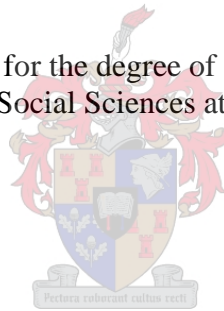


**A chaos theory approach to understanding the impact of the COVID-19  
pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State, Nigeria**

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Dissertation presented for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the  
Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at Stellenbosch University.



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December 2022

## **DECLARATION**

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## ABSTRACT

Nations worldwide are grappling with the challenges of crises and disasters affecting the tourism industry. The coronavirus (COVID-19) which unexpectedly broke out in 2019 in Wuhan, China spread around the world in 2020, paralyzing tourism businesses. Previous crisis impact management strategies in tourism have relied heavily on linear deterministic models, which are incapable of considering the complex and chaotic nature of the tourism system. The use of chaos theory for crisis management in the tourism industry during the pandemic is still an emerging field that is yet to be fully explored. This study helps bridge this knowledge gap by using chaos theory to investigate the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses in the Plateau State of Nigeria.

A pragmatic mixed-method inductive research approach was followed in this study. This approach made it possible to obtain valid and reliable data by conducting semi-structured interviews and a questionnaire survey as the primary data collection techniques. A total of 24 semi-structured interviews were conducted with the managers and owners of tourism businesses to gather information on the business management practices and risk management strategies they used during the health crisis. In addition, tourism business managers completed a total of 227 questionnaires on the impact of the pandemic on their businesses, while 408 tourists completed the questionnaire on their experiences during the pandemic. The information from the semi-structured interviews was thematically analyzed and descriptive statistics were used to examine questionnaire survey data.

Findings about the tourists' experiences during the pandemic show that non-pharmaceutical interventions have changed tourism practices and tourist behaviour. The pandemic has boosted self-organization among tourists, they have become more aware of the pandemic and they are wary of protecting themselves when travelling, instead of avoiding travel altogether. Moreover, the pandemic has significantly affected the economy of tourism businesses. Due to lockdowns and restrictions, business managers increased product prices because of sharp rises in food prices, witnessed reduced demand and cutbacks in staff wages. Other tourism businesses were able to retain their workers and maintain staff salaries because they were profiting by raising prices of products and providing essential services to customers which they considered a blessing in disguise.

The study also identified business management practices and risk management strategies used by the managers of tourism businesses during the pandemic. Businesses suddenly found themselves on the edge of chaos. As a result, managers had to self-organize and invest in new markets while creating unusual attractions as a lock-in effect to reward and retain existing customers and, perhaps, add new ones. The study also provided empirical evidence confirming the futility of the one-size-fits-all approach of deterministic linear models in crisis management. It is recommended that further

investigation be done into the socio-economic impact of the pandemic on other components of the versatile tourism industry in Nigeria and the rest of Africa. The research results contribute to a better understanding and management of crisis from the point of view of chaos theory, with particular emphasis on the tourism sector of Plateau State.

**Keywords and phrases:** COVID-19 pandemic; impact; chaos theory; tourism businesses; Plateau State

## OPSOMMING

Nasies wêreldwyd worstel met die uitdaging van krisis en rampe wat die toerismebedryf raak. Die koronavirus (COVID-19), wat onverwags in 2019 in Wuhan, Sjina, uitgebreek het, het in 2020 oor die hele wêreld versprei en toerisme-ondernemings lamgelê. Vorige strategieë vir krisissimpakbestuur in toerisme het swaar gesteun op lineêre deterministiese modelle, wat nie daartoe in staat is om die komplekse en chaotiese aard van die toerismestelsel te verreken nie. Die gebruik van chaosteorie vir krisissbestuur in die toerismebedryf gedurende die pandemie is 'n ontluikende terrein wat nog ten volle verken moet word. Hierdie studie help oorbrug hierdie kennisleemte deur die impak van die COVID-19-pandemie op toerisme-ondernemings in die Plato-staat van Nigerië met behulp van chaosteorie te ondersoek.

'n Pragmatiese gemengdemetode-induktiewe navorsingsbenadering is vir die studie gebruik. Hierdie benadering het dit moontlik gemaak om geldige en betroubare data te bekom deur van semigestruktureerde onderhoude en vraelystopnames as primêre data-insamelingstegnieke gebruik te maak. Altesaam 24 semigestruktureerde onderhoude is met die eienaars en/of bestuurders van toerisme-ondernemings gevoer om inligting in te win oor die ondernemingsbestuurspraktyke en risikobestuurstrategieë wat hulle gedurende die gesondheidskrisis gebruik het. Die toerisme-ondernemings bestuurders van het boonop 'n totale van 227 vraelyste oor die impak van die pandemie op hulle ondernemings voltooi, terwyl 408 toeriste vraelyste voltooi het oor hulle ervarings gedurende die pandemie. Die inligting uit die semigestruktureerde onderhoude is tematies ontleed, en beskrywende statistiek is gebruik om die data uit die vraelysteopname te ondersoek.

Bevindinge oor toeriste se ervarings gedurende die pandemie toon dat niefarmaseutiese ingrypings toerismepraktyke en toeristegedrag verander het. Die pandemie het selforganisasie onder toeriste aangewakker, hulle is nou meer bewus van die pandemie én bedag daarop om hulleself te beskerm wanneer hulle reis, in plaas daarvan om reis in die geheel te vermy. Die bevindinge dui verduidelik daarop dat die pandemie die ekonomie van toerisme-ondernemings aansienlik beïnvloed het. As gevolg van inperkings en beperkings, het sakebestuurders produkpryse verhoog as gevolg van skerp stygings in voedselpryse, getuie van verminderde vraag en besnoeiings in personeel. Ander toerisme-ondernemings kon al hul werkers behou en personeel se salarisse handhaaf omdat hulle voordeel getrek het deur pryse van produkte te verhoog en noodsaaklike dienste aan kliënte te verskaf wat hulle as 'n bedekte seën beskou het.

Die studie identifiseer ook die ondernemingsbestuurspraktyke en risikobestuurstrategieë wat toerisme-ondernemings gedurende die pandemie gebruik het. Ondernemings het hulle skielik op die rand van chaos bevind. Gevolglik moes bestuurders selforganiseer en belê in nuwe markte, en terselfdertyd nuwe, ongewone trekpleisters skep as 'n waspenmeganisme om bestaande kliënte te

beloon en te behou, en dalk nuwes by te kry. Die bevindinge bied voorts empiriese bewyse wat die nutteloosheid van die een-pas-almal-benadering van deterministiese lineêre modelle vir krisisbestuur bevestig. Dit word aambeveel aan dat verdere ondersoeke onderneem word na die sosio-ekonomiese impak van die pandemie op ander komponente van die veelsydige reis- en toerismebedryf in Nigerië én die res van Afrika. Die navorsingsresutate dra by tot beter krisisbegrip en -bestuur uit die oogpunt van chaosteorie, met besondere klem op die toerimesektor van die Nigeriese Plato-staat.

**Trefwoorde en frases:** COVID-19-pandemie; impak; chaosteorie; toerisme ondernemings; Plato-staat

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## **DEDICATION**

This research work is dedicated to my children **JENNIFER**, **IJUDIGAL** and **JABANI** for their prayers, patience and understanding. I must mention that they were aged eight, six and three at the time I started this PhD programme in February 2020. Also, to God Almighty the Father to the fatherless, for his mercies, grace, guidance and protection over me throughout this study and my entire life. My Hallelujah belongs to him, I owe him everything.



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## ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AHLA	American Hotel and Lodging Association
APLORI	AP Leventis Ornithological Research Institute
AQIM	Al-Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb
AU	African Union
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
BECTU	Broadcasting Entertainment Communications and Theatre Union
BoE	Bank of England
CDC	Centre for Disease Control
CMFTB	Crisis management framework for tourism businesses
COD	Cash on delivery
COMCEC	Committee for Economic and Commercial Cooperation of the Organization of Islamic Cooperation
COVID-19	coronavirus-19
CRED	Centre for Research in Epidemiology of Diseases
CSO	central statistics office
CSR	Corporate social responsibility
CT	chaos theory
EIC	Events Industry Council
ERAs	Eduventure Research and Advisory Services
ETB	English Tourist Board
EVD	Ebola virus disease
E3	electronic entertainment expo
GDP	gross domestic product
GIS	geographic information system
GPS	geographic positioning system
IAG	Islamic Armed Group
IATA	International Air Transport Association
IATSE	International Alliance of Theatrical Stage Employees
IED	improvised explosive device
IGR	internally generated revenue
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ISIL	Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant
ITCZ	intertropical climatic zone

JNLGA	Jos North local government area
JSLGA	Jos South local government area
LCF	Leventis Conservation Fund
LGAs	local government a
MERS	Middle East respiratory syndrome
MMR	mixed-methods research
MRO	movement restriction order
NBSN	National Bureau of Statistics Nigeria
NCDC	Nigeria Centre for Disease Control
NCF	Nigerian Conservation Fund
NGOs	non-governmental organizations
NMJ	National Museum Jos
NPIs	non-pharmaceutical interventions
PATA	Pacific Asia Travel Association
PMT	protection motivation theory
PRC	People's Republic of China
PS	Plateau State
PSCTF	Plateau State COVID-19 Task Force
PSG	Plateau State Government
PSTC	Plateau State Tourism Corporation
SARS	severe acute respiratory syndrome
SDIC	sensitive dependence on initial condition
SMEs	small and medium-sized enterprises
SXSW	South by Southwest
TBMs	tourism business managers
TETFund	Tertiary Education Trust Fund
TIP	tourist information post
TRF	Tourism Relief Fund
TTCI	travel and tourism competitive index
UE	unexpected event
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization

USA	United States of America
US-CDC	United States Centre for Disease Control
USD	United States dollar(s)
USDS	United States Department of State
USGS	United States Geological Survey
WB	World Bank
WEF	World Economic Forum
WHO	World Health Organization
WHO-IHR	World Health Organization-International Health Regulations
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

# CHAPTER 1

## GENERAL BACKGROUND

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry is susceptible to external forces and crises ranging from infectious diseases to social events (Ritchie, 2004). Although the world's tourism system has, over the years, enjoyed relative stability, this steadiness can be disrupted without warning (Ritchie, 2004; Speakman & Sharpley, 2012; Boukas & Ziakas, 2014). In the recent past, and even now, the world has been plagued by crises and disasters labelled as 'unexpected events' so that nations around the globe are grappling with the challenges these incidents present to the tourism industry. The global tourism industry is susceptible to a growing diversity of unexpected events like earthquakes, floods and hurricanes, social and political instability, oil crises, wars, financial and economic crises, terrorism as well as outbreaks of contagious diseases characterized by pandemics and loss of life (Kim, Chun, & Lee, 2005; Mansfeld, 2006; Rosselló et al., 2020).

