will focus on investigating the strategies for crisis preparedness from the perspectives of the government and industry stakeholders in Jos, Plateau State, Nigeria where several crisis (e.g. political and ethno-religious crisis) has been experienced, since 2001, as discussed in the methodology section of this article. In spite of the vulnerability of the city of Jos to recurrent crisis incidents, perhaps due to the variability of the crisis occurrence and the incapacities of the authorities to adequately prepare for, and respond to these crises, the city seems to remain a viable destination for tourists who can find the pleasant weather condition and natural tourist attractions pleasing (Gonap, Dante, and Chuma 2017).

The main concept of this study therefore revolves on the vulnerability of the tourism sector of a destination (i.e. Jos city) to external crises (e.g. ethno-religious upheavals, political violence related incidents, and farmer herder crisis) and the importance of stakeholders' preparedness measures toward such shocks and similar events that can affect normal tourism operations at the destination. Thus, the study investigates the preparedness measures being deployed by

relevant stakeholders in Jos towards crisis preparedness, and the factors that may be bedevilling their efforts.

Theoretical Underpinnings and models of crisis preparedness

There are several theories, models and frameworks that can be adapted or developed for examining strategies that organisation and destination stakeholders utilised for external crises preparedness and management. While some may be generic and designed for short lived crisis incidents (e.g. Faulkner's 2001) tourism crisis (or disaster) management model), others (Hystad and Keller 2008; Mitroff 2005; Paraskevas and Arendell 2007; Paraskevas and Quek 2019; Pelfrey 2005; Pennington-Gray et al. 2011; Ritchie 2004) are considered to be more strategic, and can be adapted to studying stakeholders' preparedness and management strategies designed to anticipating responding to risks associated with crisis, and related incidents. These crisis preparedness theories and management models comprise of varied crisis stages but can generally be summarised as measures taken by stakeholders in the three core phases of crisis; pre-crisis times (i.e. preparedness), during crisis (i.e. response) and post-crisis (i.e. destination recovery) periods. This study focuses on investigating the strategies stakeholders employ in pre-crisis times (preparedness period) for potential crisis events and threats. The study argues that collaborative efforts among key stakeholders of destinations towards crisis preparedness can forestall the occurrence of especially human made crisis and keep destinations and organisations in a proactive state, in the event of the occurrence of a crisis. Moreover, the findings of several studies (Ashley, Lori, and Kelly. 2014; Faulkner 2001; Faulkner and Vikulov 2001; Ghaderi, MatSom, and Henderson 2012; Ghaderi, MatSom, and Wang 2014; Granville, Mehta, and Pike 2016 Hystad and Keller 2008; Morakabati, Page, and Fletcher 2017; Okumus and Karamustafa 2005; Pennington-Gray et al., 2010; Pennington-Gray and Schroeder 2018; Ritchie 2004; Speakman 2014) seem to suggest that destination stakeholders are often ill prepared for crisis and emphasise the need for government and industry stakeholders to collaborate in developing or adopting crisis preparedness measures that can help them in preventing and preparing for

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The city of Jos, Nigeria's ecotourism destination (Ijeomah, Alarape, and Ogogo 2011) has been chosen as a case site for the study. Jos, a northcentral state capital in Nigeria has experienced a number of reoccurring crisis incidents including incessant ethno-religious crisis, pre and postelection related violence, herdsmen/farmers clashes and several cases of kidnappings (BBC News 2018; Okoli and Iortyer 2014) These crises have negative effect on the ecotourism products (e.g. the Wildlife Parks, the Assop falls, tourist village, Game Reserve, Bird Sanctuary) of the city, as evidenced in declined tourist arrivals, increased in hotel booking cancellations, decreased in the average length of stay by tourist and drastic reduction in average room occupancy, and loss of revenue in Jos (Fada 2015; Higazi 2011; Krause 2011). Although, current data on tourist arrivals and hotel occupancy could not be accessed by the research from the relevant authorities, in order to gather some information on recent tourist arrivals and average hotel occupancy in hotels following crisis incidents, the researcher sought the permission of several hotel management in order

to analyse their hotel occupancy for a 10-year period (2009 to 2019). Unfortunately, majority of the hotel management decline to cooperate with the researcher in accessing their documents on room occupancy ratio, but affirmed that they experience decline in hotel bookings following crisis incidents they had experienced to date.