The tourism literature has reported on a wide range of unexpected events such as hurricanes (Higgins, 2005), flooding and tsunamis (Cheung & Law, 2006; Calgaro & Lloyd, 2008), earthquakes (Huang & Min, 2002), volcanic eruptions (Carlino et al., 2008), bush fires (Armstrong & Ritchie, 2008) and cultural conflicts (Su et al., 2012; Yang, Ryan & Zhang, 2013; Ye et al., 2013; Malikhao, 2017; Tsaour et al., 2018). Other tourism related studies have looked at other events such as outbreaks of foot-and-mouth disease (Keeling et al., 2003; Rodway-Dyer & Shaw, 2005), severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) (Brug et al., 2004; McKercher & Chon, 2004; Cooper, 2005; Au et al., 2005; Colizza et al., 2007), zika virus (Gray & Mishtal, 2019), Ebola (Sifolo & Sifolo, 2015; Maphanga & Henama, 2019) and, currently the SARS-CoV-2 virus (COVID-19) (Cori et al., 2020; Dube et al., 2020). These events have created tensions that impacted tourism businesses and the on-going COVID-19 pandemic has created transformations in the tourism industry and the world order. This transformation can be viewed as "an evolving chaotic ordering from a chaos theory perspective" (Boukas & Ziakas, 2014: 192). The chaotic transformations in the tourism system led to a new order due to the pandemic with a plethora of similar non-pharmaceutical interventions (NPIs) instituted in the past.

The spread of viruses has been accelerated by a globalized world and risks which has increased with faster and convenient means of travel and moving of services and commodities along with its diseases (Gössling et al., 2020; Jamal & Budke, 2020), leading to a decline in international tourism (Dolnicar, 2007; Laws & Prideaux, 2017; WB, 2020a). Each unexpected event triggers instability and uncertainty in the tourism industry where the impacts are felt mostly by localized tourism businesses.

These continuous events disrupt commerce, services and business reputation (Santana, 2004; Scott, Laws & Prideaux, 2008) and their effects can be highly unpredictable and markedly different (Faulkner, 2001).

The year 2020 witnessed the calamitous outbreak of the SARS-CoV-2 virus (COVID-19). Coronaviruses are a large family of viruses that may cause respiratory illnesses in humans or animals. The COVID-19 infectious disease originated in December 2019 in Wuhan, China, from where it spread rapidly across the world (WHO, 2020c). Complete bans were imposed on travel as well as the closure of all tourist destinations by countries in Africa, Asia-Pacific, the Middle East, Europe and North America (Gössling et al., 2020). This necessitated the declaration of COVID-19 as a pandemic and a public health emergency by the WHO (World Health Organization) on 11 March 2020 to assist in coordinating global retorts to the disease. The coronavirus has spread to 230 countries and territories (Worldometer, 2022a). Over 508 million confirmed cases and more than 6 million deaths have been reported globally as Africa has recorded over 11 million cases with 253 000 deaths (Reuters, 2022; WHO, 2022). In light of the chaos caused in the global tourism system by the COVID-19 pandemic, and in view of preparations to return to business, the WHO set up protocols for crisis management in the reopening of tourism businesses (WHO, 2020b).

A similar response scenario to the 2003 SARS outbreak emerged with the COVID-19 pandemic. Countries responded swiftly with various non-pharmaceutical interventions (NPIs) to lessen the spread of the virus. These interventions had a shocking impact on the tourism industry as lockdowns, social distancing measures, closure of borders, cancellation of events and the closure of tourism businesses (restaurants, hotels and tourist attractions) were instituted and enforced. The effect of the pandemic on tourism businesses has been devastating due to border closures under movement restriction orders (MROs). This devastation has left a lot of speculations about the return to 'normalcy' of the tourism industry post-COVID-19. Owing to the future of the tourism industry, the debate has been framed around a return to 'business as usual' and a more 'sustainable tourism industry'. Despite these speculations, the unfolding unexpected events are great determinants of what the tourism sector will look like after the pandemic.

It has been estimated that the COVID-19 pandemic has removed over 50 million jobs globally and USD2.1 trillion in tourism business revenues thus posing serious humanitarian challenges to regions and countries worldwide (UNWTO, 2020b). African countries had by March 2020 lost USD4.4 billion in revenue with the refunds of airline tickets increasing by 75% in comparison with 2019. Nigeria lost about 2.2 million overseas-bound passengers and revenue of USD434 million as the coronavirus spread continued to escalate (Oyebade, 2020). This decline in revenue and passengers are the aftermath effects of unexpected events (Drakos & Kutan, 2003; Richards, 2007; Kapuscinski,

2014; Adeloye & Brown, 2018). For instance, Nguyen & Imamura (2017) and Ichinosawa (2006) opined that unexpected events such as terrorism, conflicts and pandemics change tourists' behaviour towards a destination. This causes shifts in demand that affect the economy of destinations. This implies that tourists' willingness to visit a destination decreases when safety is compromised due to pandemics (Carr, 2001; Basil, 2014).

Against this background, it follows that unexpected events will also impact tourism in Nigeria. Unexpected events such as climatic extremes and ethno-religious conflicts impact tourism businesses because of the decline in domestic tourist arrivals in Nigeria (Gontul, Iirmdu & Binbol, 2015; Nwagwu, 2018). Studies on the tourism industry in Nigeria's Plateau State are relatively few, but there is growing interest in the region's tourism scene. Research has shown the effects of deforestation on wildlife tourism (Iirmdu et al., 2013), the impacts of climatic extremes on tourism (Gontul et al., 2015), the impact of tourism on livelihoods (Ijeomah, 2015), tourism brand name (Gonap, Gontul & Iirmdu, 2018) and tourists' motivations to Plateau State (Gontul et al., 2019). Given this lacuna, there is an obvious need to investigate the level of impact of the COVID-19 pandemic in Plateau State and more specifically on tourism businesses during this global health crisis. This study employs chaos theory (a crisis management theory) to assess the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses (specifically restaurants, hotels and tourist attractions) in Plateau State. With a dearth in the literature on the impacts of unexpected events on tourism businesses in an African context and more specifically the Nigerian context, this study will aim to provide useful recommendations for governments and private tourism organizations to make policy decisions for tourism businesses in the case of an unexpected event through a chaos theory perspective.

## **1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

The nature and severity of the impacts of unexpected events have changed substantially because of the growing complexities in a highly connected and globalized world, with resultant direct or indirect implications for tourism-related businesses (Becken et al., 2014). Most unexpected events have tragic effects on communities, individuals and organizations and ultimately on tourism events (Rosselló et al., 2020) with consequent threat to the survival of livelihoods (Bagudu, 2003; Ijeomah, 2015; Rastegar, Higgins-Desbiolles & Ruhanen, 2021). Livelihoods in this context refer to businesses, wealth (properties) and human beings that are affected by pandemics.

The tourism industry as a source of livelihood in Plateau State has been directly affected by the COVID-19 pandemic due to lockdowns, airline restrictions, bans on gatherings, closures of hotels, restaurants, tourist attractions and restrictions on movement. For example, the ban on tourism

activities such as dining at restaurants, lodging at hotels and visiting tourist attractions for enjoyment has led to the devastating loss of business revenue, disruptions of social life and increased unemployment because of job cuts and job losses. Most tourism businesses are small-and medium-sized with limited or no financial reserves.

Although there is recognition of the use of chaos theory in scholarly work on crisis and disaster management in tourism (Ritchie, 2004; Speakman & Sharpley, 2012; Boukas & Ziakas, 2014) and how the industry responds to and manages health-related issues (McKercher & Chon, 2004; Au et al., 2005; Cooper, 2005; Rodway-dyer & Shaw, 2005; Gray & Mishtal, 2019; Maphanga & Henama, 2019), contributions of chaos theory to developing an understanding of crisis and disaster management in tourism are limited . One tourism scholar has observed that:

Relatively little systematic research has been carried out on disaster phenomena in tourism, the impacts of such events on the tourism industry, and the responses of industry and relevant government agencies to cope with these impacts. Such research is an essential foundation for assisting the tourism industry and relevant government agencies to learn from past experiences and develop strategies for avoiding and coping with similar events in the future (Faulkner, 2001: 136).

Given the state of crisis facing the tourism industry, there has been a continuous growth in the relevant literature on crisis management from a variety of perspectives using linear models (Faulkner, 2001). However, the tourism system is dynamic and chaotic with a unique complexity within each subsystem and the literature has provided proof that tourism crises are multidimensional and complex (Mckercher, 1999; Ritchie, 2004). The chaos theory approach can be applied to understanding and providing transferrable lessons for effective crisis management strategies for tourism businesses (Boukas & Ziakas, 2014). The application of chaos theory in tourism business crisis management during the COVID-19 pandemic is an ongoing focus of research that is yet to be explored in Plateau State, Nigeria. The broader purpose of this study is thus to address this gap in knowledge about the impact the COVID-19 pandemic has on tourism businesses.

### **1.3 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES**

This study specifically aims to investigate the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State, Nigeria. This will be achieved by pursuing the following five objectives:

1. Review the relevant literature on the impacts of unexpected events on tourism.
2. Investigate the experiences of tourists in Plateau State during the COVID-19 pandemic.
3. Assess the economic impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State using chaos theory.



4. Examine the business management practices employed by tourism businesses in Plateau State during the COVID-19 pandemic.
5. Ascertain the risk management strategies designed for hotels, restaurants and tourist attractions to promote tourism activities following the post-pandemic reopening of tourism businesses in Plateau State.

These objectives were the main building blocks to the overarching aims of this research. The key concepts of this study are defined in the next section.

#### **1.4 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS**

Research done in the social sciences requires that operational definitions of the fundamental concepts involved are provided. In this study tourism businesses and tourists are the key concepts demanding clarity. Although both concepts appear to be familiar, they are defined here to be understood in the context of this research to avoid possible misinterpretations.

*Tourism businesses* take place in tourist destinations and comprise components such as restaurants, hotels, attractions, services, attributes and infrastructure (Tinsley & Lynch, 2001; Wang, Hung & Huang, 2019). Wang et al. (2019) assert that tourism businesses are characterized by flexibility and distinguishing features such as own business, creation of extra income, source of enjoyment and relaxation, transacting with people (tourists), personal interest and community encouragement. Wang et al. (2019) and Morrison, Carlsen & Weber (2010) also identify tourism businesses as a ‘necessity business’ owing to the ability of these business operations to provide livelihood opportunities for residents, especially in developing countries.