The susceptibility of the city of Jos to crises that can affect the city's tourism sector may be attributable to the following factors;

- It is a city that is centrally located within Nigeria, (i) and its nearness to Abuja, Nigerian's Federal Capital Territory (about 300km) makes the city accessible to many other parts of the country. Its accessibility coupled with its diverse natural and cultural attractions makes it attractive to different domestic and international tourist who may be susceptible to cases of incessant crises as aforementioned. While there seem not be reliable data on the volume of tourism to Jos, a previous study conducted by (Ijeomah, Alarape, and Ogogo 2011) reveal steady decline in domestic and international tourist arrival to majority of the tourist sites in Jos since the recurrent ethnic and religious crises snowballed into full scale crises in 2001. The recurrent ethno-religious and related crises are still being reported in some parts of the city, even as at the time of writing this thesis.
- (ii) Despite the susceptibility of Jos to crises, it has been designated as the hub or centre of nature's scenic cluster or zone in the Nigerian's National Tourism Master Plan (Awaritefe 2007; Bassey 2015; Ijeomah, Alarape, and Ogogo 2011)
- (iii) It is a state situated in the guinea savannah region, providing luxuriant vegetation for which the rainforest regions are known (Gonap, Dante, and Chuma 2017; Ijeomah, Alarape, and Ogogo 2011). This tends to attract cattle herders from other parts of the country to the region for grazing lands for their herds, which often result in encroachment of farmlands where crops are planted. The rivalry between herders and farmers most times snowball into crises where lives are lost (BBC News 2018) and this results in reprisal attacks in most parts of the states, which of course affects tourism.
- (iv) It is a city that can attract foreign tourists because it is situated in a temperate region in a tropical country like Nigeria (Gonap, Dante, and Chuma
- (v) . 2017; Ijeomah, Alarape, and Ogogo. 2011).
 However, the city is associated with recurrent ethnic and religious violence (Higazi 2011) which can affect tourism in the region.

These tourism potentials associated with Jos, and the recurrent crises that can affect tourism in the state makes the city an appropriate comparable case site for this research, in terms of understanding the efforts of being made by the city's stakeholders towards anticipating and responding to the crises that affects tourism in the city.

In order to ascertain and evaluate the level of crises preparedness and management among stakeholders of the Jos case site, the research employed qualitative methodology through interviews and document analysis to compare the similarity and differences in stakeholder's general preparedness measures towards crisis prevention, response

and recovery of their destination. Qualitative research is often employed by researchers to study research subjects/participants in their natural environment (Yin 2009), which is line with this study. The interview for the study was designed to focus on the perspectives of destination stakeholders who have experienced external crisis events and are responsible for developing and implementing preparedness strategies that can perhaps help prevent crisis occurrence and reduce its impact on tourism demand. It was therefore pertinent to identify suitable participants who are considered to be knowledgeable in the area of destination crisis preparedness strategies. Hence, participants were selected based on; (i) their requisite experience with the phenomenon being studied, (ii) were expected to demonstrate their readiness by confirming their availability to participate in interviews, (iii) were required to make relevant documents concerning the phenomena under study available for analysis and documentation (Denzin 2012; Paraskevas and Altinay 2013). In recruiting voluntary qualified participants for the study, the researcher had to rely on referrals from limited number of government officials, tourism managers and professionals at the case site of the study destination. Having reached a saturation point, where no new information was derived from interviewees, the interview sessions were concluded for the case site of the study destination, with a total of 11 key stakeholders comprising; managers and professionals of public, private and nongovernmental tourism organisations who voluntarily participated in the study at the various locations of the case site of the study destination. The recorded interview sessions (consent of the participants was sought) which lasted between 15 to 25 minutes were conducted at the offices of the study's participants.

All secondary and primary data collected during this research, regardless of the methods employed in gathering data has been analysed using content analysis. Content analysis can be described as the technique deployed for understanding, interpreting and analysing texts, phrases or themes that are relevant to the research questions and which require analysis (Neuendorf 2002; Krippendorff 2004; Krippendorff 2019; Stemler 2000). Hence, content analysis was employed in such a way that key terms associated with extant crisis preparedness and management theories and frameworks are identified and expounded in relation to how stakeholders of the Jos, Plateau State case site prepare for crisis and threats they are being confronted with. In the same vein, documents including information from extant literature, standards in crisis preparedness and related practices and reports on crisis incidents preparedness for the case site was studied and coded or defined as themes in line with the study objective, question and subsequently, results from the study findings was analysed and discussed. There is doubt that, this process deployed for this case site investigation is associated with qualitative and interpretative approach for data analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The study findings reveal two key themes; lack of crisis preparedness plans among some of the Jos case site stakeholders, and factors responsible for ineffective general crisis preparedness at the Jos case site. These themes are analysed and discussed as follows:

Lack of crisis preparedness plans among some of the Jos case site stakeholders

Crisis preparedness plans implies having defined existing plans, procedures, policies, training and equipment necessary at all levels of government and major organisations in order to maximise stakeholders abilities to prevent, respond to, and recover from major disruptive events such as terrorist attacks; hurricanes, fire disasters, pandemic (Dahles and Susilowati 2015; Faulkner 2001; Ghaderi, MatSom, and Henderson 2012; Ghaderi, MatSom, and Wang 2014; Henderson 2009; Hystad and Keller 2008; Israeli, Mohsin, and Kumar 2011; Mansour et al. 2019; Mykhailo and Halyna 2020; Okumus and Karamustafa 2005; Orchiston 2013; Paraskevas 2013; Paraskevas and Altinay 2013; Paraskevas and Arendell 2007; Paraskevas and Quek 2019; Pelfrey 2005; Pennington-Gray et al. 2011; Pennington-Gray 2014; Pennington-Gray, Schroeder, and Gale 2014; Paraskevas and Quek 2019; Ritchie 2004; Ritchie 2009; Ritchie et al. 2011; Sigala 2020).

Nonetheless, the study's findings suggest that, majority of the stakeholders of the Jos, Plateau State case sites who participated in this study do not have defined/formal crisis preparedness plans that can be adapted towards addressing crisis that can affect the normal operations of their tourism industry and subsectors. For example, besides two emergency organisations (i.e., the police command headquarters and a government intermediary organisation) who affirmed that they have some general crisis preparedness plans towards threats of crisis that confront them based on their past experiences, other nine key stakeholders including key media, hotels and other tourism subsector organisations who participated in this research do not seem to be adequately prepared for external crisis events as the study findings reveal. For example, JTO, a senior tourism official at the Jos tourism destination organisation says;

"To be honest, I don't think there is any documented crisis preparedness plan, but there are suggestions as to measures that could be taken, for instance, during the political crises in 2008, the former General Manager summoned tourism professionals on how to have a documented tourism crises plan with the Peace Agency in order to build confidence towards encouraging tourism, but that didn't see the light of the day owing to government inconsistencies on issues such as crises."

This statement is congruent with the response of JGA, a senior government adviser in Jos who says;

"Although we have been faced with many crises, and threats, but we do not yet have a general crisis preparedness plan designed to control the crises itself, however, we are studying what countries like Israel and Egypt are doing in terms of crisis preparedness for tourism related crises." In the same vein, JMO1, a media executive at a government organisation in Jos says;

"We do not have a preparedness plan as it is not our responsibility, but that of the security and other agencies, but we only report what we see, we don't colour events."

These responses imply that the Jos key stakeholders who should be responsible for the promotion of tourism in the state do not seem to have an established general crisis preparedness strategy for addressing or coping with the recurrent crisis incidents that they are experiencing. It would therefore be difficult for these stakeholders to convince tourist of safety and security at Jos, where there have been incessant cases of crises that portend risks to tourists, other visitors, tourism businesses and host communities. Tourists are known to be characteristically risk averse (Reisinger and Mavondo 2005; Rittichainuwat 2013; Rittichainuwat and Chakraborty 2012; Wang and Lopez 2020; Wong and Yeh 2009) and, they would often prefer to vacate at destinations that are crisis prepared and safe for tourism (Dahles and Susilowati 2015; Pennington-Gray, Schroeder, and Gale 2014).

Like the senior government stakeholders, all the tourism businesses representatives including senior hotel, travel and recreation centre managers who participated in this research in Jos do not seem to have general crisis preparedness plans for tourism crisis preparedness. For example, JHB1, a general manager of a high-end hotel in Jos says:

"As far as I know, we don't have any penned down policy on crisis preparedness, largely because of the Nigerian set of businesses, although, we have been faced with uncertainties without clear-cut strategies to address them over a long period of time."

This is congruent with the views of other tourism businesses stakeholders. For instance, JHB2, a manager at another major hotel in Jos says:

"To be sincere, we don't have any project on crisis preparedness, but because we have security men that stay with us, I draw their attention in crisis times."