Therefore, in this study tourism businesses connote businesses such as restaurants, tourism accommodation (including hotels and guest houses) and tourist attractions that meet visitors’ (domestic tourists) and residents’ needs when out on business, educational, religious, medical and pleasure purposes. They are owned and managed either by the government or by private individuals, they add to the economy and employ several persons. The restaurants are stand-alone establishments, thus excluding all restaurants attached to hotels. The tourism accommodation categories are hotels of any size range and include guest houses. The tourist attractions considered are wildlife parks, amusement parks, resorts, zoological gardens and museums.

The *tourists* considered in the study are international, domestic and resident (staycation or proximate) tourists (Bolchinova, 2021). International tourists are visitors and tourists from countries other than Nigeria who engage in tourism activities and who have spent at least 24 hours (overnight stay) in

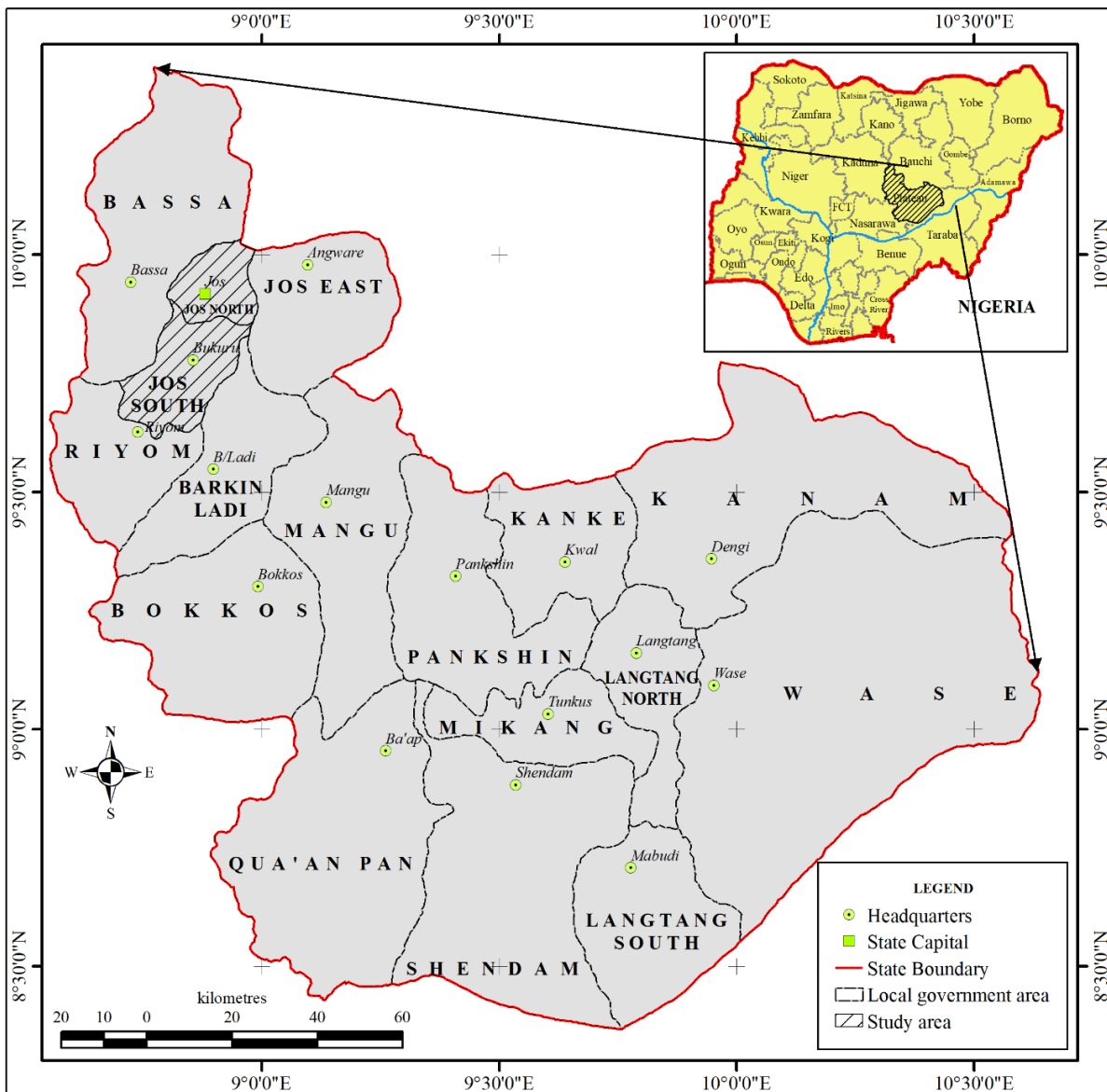
Plateau State. Domestic tourists are visitors (tourists in their own country) who are Nigerians from other cities in the country who engage in tourism activities and who have spent at least 24 hours (overnight stay) in Plateau State. Resident tourists (proximate tourists) are tourists who engage in tourism activities in their city of residence. Scholars (Richards, 2016; Diaz-Soria, 2017; Romagosa, 2020; Hoogendoorn & Hammett, 2020; Bolchinova, 2021) have recognized resident or proximate tourists (tourists in their city) as citizens who are curious to encounter and explore tourism activities in their own urban space. These authors further argue that the concept of resident tourist has, to date, been developed concerning cities in the Global North.

The tourism literature records that despite being ranked second in the global economy after the computer and electronics industry the tourism industry, specifically tourism businesses, have been adversely affected by the coronavirus induced restrictions, imposed in countries worldwide, that have led decreases in the number of tourists and reduced consumer demand (Demerie, Molozhavenko & Popkova, 2019; Ozili & Arun, 2020). However, there have been concerted efforts by the WHO to make recommendations to tourism businesses to ensure their operational readiness as well as to lessen the danger of further spread of COVID-19 in business areas and workplaces (WHO, 2020b). In the light of the above classifications, tourism businesses selected for investigation are restaurants, hotels and tourist attractions.

These types of tourism businesses are vital components of the tourism sector as they directly and/or indirectly impact tourists and the livelihoods of employees in the tourism industry. They are also the most likely businesses to be affected by adverse impacts of the pandemic. The reason tourism businesses are the focus of this research is that tourism is one of the dominant economic activities in Nigeria where they contribute 34% to the GDP and some 20% (3.4 million) of the nation's employment, thus roughly accounting for 3.4 million jobs (NBSN, 2017; Initeme, 2019; Unah, 2019).

## **1.5 STUDY AREA**

Plateau State (PS) is in the middle-belt zone of Nigeria (Figure 1.1). The state derives its name from the picturesque mountainous terrain surrounding the state with captivating rock formations and a plateau. It is the 12th largest of the 36 states of Nigeria and is located 313 kilometres (4 hours' drive) from Abuja, Nigeria's capital. The state has 56 indigenous ethnic groups identified by common language, ancestral, social, cultural and religious experiences. PS presently comprises 17 local government areas (LGAs) (see Figure 1.1).



Source: Compiled in 2021 by the GIS Lab, Department of Geography and Planning, University of Jos, Nigeria.

Figure 1.1 Plateau State, Nigeria, showing the study areas, Jos North and Jos South local government areas

The spatial scope of this study is limited to the Jos North local government area (JNLGA) and the Jos South local government area (JSLGA) in the state (Figure 1.1). These two LGAs were selected for study owing to their being home to well-established, developed and properly managed tourism businesses (hotels, guest houses and restaurants) and physical tourism attractions such as, the Jos Wildlife park, Solomon Lar amusement park, Rayfield holiday resort and the Jos Museum complex. JNLGA has a population of 572 700 while JSLGA's population numbers 407 900 (NBSN, 2016).

The climatic conditions of PS are unique in some respects which are key attributes in the tourism industry. Although situated in the tropical zone, the state enjoys clement (mild) temperate-like weather and climatic condition as a primary tourist attraction as it also attracted Europeans to Jos in the earlier colonial periods (Gontul, Oche & Daloeng, 2007). The climate of PS is dominantly influenced by its relief and position along the passage of the intertropical convergence zone (ITCZ). The high altitude of the Jos-plateau area moderate temperature so much that it has been described as being temperate-like (Gontul, Oche & Daloeng, 2007). The average maximum temperature is 22°C, the mean minimum temperature is 18°C. The weather on the Jos-plateau is generally cold occurring from December to February, because of the north-easterly trade wind (harmattan). Jos, the capital of PS, is known to be the coldest state capital in Nigeria and a favourite holiday location for both tourists and expatriates based in Nigeria.

The climate of the adjoining lowland areas of PS is in contrast to the conditions on the upland plateau. These lowland areas are marked by relatively high temperatures with a mean maximum temperature of 28°C and a mean minimum of 22°C. PS features areas with a dry climate and others with a wet climate. The mean annual rainfall varies from 1318 mm in the southern part of the state (leeward side of Jos-plateau) to 1460 mm on the Jos-plateau. The determining climatic and weather factors for tourists are temperature, rainfall, humidity and wind (Gontul, Oche & Daloeng, 2007).

PS is noted for its drainage networks comprising of streams that constitute the sources of major river drainage systems in the northern part of Nigeria. Some of the rivers and streams feature spectacular waterfalls that are part of PS' stunning tourist attractions and constitute potential for the development of tourism resorts and hydroelectric power generation (Gontul, Oche & Daloeng, 2007). The Assop Falls, Kwoll Falls, Kura Falls and Sha falls are counted among the most appealing tourist sites in PS and endow the state with good image if developed properly.

## **1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

Although previous studies have recognized the importance of tourism to economic development, there is a dearth of literature on the impacts of unexpected events on tourism, especially in Nigeria. This study aimed to contribute to the body of knowledge by providing useful insights on the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses using a chaos theory approach. Each research effort is unique and has the potential to contribute to knowledge through the generation of innovation, and the development of new concepts and the introduction of new strategies to meet present-day needs (Wheller, 1998; Rich, 2003; Swetnam, 2004; Dawson, 2009; Turabian et al., 2013; Roberts & Hyatt, 2018). Therefore, to the limited number of studies and publications concerning the

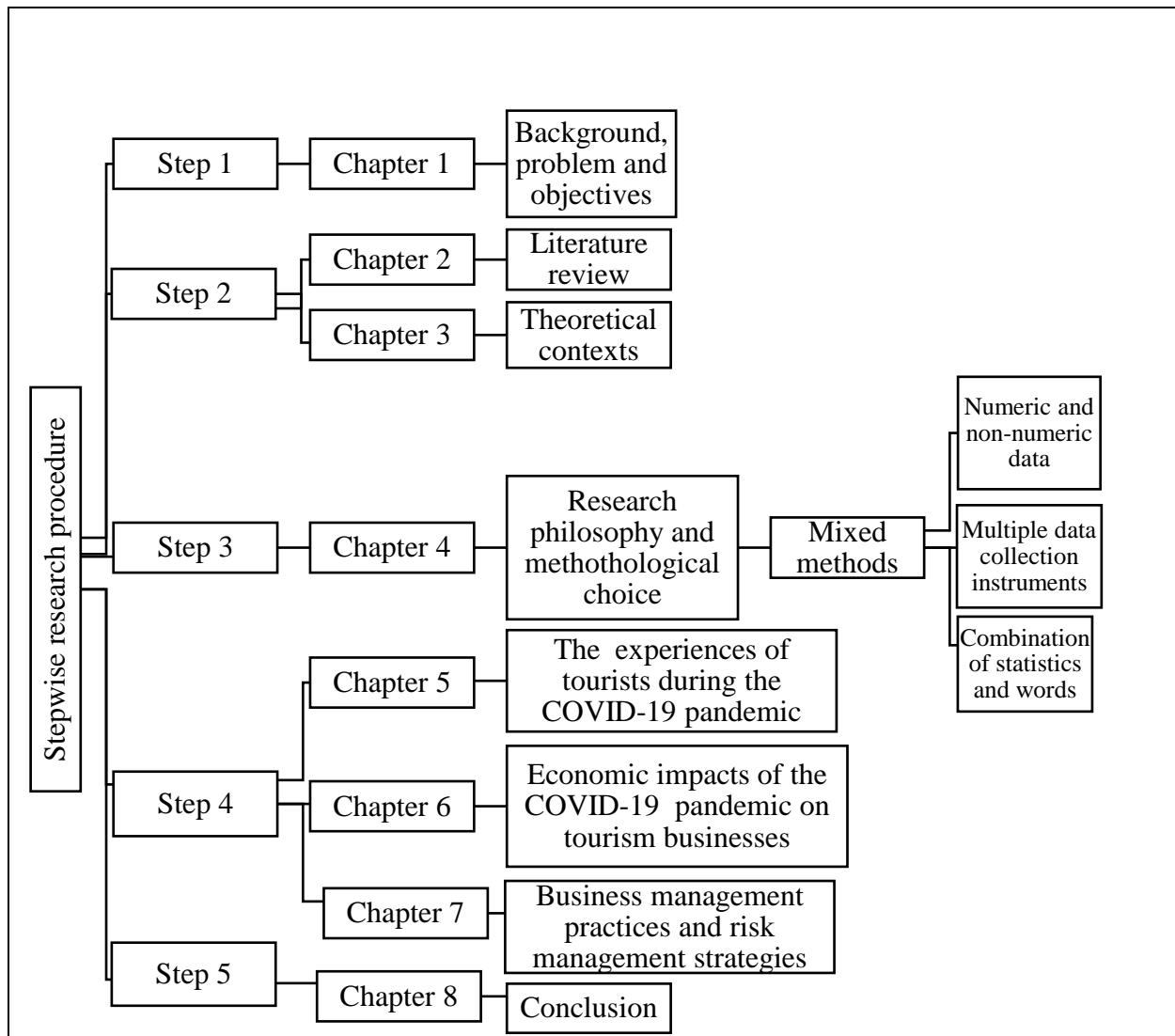
understanding of unexpected events using the chaos theory in developing countries, this research aimed to contribute to new debates on understanding tourism crises from the chaos theory perspective. This is important and timely as it has implications for the tourism industries in developing countries. This study provides an opportunity to demonstrate that crises are unique and that the effect varies across regions. While the tourism industry continues to suffer from shocks and unexpected events, it is apparent that a multidimensional approach is required in a chaotic tourism system in tackling the effects of the pandemic on tourism businesses. As many tourism businesses still lack adequate planning and preparation for an unforeseen event, the chaos theory is explored as an alternative to identify practical, relevant and effective means to salvage tourism businesses during an unexpected event. It is envisaged that this study will provide evidence for tourism businesses that were affected by the pandemic in Plateau State, Nigeria.

## **1.7 METHODS AND ORGANIZATION OF THE DISSERTATION**

The research was done in five steps. The first was an assessment of the background, statement of the problem and research objectives underpinning this research. Step two was a reviewing of the relevant literature, models and theories that formed the basis of the study. Step three involved detailing of the methods used in accomplishing the objectives of the research. The choice of mixed-methods approach (see Section 4.3) enabled the collection of quantitative and qualitative data for the study. Mixed methods allowed for the investigation of the phenomenon of unexpected events using multiple instruments of data collection in a combination of quantitative (questionnaire survey) and qualitative (interviews) methods. Although, the conducting of interviews can be a time-consuming process and a questionnaire survey is prone to yielding a low response rate, the latter method can quickly access a large sample and data generated can be easily analyzed statistically (Laxton, 2004).

Consistent with other tourism research, for this study mixed-method research (MMR) was done to gain a better understanding of an unexpected event and phenomenon in its real-life context using multiple sources and types of data (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2015). The use of mixed methods and triangulation was recommended (Saunders et al., 2015). Triangulation involves the use of multiple sources of data in studying identical phenomenon under investigation and can be used for data validation purpose (Hussein, 2009). Triangulation simplifies the explanation and interpretation of findings generated from a quantitative perspective by taking a qualitative stand, thereby producing detailed results (Bryman, 2006; Saunders et al., 2009; Saunders et al., 2015; Bryman et al., 2017). Methodological triangulation enables researchers to overcome the weaknesses in individual choices, draws on their strengths and integrates both. Step 4 involved the

reporting of the results of the research in three chapters collectively covering the research objectives. Step 5 aimed to conclude and synthesize the research process. The organization of the dissertation is depicted in Figure 1.2.



Source: Author's construct, 2021

Figure 1.2 Organization of the dissertation

The thesis has an eight-chapter structure and the contents of each chapter is summarized here.

**Chapter 1** sketches a background to the impacts unexpected events have on the tourism industry and which gave rise to the need for this study. The research problem, aim and study objectives are stated. The steps the research takes and the significance of the study are presented.

**Chapter 2** is a literature review of unexpected events. The unexpected events that affect tourists' behaviour towards tourism are elaborated. Crisis is conceptualized to further situate the COVID-19

pandemic as a crisis. The global socio-economic impacts of the pandemic are highlighted along with the responses of governments across the world to it.

**Chapter 3** explains and evaluates models and theories of tourism crisis management with a focus on chaos theory. The weaknesses and unworkability of the linear prescriptive crisis management frameworks and models are identified.

**Chapter 4** critically outlines the research philosophy and relevant methodological stance of the study and methods used. The research philosophy is discussed and justification is given for the research position and philosophical approach adopted for this research. The choices of mixed-methods research design, the methods of data collection, the sampling design, the validity and reliability of the data, the relevant ethical considerations and the field experiences during data collection are presented.

**Chapter 5** presents the findings of the questionnaire survey about the experiences of tourists in the study area during the pandemic. Findings about how tourist behaviour can impact tourism businesses during a crisis are discussed.

In **Chapter 6** the economic impacts of the pandemic on tourism businesses are considered to gain a broader understanding of the economic impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses and how these businesses managed to cope during the crisis.

In **Chapter 7** the business management practices and the risk management strategies of hotels, restaurants and tourist attractions are evaluated to examine their strategies designed to promote tourism activities after the reopening of tourism businesses.

The concluding **Chapter 8** revisits the objectives and presents the main findings and summarizes the study. The chapter emphasizes the contribution of the research to knowledge, provides recommendations and suggests areas for future research. The literature review of tourism and crises is reported in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER 2

### CRISES AND TOURISM: A REVIEW OF GLOBAL UNEXPECTED EVENTS

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism is an activity that cuts across different sectors. It is an amalgamation of different products and services. Scholars concur that there is no single definition of tourism (Mason, 2003; Tailon, 2014) as they tend to define it according to their disciplines and fields of interest (Leiper, 2000) such as anthropology, sociology, geography, psychology, philosophy, law, political sciences and economics. Nevertheless, the various definitions of tourism reflect tourism's connectedness to almost all sectors of human social activity, hence it is seen to be multi-faceted (Lickorish & Jenkins, 1997). Tourism encompasses a variety of organizations. Every tourist journey includes elements from different sub-sectors (Selemon & Alemken, 2019). Researchers appear to agree that six principal elements predispose individuals to tourism. These elements represent the fundamental attractions of tourism, namely good weather, scenery, amenities, accessibility, accommodation, historical and cultural features (Robinson, 1976; Selemon & Alemken, 2019).

Tourism "serve as a major contributor to economic growth" (PSG (Plateau State Government), 2020: 14), however the tourism system is susceptible to negative changes in the event of individuals' bad experiences or wider events that limit tourists' activities from functioning as expected (Pike et al., 2021). The expansion of tourism activities to promote tourism-related businesses has always faced risks and crises that occur unexpectedly with consequent great impacts on tourism (Pine & Mckercher, 2004). Against the introductory background sketched in the previous chapter, this chapter reviews the literature on the key research needs of this study's objectives. Literature search using key words and google scholar search engine was carried out at Stellenbosch University's JS Gericke Library and the Internet. The foci of the literature review are on conceptualizing crisis and the definition and types of unexpected events (UEs). Human experiences of UEs are appraised with the aim to develop an understanding of such events in both developed and developing country contexts. The literature on the relationship between tourism and the COVID-19 pandemic is highlighted to appreciate the impacts of the pandemic on selected sectors of the tourism industry. The conceptualization of crisis is addressed next.

#### 2.2 CONCEPTUALIZING CRISIS

The occurrence of crises in the tourism industry is unforeseen with variations in dimensions and degrees of damage to structures and systems. A crisis is broadly defined as any situation that exposes someone or something to danger, harm or loss (UNWTO, 2014). Crises in the tourism context are



unexpected events that affect a traveller's confidence in a destination and affect a system's ability to continue normal operations (UNWTO, 2011). Similarly, the Pacific Asia Travel Association (PATA) defines a crisis as a situation that interferes with the ability of an organization or product to continue operating normally (PATA, 2003). UNWTO and PATA agree that crises are UEs such as health pandemics are a great risk that poses a threat to the tourism system that invariably affects tourists' travel behaviour. Crisis management is an essential process in tourism systems and it demands the attention of tourism business managers and owners.