Similarly, JTC1, a sales manager at a major tour organisation in Jos says;

"We don't have any crisis preparedness strategy in place, but during crisis events such as religious crises, we give information to security agencies, and we talk to our clients to let them know the situation on ground, including safety of the aircrafts."

Likewise, JTC2, managing director of a major travel company in Jos, says:

"As an organisation, we haven't prepared any strategy as to how to react to crises, because they are external to us."

The general lack of crisis preparedness amongst most of the Jos tourism industry stakeholders constitute significant findings for this study. This study's findings is congruent with other tourism research (Ghaderi, MatSom, and Henderson 2012; Ghaderi, MatSom, and Wang 2014; Henderson 1999; Henderson 2000; Henderson 2004; Henderson 2005; Israeli, Mohsin, and Kumar 2011; Okumus and Karamustafa 2005) which suggest that stakeholders of destinations and organisations are often not prepared for external crisis related incidents even though they may have had similar experiences.

The next section presents analyses of the second key theme of the study findings; factors responsible for ineffective crisis preparedness at the Jos case site.

Factors responsible for ineffective general crisis preparedness at the Jos case site

While it is obvious from the preceding subsection that the majority of the stakeholders who participated in this research are neither proactive nor have any formal reactive measures in place for crisis incidents, the findings of this study suggest that the few stakeholders who seem to have some forms of crisis preparedness initiatives towards crisis related incidents are faced with a number of factors that make whatever crisis plans they may have less effective. These factors as thematically derived from the Jos stakeholder's responses on the effectiveness of their crisis preparedness plans include; inadequate funding/resources, inadequate manpower, variability of crises, government bureaucracy in policy implementation, among others. As analysed below, these factors can have negative impact on measures that may have been designed/conceived toward anticipating and responding to crises that can affect the normal operations of the tourism industry in Jos.

Inadequate resources (funding) for crisis preparedness among public authorities

The provision of resources including funds for training of emergency agencies manpower, purchase of relevant equipment and logistics for the preparedness and management of emergency relating to crisis incidents that disrupts the normal operations of tourism at destinations have been argued to be largely the responsibilities of destination governments who should make resources available for public institutions (Morakabati, Page, and Fletcher 2017; Saha and Yap 2014; Wolff and Larsen 2014). Hence, inadequate resources can hamper the crisis preparedness and response efforts of public destination stakeholders (e.g. emergency related organisations and tourism destination management authorities), and perhaps delay the recovery of tourism businesses in affected destinations.

In the context of the Jos case study site, 3 out of the 4 public authority stakeholders who participated in the research affirm that, inadequate resources hampers; the purchase of necessary equipment needed to train staff members of emergency organisations in preparedness for crises, delay the reportage of crisis incidents by government media organisations, deprive the tourism destination organisation stakeholders from visiting communities where crises emanates from, for dialogue, due to lack of resources to purchase fuel and maintain vehicles, among others. For example, regarding how inadequate resources such as funding, hampers crisis preparedness, JPO1, a senior police official at the Jos police command says:

"The police is grossly underfunded, and this inadequate funding has become a challenge, for example, in 2014-2015, the past government bought police vehicles, and these were given without fuelling and maintenance cost, funding is really a challenge towards crisis preparedness and response, although, we do our best with the little we have which is largely inadequate for the crises we are faced with

It is rather not appropriate of a government not to ensure the provision of adequate resources to aid the very sector of an

economy that is responsible for ensuring the security of lives and property in a destination like Jos, that is associated with recurrent crisis related incidents. There is no doubt that inadequate funding of the police at a destination as Jos can delay the intervention of the security agency in responding to crisis incidents capable of disrupting the normal operation of tourism in the state.

In the same vein, JGA1, a senior government adviser in Jos says:

"We don't have the financial resources to adequately plan for crises, and this is challenging, as there are so many competing demands on the part of government that does not allow tourism to flourish, however, security agencies are there to take charge as the tourism sector benefits from safety and security when they do well, and we encourage to do more."

The general lack of resources such as funding for crisis preparedness among public destination stakeholders of Jos portend risk for private tourism businesses such as hotels, travel related agencies and trade organisations, tourist, and the host communities. The lack of adequate funds for the purchase of necessary equipment, training of requisite manpower can put the destination in a vulnerable state of not being able to adequately anticipate nor respond to crisis related incidents. It can also mar recovery efforts that may have been conceived by the stakeholders, including destination promotion plans.