According to Lemonakis & Zairis (2019:1) "a crisis is a low probability event with major implications, which threaten the viability of an organization and is characterized by unclear causes, effects and ways of finding a solution as well as the belief that decisions must be made within a short time." Coombs (2007) argues that a crisis disrupts operations and poses both financial and a reputational threat to organizations causing people to think badly of organizations. A crisis can create unrest with a sense of threatening fear that adversely affects an entire system or community (Coombs, 2007; Polyzos, Samitas & Spyridou, 2020). In the context of tourism, the COVID-19 pandemic is "an organizational crisis - an event perceived by managers and stakeholders as highly salient, unexpected, and potentially disruptive - can threaten an organization's goals and have profound implications for its relationship with stakeholders" (Bundy et al., 2017: 1662).

Clearly, a crisis can be transformational and become a threat to people's safety, the environment, organizations and systems. A recent study by the Committee for Economic and Commercial Cooperation of the Organization of Islamic Co-operation (COMCEC) identified two broad categories of tourism-related crises: (1) "those beyond the control of managers such as natural disasters, epidemics and sudden global economic events, and (2) those resulting from a failure of management to put in place contingency measures to deal with a crisis, such as business collapses due to management shortcomings, financial fraud, loss of data and the destruction of business places by fire or flood without adequate insurance cover" (COMCEC, 2017: 17).

Disaster, on the other hand, tends to be sudden, unexpected, gives rise to emergencies and requires an immediate response (Rosselló et al., 2020). Faulkner's (2001) definitions of a crisis and a disaster distinguish between these two terms on the grounds of the causes of the problems which could be either internal or external. For example, if the situation is induced internally within a system through incompetent management, the event is a crisis and if external natural or human events impact a system the situation is termed a disaster. He further maintains that crisis or disaster situations are triggering events that have a high threatening value, short decision time with an element of surprise and an urgency that calls into question the structure, operations and survival of a system (Faulkner, 2001).

Santana (2004: 307) posits that “crises are generally distinguished from routine situations by a sense of ‘urgency’ and a concern that problems will become ‘worse’ in the absence of action.”

Regarding tourism, crises and disasters typify chaos phenomena (Mckercher, 1999; Faulkner, 2001). Chaos theory emphasized that stable “systems are often at the ‘*edge of chaos*’ where an event causes change and instability” thereby threatening the survival of the system (Faulkner (2000: 10). Lemonakis & Zairis (2019) describe the crisis as a ‘dangerous phase’ that could affect the structure of a system and then return to normality. Crises and disasters can thus serve as catalysts for change having a potentially positive or negative outcome (Faulkner, 2001). Faulkner (2000: 8) further argues that “this is consistent with elements of chaos theory which views chaos as a creative rather than a destructive process.” For example, once a crisis or disaster pushes a system past some point of criticality, it can be destroyed or restored as a whole, or may lead to the emergence of a new and effective system (Faulkner, 2000). This implies that the chaos associated with crises and disasters can unleash both destructive and positive forces (Faulkner, 2001).

A crisis contains certain elements that include a potential threat, state of surprise, short time for decision making and disruption to tourism systems. This disruption is unpredictable, produces undesirable effects “in an atmosphere full of tension and volatility” that hurt organizations and stakeholders (Lemonakis & Zairis, 2019: 1). The common characteristics of crisis, as identified in the definitions of a crisis of Faulkner (2001) and Lemonakis & Zairis (2019) are summarized in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Major characteristics of crisis

<b>Faulkner</b>	<b>Lemonakis and Zairis</b>
A triggering event	Unexpected
A high treat environment with a short response	Unstructured
A perception of inability to cope by those directly affected	Uncertain
A turning point of response	Non-programmed responses
Characterized by an element of surprise	An excessive amount of conflicting information
	Highly emotional
	High sense of urgency and action

Source: Adapted from Faulkner (2001) and Lemonakis & Zairis (2019)

The scale of crisis also varies. Crisis can commence at a local scale and then amplify to a global level with implications for nations and regions, invariably causing significant damage to the tourism industry (Laws & Prideaux, 2017). Crisis can occur “with a limited warning period, and situations can also be emergent (developing gradually), sustained (lasting weeks, months or even years), sequential, multiple in manifestation, or even combined in origin and effects” (as typified in the

COVID-19 scenario) Ritchie (2004: 671). In defining crisis in a tourism context, Sönmez, Backman & Allen (1994, cited in Sönmez, Apostolopoulos & Tarlow, 1999: 13-14) gives a more detailed description of crisis as any occurrence

which can threaten the normal operation and conduct of tourism-related businesses; damage a tourist destination's overall reputation for safety, attractiveness, and comfort by negatively affecting visitor's perception of that destination; and, in turn, cause a downturn in the local travel and tourism economy, and interrupt the continuity of business operations for the local travel and tourism industry, by the reduction of tourist arrivals and expenditures.

When a crisis hits the impacts reverberates throughout the tourism system (Mckercher, 1999; Faulkner, 2001) and this requires responses from tourism organizations to manage the impacts on businesses operating within the system. In the present study, crisis is regarded to embrace the chaos caused by the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses and this demand countermeasures to limit the duration and scope of the negative consequences (UNWTO, 2011). Four different types of crisis, namely natural disasters, terrorism, political instability and conflicts, and pandemics have been selected for discussion in turn, in the following subsections. Natural disasters are taken up first.

### **2.2.1 Natural disasters**

Tourism is exposed to and vulnerable to natural disasters and multiple types of UEs (Huan, Beaman & Shelby, 2004; Kim et al., 2005; Becken, Zammit & Hendrikx, 2015). Natural disasters can impede the flow of tourists and create difficult situations for the afflicted areas (Sönmez, Apostolopoulos & Tarlow, 1999; Genç, 2018). Natural disasters are unpredictable and catastrophic and impact the tourism system thereby limiting the time to inform tourists about planned protection that can be offered to them (Huan, Beaman & Shelby, 2004; Shondell-Miller, 2008). Moreover, the impact can be direct or indirect (Rosselló et al., 2020). It has also been suggested that these natural disasters have been enhanced by the combined effects of climate change, industrialization and urbanization (Becken et al., 2015)

Natural disasters are wide-ranging and include earthquakes, tsunamis, landslides, avalanches, floods, bushfires, hurricanes, droughts, heatwaves and other similar phenomena. Several examples show the decline in tourist arrivals after major natural disasters (Huan, Beaman & Shelby, 2004; Genç, 2018; Rosselló et al., 2020). For instance, there was a drastic decrease in visitor numbers to the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) listed World Heritage sites at Kathmandu, Nepal, which suffered widespread destruction during the 2015 earthquake that left several trekking routes to become uncertain due to the risk of rockfall following heavy rain and aftershocks (Becken, 2015). To a large extent the water drought (2015 to 2018) "in Cape Town, South

Africa, led to cancellations, cuts in tourism services and loss of income for local businesses” (Wendell, 2018: 1). Although visitors were sympathetic to Cape Town’s plight, the decline was quite likely related by requests to conserve waters (Wendell, 2018). Despite the significant limitations in the provision of tourism services, natural disasters have the potential to disrupt tourism flow by deterring tourists and they “have formed part of the ‘riskscape’ that humans have learned to manage and live with” (Rosselló, Becken & Santana-Gallego, 2020: 2).

The devastating effects of the 1995 earthquake in Japan, the 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami and hurricanes Katrina (2005), Harvey (2017), Irma (2017) and Maria (2017) in the United States of America (USA) and the Caribbean led to the highest losses ever recorded (USD135 billion) (Munich, 2018 cited in Rosselló, Becken & Santana-Gallego, 2020) and are vivid reminders that natural disasters are a global issue (see Huan, Beaman & Shelby, 2004; Margaritondo, 2005; USGS, 2009; Doocy et al., 2013; Kundzewicz, 2013; Heger & Neumayer, 2019; Patel & Srivastara, 2013; Gallagher & Hartley, 2017; Ismail et al., 2018; Rindrasih et al., 2019; Santangelo, 2019; Teresita et al., 2019; Alam et al., 2020; *National Geographic*, 2020; Qin et al., 2020).

Natural disasters cause the loss of human lives and they destroy economic assets, infrastructure and livelihoods meant to serve residents and tourists (Huan, Beaman & Shelby, 2004). Millions of people are affected each year by natural disasters through death, injuries or displacement of people. Crucial infrastructure can be compromised or rendered dysfunctional, and businesses and properties worth millions of dollars are damaged (Parasuraman, 1995; Ellidokuz et al., 2005; Huan, Beaman & Shelby, 2004; 2005; SCEC, 2009; Zhang et al., 2009; Basile, 2020; Rosselló, Becken & Santana-Gallego, 2020). In addition, natural disasters “lead to a reduction in business activity in the affected area through declines in the motivation of people to take part in economic activities since they may be concerned with the loss of their relatives or properties” (Genç, 2018: 87). Natural disasters lead to the decline in the number of tourists that further create a sharp decrease in economic revenues hence deepening the impacts on the tourism industry. Terrorism as a form of crisis is considered next.

### **2.2.2 Terrorism**

Crises labelled UEs are a global phenomenon manifesting in countries all over the world to impact tourism. Terrorist attacks are a common form of man-induced UE threat to global security (Sönmez, 1998; Sönmez, Apostolopoulos & Tarlow, 1999; Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009; Bates & LaBrecque, 2019; Corbet et al., 2019). Although studies have shown that there are various meanings given to terrorism, with different group labels such as liberation movements, radical activists and terrorists (Norris et al., 2003). To avoid ambiguity in defining the concept of terrorism, the United State’s Department of State (USDS) definition is used, namely “terrorism is a premeditated,

politically motivated violence perpetrated against civilians and unarmed military personnel by subnational groups, usually intended to influence an audience” (USDS, 1996).

In the context of tourism, terrorism is regarded “as the creation of fear by an act of violence” that disrupts tourism flows, infrastructure and overall tourism business operations (Corbet et al., 2019: 1). Terrorism thrives on fear and intimidation (Jongman, 2017) and exists in different forms and groups, such as Al-Qaeda, the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIL), Al-Shabab, Hamas and Hezbollah (Zarse, 2020). These groups carry out coordinated religious, political and military attacks which “often develop from the belief that an ultimate power has commanded the violence for the greater glory of their faith” (Martin, 2017: 6).

The phenomenon of terrorist attacks against tourist sites, service settings and tourism infrastructure has been acknowledged in the literature (Ben-David & Cohen-Louck, 2010; Radić & Dragicevic, 2018). Tarlow (2014) has described reasons why tourism has become a target of terrorist attacks. They include tourism often representing a variety of values that terrorism abhors such as celebrating difference, gender equality and capitalism. Tarlow (2014) further suggested that tourists on vacation tend to be relaxed, adequately sheltered and unconcerned about security, making them easy targets. However, these factors are changing as studies have shown that tourists have developed risk perceptions and self-protective habits (Slovic 2000; Mansfeld, 2006; Guttman, Gilboa & Partouche-Sebban, 2021). Because tourism includes “iconic sites that symbolize people or the global community and since the tourism industry has significant economic benefits, attacks on iconic sites and tourists are an attack on a destination’s image” (Tarlow (2014: 11). Such attacks receive global publicity on which terrorism thrives.

Liu & Pratt’s (2017) study found that terrorism impacts negatively on tourism. Between 2001 and 2018 some noteworthy terrorism attacks occurred in various countries. In the USA the World Trade Centre was destroyed and the Pentagon damaged in 2001 which inflicted numerous casualties and massive damage to selected targets (White, 2016). Attacks in Germany, France, Denmark, Belgium, Turkey, the United Kingdom (UK) and Sweden resulted in thousands being injured and hundreds killed (Corbet et al., 2019). In this 18-year period, France experienced the most attacks (4) with the largest number of fatalities in Paris in 2015 (137 persons). These attacks occurred at various events such as at a football match and “a mass shooting during a music concert. The greatest number of injuries occurred in Manchester, UK, in 2017 (512 persons) where a suicide bomber detonated an improvised explosive device (IED) at a music concert with 14 200 people in attendance” (Corbet et al., 2019: 6).

The travel and tourism competitive index (TTCI) of the World Economic Forum reveals that terrorism activities continue to affect the travel and tourism in countries across the world. The TTCI (2019)

report indicates that America suffered from the lowest business environment averages, safety and security. Despite its security challenges, Europe remained the most competitive region due to its best cultural resources and leading infrastructure, especially land, port and tourism service infrastructure. In 2019 Asia-Pacific was the second most competitive region for its “natural and cultural resources, including the highest regional performance in the cultural resources and business travel sub-index” (TTCI, 2019: 27). The region has an “impressive air transport infrastructure and significant investment in its ground, port and tourist service infrastructure” (TTCI, 2019: 3). The Middle East was “price competitive but also struggled with terrorism, related security and international openness” (TTCI, 2019: 43). These are the likely reasons why the region’s tourism performance scored lowest on the natural and cultural resources index (TTCI, 2019).

Tourism is recognized as an important economic factor worldwide providing approximately one in ten of all jobs, which equates to approximately 109 million jobs worldwide (Radić & Dragicevic, 2018). However, as “one of the most global economic activities, it is vulnerable to the risks (such as terrorism) that affect any global business” (Fennell, 2017: 6). Seabra et al. (2020) indicate that terrorist attacks adversely affect tourist arrivals at destinations in Asia, Oceania, the USA and other European countries that have histories of terrorist attacks. Following the notorious terrorist attacks in 2001, the “global tourism industry saw an 8.6% drop in tourist arrivals” (Crawford, 2012: no page) and a 60% drop in international tourism receipts in destinations afflicted by multiple terrorist attacks (Essouaid & Rejeb, 2017). The effects of tourists changing their choices away from destinations perceived to be unsafe to those considered safer or the postponement of holiday travel plans have led to international tourism incurring losses amounting to billions of dollars (Drakos & Kutan, 2003; Lutz & Lutz, 2018).

After the 9/11 terrorist attacks in the USA the average price of one-night stays at a hotel dropped by 8% (even up to 37%) leading to a loss of billions of dollars in the lodging and hotel industry, while the number of business trips declined by 5% with an associated decline in hotel-room occupancy (Nichols, 2002; Diez, 2015). Restaurants also suffer from changed tourists’ behaviour related to terrorist attacks by way lower patronage and reduced profits. Since most restaurants want to keep their customers, they also offer cheaper meals, have longer opening hours, and offer discounts on meals, all of which eat into profits (Diez, 2015; Laws & Prideaux, 2017). The catering and food delivery sector is also facing serious difficulties as high-level business meetings and events are cancelled following a terrorist attack. Moreover, inhabitants are hesitant to celebrate festivities and other events while the tragedy of an attack is fresh in their minds (Green et al., 2003; Diez, 2015).

Terrorism no doubt impacts tourist arrivals, the economy, tourism demand, socio-economic activities and the destination image of countries (Baker, 2014). The impact terrorism has on tourism does not

necessarily last long and tourism business activities tend to kick-start again. Zillman (2015: 1) has reported that tourism “takes 13 months to recover from a terrorist attack, 21 months from a disease outbreak, 24 months from an environmental disaster and 24 months from political unrest.” Scholars argue that tourism’s ability to recover from an event depends largely on the attractions that destinations offer and the resilience of tourists and the tourism industry to the risks of an unexpected event (Mansfeld, 1999; Frey et al., 2007). Despite the menace of terrorist attacks, it has been established by dark tourism research to record positive growth rates as increasing numbers of tourists want to visit terrorist attack sites (Radić & Dragicevic, 2018).

However, studies are finding a sharpening decline in the number of terrorist attacks (Radić, 2018). Hence compared to 2015, the “total number of terrorist attacks in 2016 decreased by 9% and the total number of deaths from terrorist attacks decreased by 13%” (Radić & Dragicevic, 2018: 238) thereby accounting for the increase in global tourist arrivals which grew by 4% in 2019, 6% in 2018 and 7% in 2017 (UNWTO, 2020b). The slow growth rate recorded in 2019 has been accorded to the collapse of “several low-cost airlines in Europe” (UNWTO, 2021a: 1). Other factors include the uncertainty related to “Brexit, geopolitical and trade tensions and the global economic slowdown” (UNWTO, 2021a: 1).

### **2.2.3 Political instability and conflicts**

Evidence abound of a close connection flanked by terrorism and political instability (Hall & O’Sullivan, 1996), the effects of which spill into conflicts and wars that are more common occurrences in developing countries (Sönmez, 1998). This is evident in the Bosnian war, the Zimbabwean war, the Somalian crises, the Rwandan genocide, the ethnoreligious dichotomy and feud in Kenya, the decades of Congo crises, the Syrian mayhem, the Central African Republic crisis, the South Sudan crisis, the killings in Myanmar, the attacks, killings and kidnappings in the Niger delta area and the northern regions of Nigeria (Enyiaka, 2019). All these political instabilities and conflicts resulting from either ideological or economic causes tend to adversely affect the number of visitors, thereby having marked effects on tourism activities (Dragičević et al., 2018). These views are supported by scholars who argue that the impact of political instability on tourism is more severe than that of terrorism which has lesser impact, especially where political stability exists (Fletcher & Morakabati, 2008; Yap & Saha, 2013).

Violence, conflict and war thrive on political instability (Carnegie Commission on Preventing Deadly Conflict, 1997). Baldwin et al. (1997) have observed that in several African and developing countries, religion and tribal hostilities have had tragic consequences. In some cases a dominant tribe has assumed political control over a country and then slaughtered fellow citizens who are members of a

targeted tribe (Enyiaka, 2019). Tribal massacres have claimed the lives of hundreds of thousands of victims and some countries have fallen into anarchy and chaos as in Eritrea, Liberia, Burundi and Rwanda. Elsewhere, bitter civil wars have been fought such as those in Nigeria and Zaire (Enyiaka, 2019).

Conflict is essentially an integral part of social existence and it mainly emerges where clear contradictions exist, or perceived to exist, between aggrieved parties. These are groups of people who believe that the result of such conflict is extremely vital to their individual and collective existence (Nwagwu, 2018). Furthermore, “violence can be traced to historical events, long-held grievances, economic hardships, attitudes of pride and honour, grand formulations of national interest or groups inclined to pursue their objectives by violence” (Nwagwu, 2018: 245). Ethnic cleavages, competition for power and resource control are recurrent features of conflicts in developing countries (Nwagwu, 2018).

Investigations have shown a growing record of militant groups who pursue their objectives by way of preaching the Islamic State through violence, killings, kidnapping and rape especially in developing countries (Goerzig, 2019). Examples of groups active in developing countries include Al-Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb (AQIM) in Tunisia, the Islamic Armed Group (IAG) in Algeria, Boko Haram in Nigeria, Chad, Niger and Sudan as well as Ansar al-sharia in Libya. The groups aims are (among others) to damage tourism infrastructure and the economy thus making such countries unsafe to visit by tourists (see Gartenstein-Ross & Moneng, 2015; Alola et al., 2019; Goerzig, 2019; Neo, 2019; Unah, 2019).

The tourism industry in North Africa and other Arab countries suffered significant decline in the number of visitors due to the political revolution and security unrests during the Arab Spring (Ali et al., 2012; AlBattat et al., 2013; Magablihi & Mustapha, 2018). The Arab spring revolution was set off during late 2010 and early 2011 and was “influenced by the revolution of Tunisia, sparked by Mohammed Bouazizi self-immolation in protest of police corruption” (Ali et al., 2012: 1163). During the “Arab revolts and the subsequent protests and violence, the image of these countries as a tourist destination shook, particularly in the eyes of the Europeans who were covering 80% of the tourism market” (Ali et al., 2012: 1163).

During this period, the tourism industry in countries such as Egypt, Tunisia, Syria and Yemen “faced sharp decline in the number of tourists coming to these countries because of the escalation of tension and the continuing insecurity” (Ali et al., 2012: 1163). This political instability and conflicts contributed to deterring would-be tourists and resulted in damaging outcomes for the tourism industry (Timothy, 2019). In addition, some of the conflicts in the developing countries have destroyed the respective country’s numerous cultural heritages. Treasured “ancient monuments have been



intentionally targeted for destruction by extremists and museums and historic sites have been severely looted and valuable artifacts sold illicitly to fund warfare” (Timothy, 2019: 1). Numerous sites have been destroyed beyond repair as in Egypt, Libya and Tunisia. This has costed “not only important historical records but also the future livelihoods of people who had previously depended on tourism” (Timothy, 2019: 1).