Lack of adequate human resources (personnel) for crisis preparedness

Human resources (e.g. trained crisis personnel/team) are important for crisis preparedness and management at destinations and organisations (Faulkner 2001; Faulkner and Vikulov 2001; Hystad and Keller 2008; Israeli, Mohsin, and Kumar 2011; Pelfrey 2005). This does not seem to be the case for most of the key stakeholders at the Jos case site who participated in this research. For instance, in addition to inadequate funding for general crisis preparedness and management among the public authority's stakeholders as previously discussed, inadequate personnel constitute another major setback for the city's management effort towards crisis preparedness. For instance, JPO1, a senior police official at the Jos police command headquarters, says;

"The police force is grossly understaffed, and the strength is far below the establishment standard, not up to that which UN requires, however, despite of this challenges, we are doing our best; we have testimonies of those who have visited and can attest that Jos is gradually becoming a safe place to visit again, following a series of crises we have experienced."

This lack of adequate personnel at the Jos police command can affect the security agency's ability to deploy adequate manpower in preparation for, and, in response to crisis related incidents that had been experienced, and similar threats in the city. This oversight on the part of the relevant government authorities responsible for the recruitment of personnel in the police force command in a place like Jos portend risk for the city's tourism industry. This is because, a city whose police force lack adequate manpower may not be able to guarantee the safety and security of her

destination, more so, that of tourists, other visitors, and tourism businesses such as hotels.

Unpredictability/variability of crises associated with rumour

The study also finds that crisis preparedness and management initiatives in Jos can be compounded by the variability of crisis related incidents, which is often associated with rumours of reprisal attacks, following previous terrorist attacks crisis related incidents. For example, JPO1, a senior police official at the Jos police command says:

"Unnecessary and wicked rumours have cost us a lot of lives and property on the Jos, Plateau, and these keep overwhelming our crisis management efforts... for instance, on 1st October 2017, there was rumour that the people of the eastern part of Jos were killing the northerners as a reprisal for previous political and ethnic related crises, and this led to the killing of a final year student and two others, ... also, a Fulani boy was killed by his brothers, and after two days, when the body was discovered, people started carrying rumour that the Fulanis are coming for reprisal attacks,.. and this can affect the fragile peace on the Jos, Plateau, and consequently, tourism..., but we are doing our best with other stakeholders to contain this."

In the same vein, JGA1, a senior government adviser in Jos says;

"In a society where many crises have been experienced, mere rumours can affect efforts that is already in place to ensure normalcy..., for example, rumours of bees flying made a guy to cover his head, leading to a rippling effect where people started running for safety as they thought there was another political crisis."

The tourism stakeholders in Jos may have to consider developing a strategy where they are able advice the host communities on the dangers of conveying rumours, and perhaps segment areas within their destination that are hotspots for rumours, and provide advice to tourists via various media sources and other stakeholders on how to avoid such areas, and what to do in the event of an upheaval associated with rumours.

CONCLUSION

Analysis of the interviews with the Jos tourism industry stakeholders on the strategies they employ towards external crisis preparedness reveals two key findings. Firstly, the study findings suggest that, besides the police command and an intermediary emergency agency, majority of the other stakeholders including the Jos tourism destination management board, hotels, travel organisations and other tourism subsector stakeholders who participated in the study lack general preparedness plan(s) for external crisis including violent civil and political unrests that can affect normal tourism operations at their destination and organisations. Secondly, the study findings reveal some factors that can cause ineffective crisis preparedness among the Jos key stakeholders including limited funding for logistics, training and purchase of relevant equipment, inadequate human capacities and variability of crisis associated with rumour. These findings imply that, firstly, the relevant authorities at the Jos case site would need to

adopt or develop measures that can help create awareness on the importance of preparedness measures for crisis that can affect normal tourism operations at her destination. Secondly, the study findings also imply that relevant government authorities would have to carry out a needs assessment of the key stakeholder organisations responsible for safety and security in order to be abreast of their logistics and human capacity needs, and to facilitate prompt provision of required resources. Also, there is a need for the relevant Jos authorities to develop measures that can help guide against rumours that can cause crisis that disrupts normal tourism operations at the destination. Finally, the cooperation of the Jos government and her relevant tourism industry stakeholder is important in enhancing proactive preparedness towards crisis prevention and response at the destination.

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