Political instability and conflicts lead to “a collapse in tourism revenues, especially for countries that depend on the tourism sector as a source of national income” (Ali et al., 2012: 1163). Political instability and conflicts have been found to have the capacity of constraining development efforts by destroying tourism infrastructures and diverting scarce resources away for productive and profitable uses to conflict management, thereby scaring tourists away (Nwagwu, 2018; Alola et al., 2019). This explains why only 1% of the global USD1.7 trillion earnings in the tourism industry was attributed to developing countries specifically those in Africa with about 5% of tourist arrivals in 2018 (Kimeria, 2019). Due to declines in tourist arrivals after conflicts, most hotels and restaurants in developing countries continue to record downturns in the numbers of guests and customers because of the increasing bomb blasts, suicide attacks, target killings at tourist sites and places of worship, kidnappings and abductions thereby reducing the revenue growth in both business types (see Sönmez, 1998; Nichols, 2002; Baker, 2014; Laws & Prideaux, 2017; Seabra et al., 2020). These reduced revenues from tourism exacerbated by the influence of political instability and conflicts and the accompanying decline in security, impacts negatively on tourism. These effects equally impacts on the economic situation of the tourism industry and the countries concerned. How the global economic crises impacted on tourism is considered next.

#### **2.2.4 Economic crises**

The 2008 global economic downturn that broke out in 2007 affected economies across the world and adversely impacted on global tourism. Financial activities and credit growth remained passive in many economies which hampered the expansion of tourism businesses. According to Page, Song and Wu (2012: 142) “the origins of the global economic crisis can be traced back to 2004, when problems first arose in the U.S. subprime mortgage market as interest rates rose and mortgages defaulted on their payment obligations. A notable trigger point in the United Kingdom was the collapse in late 2007 of Northern Rock (a bank specializing in high-cost subprime lending that was subsequently nationalized) following investor withdrawals of £1 billion in a single day. Other banks and financial institutions around the globe began to announce losses in the subprime market, but the key catalyst in 2008 were the collapse of Lehman Brothers and the domino effect of that collapse.”

International tourist arrivals suffered a great decline during the second quarter of 2008 and first quarter of 2009 (Papatheodorou, Rosselló & Xiao, 2010). There was a decline in international tourist arrivals in 2009 in all regions of the world except for Africa. Findings show that “the highest impact was felt in Europe (-10% for the first four months). The Americas have suffered mainly due to the slow down of the United State and the Carribbean state (-5%), while the decline in demand for tourism in Asia and the Pacific has been faster than expected (-6%)” (Papatheodorou et al., 2010: 41). Tourism in Canada was affected by the economic crisis as well. Although the Canadian inbound tourism was boosted in 2010 due to the Olympic winter games in Vancouver, tourism in Mexico was affected more directly by the swine flu pandemic, exchange rate fluctuations and adverse weather conditions than by the economic crisis (Ritchie, Molinar & Frechtling, 2010).

Tourism businesses reported a “downturn in sales of lodging, foodservice, events and other hospitality products and some closed their doors forever. The decline resulted not only from fewer customers in hotels, restaurants, conference and convention centres, but also from a significant decline in the average expenditure per guest” (Pizam, 2009 cited in Kapiki, 2012: 3). The labour market suffered severe distress as unemployment peaked at more than 10% of the labour force in advanced economies (Papatheodorou et al, 2010). This increased “from 29 million to 59 million people worldwide in 2009; these figures correspond to unemployment rates between 6.6% and 7.4%” (Papatheodorou et al., 2010: 40). In Jordan, remittances from the employed contribute almost 20% to the nations GDP. However, due to the lack of job opportunities and high unemployment rates in Jordan during the economic crisis, remittances declined from 20% of GDP in 2005 to 14% in 2009 increasing the poverty rate (Ahid & Augustine, 2012). All these, along with pandemics hamper the growth and development of tourism. Pandemics as a form of crisis is the next topic.

### **2.2.5 Pandemics**

The threat that epidemics and diseases pose to global health security and people’s livelihoods is increasingly recognized, apart from the impact on human health (Sifolo & Sifolo, 2015; Talisun et al., 2020). A disease is any medical condition, regardless of origin or source, that is or could be considered to cause significant harm to humans (WHO-IHR-2005, 2016). Similarly, an epidemic is an often sudden and/or unexpected increase in the number of cases of disease beyond what would normally be expected in any population in any area, while a pandemic is an epidemic that has spread and usually affected several countries or continents affecting many people (US-CDC, 2012).

For instance, pandemics such as foot-and-mouth disease, Zika Virus, Ebola, Middle East respiratory syndrome (MERS) and severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) have impacted heavily on the tourism industry with resulting declines in tourism activities (Sifolo & Sifolo, 2015; Gössling et al.,

2020; Chen, Law & Zhang, 2021). Although SARS cases were spread across Hong Kong, China, Canada, and Taiwan, China alone lost about USD48 billion to SARS when the WHO declared it an epidemic in 2009 (McKercher & Chon, 2004; Siu & Wong, 2004; Gössling et al., 2020).

Regarding the impact of the 2003 SARS pandemic on tourism, Siu & Wong (2004) and Laws & Prideaux (2017) reported that the travel and tourism sector was significantly affected compared to other economic sectors due to the decline in clientele. Globally, SARS had an estimated economic cost of USD100 billion, including USD48 billion in China alone (McKercher & Chon, 2004; Siu & Wong, 2004). During the SARS pandemic, international tourist arrivals fell 1.2% to 694 million in 2003 (WHO, 2003) and growth in the broader travel and tourism economy slowed to 2.9% from around 5% in previous years (Bell et al., 2004). In East Asia, tourist arrivals in 2003 dropped by 41% compared to those in 2002, with tourist destinations in China, Hong Kong, Vietnam and Singapore being hit the hardest. During the outbreak, Asia-Pacific saw a drop of 12 million arrivals, down 9% year-on-year (Wilder-Smith, 2005). These results confirm that unexpected events occurring in a country or region can lead to disruptions to tourist arrivals in those areas (Cro & Martins, 2017a).

The emergence of pandemics has been on the rise and 2019 witnessed the global emergence of the COVID-19 pandemic (Folinas & Metaxas, 2020; Gössling et al., 2020; Jamal & Budke, 2020; Pongpirul, 2020; Park, Kim & Kim, 2022). The rapid spread of the virus was exacerbated by accelerated means of travel (transportation) which has led to dire economic consequences for the tourism industry that is a main contributor to the dissemination of pandemics (Gössling et al., 2020). The impact of the outbreak of epidemics is enormous and cause diverse losses that often exceed the local capacities affected, necessitating national and in some cases international assistance as in the case of the COVID-19 pandemic (CRED, 2009). It is necessary for this research to further provide an understanding to how the COVID-19 pandemic has impacted the tourism industry. The review of the emerging literature is considered next.

### **2.3 TOURISM AND THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

The year 2020 witnessed the global emergence of the novel coronavirus (COVID-19) which is an entirely new threat described as a 'black swan' (Adam & Kimbu, 2020; Zenker & Kock, 2020). Before the outbreak in Wuhan, China, in December 2019, this infectious disease was unknown (WHO, 2020c). Although the COVID-19 outbreak is widely believed to have started in China, Chinese officials rejected the idea that the pandemic originated on its territory (Felter, 2021). In a short while this epidemic extended over all the provinces of China, the bordering countries and to all continents of the world (Pongpirul et al., 2020). The massive spread of the virus to other parts of the

world was largely due to the spring festival travels. The rapid spread of this dangerous disease around the world has been fuelled by the aviation sector which carries more than two billion passengers every year (UNWTO, 2020c).

No crisis in recent history has imposed the intensity and global-scale impact of the COVID-19 pandemic (Beirman, 2021). In one month the coronavirus spread from Wuhan to cities across the Peoples Republic of China (PRC). On 28 January 2020 the number of confirmed cases of the novel coronavirus reached 5974, surpassing SARS; on 31 January the number of confirmed cases reached 11 791, twice the number of SARS infections; three days later confirmed cases of COVID-19 broke the 20 000 mark and by 10 February the total number of confirmed cases of COVID-19 nationwide in China reached 42 638 (Ruiz-Estrada et al., 2020). The exact source of this new coronavirus is yet to be ascertained. Evidence, however, suggests it was linked to the Huanan Seafood Market in Wuhan city. Some people who visited the market in December 2019 developed viral pneumonia caused by COVID-19 and the WHO declared the COVID-19 outbreak a public health emergency on 30 January 2020.

Sudden outbreak of coronavirus has been experienced in the past. Remember the SARS coronavirus outbreak in the early 2000s. Many may not be aware that another novel coronavirus, MERS is circulating in parts of the world while COVID-19 has been spreading rapidly across the world (Jamal & Budke, 2020; Rogerson & Baum, 2020; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2020). A disturbing connection between these viruses is that they all likely arose from an initial zoonotic (animal-to-human) transmission event. Like SARS, COVID-19 is easily transmitted between people, while MERS has more limited person-to-person transmission, although those infected with MERS and COVID-19 have a chance of surviving but are at greater risk of dying from the infection if not treated properly (Jamal & Budke, 2020; Ruiz-Estrada, 2020).

The most common symptoms of COVID-19 are fever, dry cough and fatigue. According to the WHO (2020c) other symptoms are usually mild and begin gradually. They are less common and can affect others exhibiting symptoms such as aches, stuffy nose, headache, sore throat, diarrhea and loss of taste or smell. The virus spreads principally from one infected person to another through small droplets from the nose or mouth when a person with COVID-19 coughs, sneezes or speaks (WHO, 2020c). This is why it is advisable to adhere to health protocols such as wearing a face mask and standing at least one metre away from others because the expelled “droplets can land on objects and surfaces and people can become infected by touching these objects and surfaces and then touching their mouth, eyes or nose” (WHO, 2020c: 1). To reduce the spread through this means, it is important to “wash hands frequently with soap and water. In the absence of soap and water, an alcohol-based hand rub” or sanitizer should be readily available for use (WHO, 2020c: 1).

The COVID-19 pandemic is a ‘transformational crisis’ (Gössling et al., 2020; UNWTO, 2020a; Beirman, 2021; Gössling & Schweiggart, 2022). This health crisis has weakened global economy, tourism and travel (UNWTO, 2020a). Given the embryonic nature of the pandemic, assessing the full impact of the pandemic on international tourism will be riddled with ambiguity. For its first assessment in 2020, UNWTO took the 2003 SARS scenario as a benchmark, taking into account the size and dynamics of global travel and disruption, the geographic spread of COVID-19 and its potential economic impact. Therefore, as of 13 March 2020, it was estimated that global international tourist arrivals had declined between 1% and 3%, in 2020, compared to an estimated 3% to 4% growth forecast in early January 2020. This resulted in a loss of USD30 billion to 50 billion in international visitor spending (international tourism revenue) (UNWTO, 2020b).

In addition, many millions of jobs have been lost in the tourism industry given that some “80% of all tourism businesses are small-and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). The hotel and hospitality industry was forecast to lose 20% of its revenue and the percentage could be as high as 40% to 60% in countries like Cambodia, Vietnam and Thailand (where this sector accounts for around 20% of employment)” (AU, 2020: 8). Most of the millions of these jobs are found in the world’s top tourism destinations, such as “France with 89 million tourist arrivals per year, Spain with 83 million, USA (80 million), China (63 million), Italy (62 million), Turkey (46 million), Mexico (41 million), Germany (39 million), Thailand (38 million) and the UK (36 million)” (AU (AU, 2020: 8).

The coronavirus is a significant “threat to the tourism industry which has caused the travel sector to shrink by up to 25% in 2020” especially in developing countries as confirmed by the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) chief executive (BBC News, 2020a: 1). As the coronavirus spreads over the world with an increasing number of cases and deaths, communities in the global South, including Africa’s tourism economies continued to plunge because of bans and restrictions on travel (Folinas & Metaxas, 2020; Rogerson & Baum, 2020; Rogerson & Rogerson 2020). Traditional tourist destinations in developing countries with constant traffic risked losing up to 90% of their flows. This is because most countries’ airspaces were closed, visits to tourist sites were banned and many hotel reservations were cancelled. Tourists were barely seen at tourist sites (Folinas & Metaxas, 2020) and most food and beverage businesses closed because of social distancing guidelines (Adam & Kimbu, 2020). The “impact on the tourism sector in Africa is expected to be wide-ranging and long-lasting as it will take time for the sector to recover and for economies to get back on track” (Adam & Kimbu, 2020: 1).

Despite the susceptible nature of the tourism industry, global international tourism contributions have continued to grow. In 2016, global tourism contributions totalled USD1.2 billion (UNWTO, 2017), increasing to USD1.5 trillion in 2018 (UNWTO, 2020a). It is noteworthy, however, that the tourism

industry in Africa contributed 8.5% (or USD194.2 billion) to the continent's GDP in 2018 and is the second-fastest growing with a 5.6% growth in 2018 compared to the average global growth rate of 3.9% (UNWTO, 2018). The tourism industry not only generates trillions of dollars annually in revenue, employment and infrastructure, but is also widely recognized as a practical and lucrative opportunity for economic development particularly for developing countries (UNWTO, 2020a). Tourism is growing faster in the developing world than elsewhere. For example, in 2017 Africa recorded an 8.6% growth in international tourist arrivals, so superseding the world average of 7%, Europe at 8.4% and Asia-Pacific at 4.6%. Additionally, the international tourist arrivals to Africa was 8% exceeding the world average of 4.9% (UNWTO, 2018). Of the 1.4 billion international tourist arrivals in 2018, Africa received 5% with most of them arriving at top tourism destinations in Morocco (11 million per annum), Egypt (11.35 million), South Africa (10.47 million), Tunisia (8.3 million) and Zimbabwe (2.57 million) (Richards, 2007; UNWTO, 2018 AU, 2020).

The prospects for Africa's tourism industry are rosy compared to other regions of the world. It was predicted that the continent's tourism industry would increase between 3% and 5% in 2020 (UNWTO 2020b). With the impact of the pandemic on tourism and ongoing restrictions, hotels in many African countries are laying off staff and travel agencies are closing, sending signals of the likelihood of negative growth which is expected to be drastic in Africa's largest economies (Nigeria, South Africa, Egypt, Algeria and Morocco) which account for more than 60% of the continental GDP (Richards, 2007; AU, 2020).

In addition, the magnitude of the pandemic's impact on these five "economies will be representative of the overall African economy as the outbreak has severely affected these economies and most of them have the highest cases of coronavirus infection in Africa" (AU, 2020: 22). The overall impact of the pandemic on the economies of the main tourism countries will be greater than that of any other African economy. In 2019 the "tourism industry contributed more than 10% to the GDP of the following top tourism countries: Seychelles, Cape Verde, Mauritius, Gambia, Tunisia, Madagascar, Lesotho, Rwanda, Botswana, Egypt, Tanzania, Comoros and Senegal. In these countries economic growth dropped to an average of -3.3% in 2020, while in the Seychelles, Cape Verde, Mauritius and Gambia the decline will be significantly higher at least -7% in 2020" (AU, 2020: 25).

Together with travel, tourism supports one in ten jobs (319 million) worldwide and generates 10.4% of global GDP (UNWTO, 2020b). The lockdown in the above top tourism countries shows how serious the impact of the pandemic is on the tourism industry worldwide (AU, 2020). UNWTO (2020b) further estimated that global international tourist arrivals in Africa could fall from 3% to 1% in 2020. This could result in a loss of USD30 billion to 50 billion in international visitor spending (UNWTO, 2020a) and a global job cut of 50 million in the travel and tourism industry with Asia and

developing countries expected to be the hardest hit (WEF, 2020). To save the tourism system and draw on the lessons learned from SARS, there is a real need for “researchers to take new approaches” in response to crisis management (Mair et al., 2016: 21).

As of 18 April 2022 there were over 508 million confirmed COVID-19 cases and more than six million coronavirus-related deaths worldwide, with Africa recording over 11 million cases and 253 000 deaths (Reuters, 2022; WHO, 2022). However as of 11 October 2022 there were over 619 million confirmed COVID-19 cases and more than six million coronavirus-related deaths worldwide, with Africa recording over twelve million cases and 257 000 deaths (WHO, 2022; Worldometer, 2022b). Given the rapid spread of the COVID-19 pandemic, there is growing international interest in studying the pandemic and its link to tourism. The remainder of this section focuses on literature on the pandemic and the tourism industry. The impacts of the pandemic on six selected tourism related topics and sectors, namely tourist arrivals, tourism accommodation, restaurants, tourist attractions, brand events and entertainments, and education are discussed in turn. The impact on tourist arrivals is considered first.

### **2.3.1 Tourist arrivals**

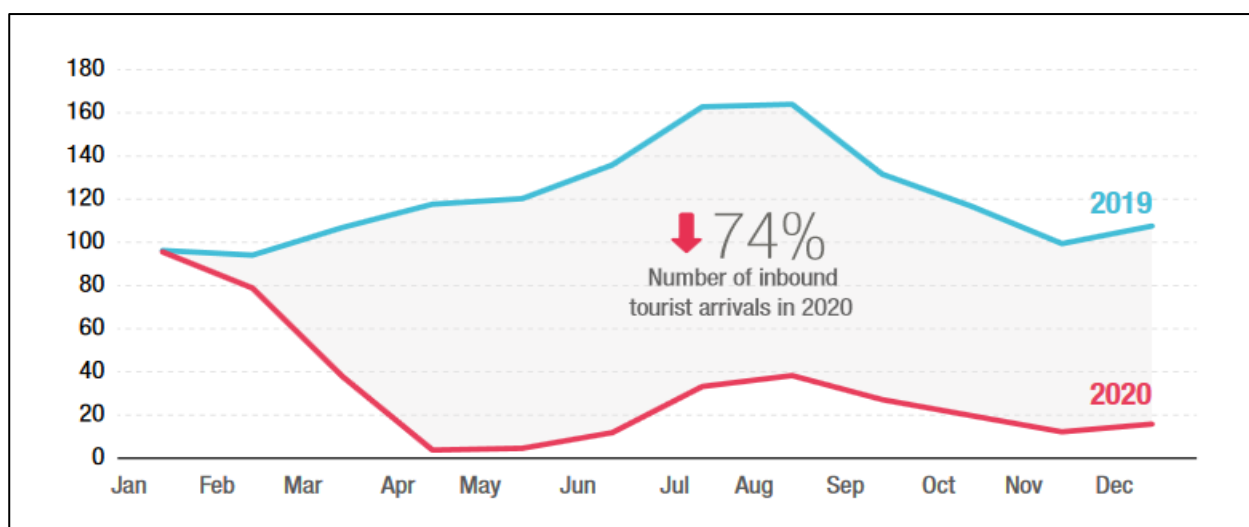
Crises typically impact tourism adversely by significantly reducing tourist arrivals and spending (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2021). For instance, Wen, Huimin & Kavanaugh (2005) and Cahyanto et al., (2016) found significant drop in tourist numbers to China and Africa after the SARS and Ebola outbreaks as well as marked fall in travel orders (Zheng et al., 2021). Similar effects have accompanied the COVID-19 pandemic. Due to the pandemic, governments worldwide set up MROs, policies, guidelines and protocols as preventive actions to combat the virus.

The impacts of the novel coronavirus outbreak have been far-reaching causing many governments across the globe to impose restrictions on non-essential travels, indefinite suspension of travel, work and immigrant visas so leading to a collapse of international travel (Ozili & Arun, 2020; Benton et al., 2021; Lee et al., 2021; Martin & Bergmann, 2021; Milesi-Ferretti, 2021; Silwal et al., 2021; Sommaribas & Nienaber, 2021). Due to the pandemic, most countries placed complete bans on all forms of international travel and shut down all airports in their countries which resulted in the tourism industry momentarily switching from ‘over-tourism to non-tourism’ (Ozili & Arun, 2020; Gössling et al., 2020; Dube, 2021; Dube, Nhamo & Chikodzi, 2021; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021; Visser & Marais, 2021).

During the early outbreaks of the coronavirus pandemic in 2020, most planes flew almost empty due to mass cancellations and ticket refunds. Travel restrictions imposed by governments initially focused on countries with early outbreaks (such as China, Iran and Italy), however the list of countries with

travel restrictions grew over time due to the global spread of the virus (Dube et al., 2021; Silwal et al., 2021). This seriously impacted on air transport and led to a sharp drop and drastic reductions in tourist arrivals due to low travel demand (Dube et al., 2020; Gössling et al., 2020; Ozili & Arun, 2020; Benton et al., 2021; Dube et al., 2021; Silwal et al., 2021). The UNCTAD (2021) reported that in 2020, compared to 2019, inbound tourist arrivals declined by 74% between January and December 2020, amounting to one billion trips (see Figure 2.1). As the restrictions on international travel persisted, the travel shock continued in 2021 (IATA, 2021; Milesi-Ferretti, 2021). Although the airline industry is recovering gradually from the COVID-19 pandemic, the revenue generated has been estimated in 2021 to be only 40% of pre-crisis levels (IATA, 2021).

The availability and rapid spread of the global news and daily updates of cases have facilitated evaluations by tourists of their perceptions and choices to travel following the lifting of travel bans (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021). The information enabled tourists to weigh the perceived risks and the perceived benefits of engaging in tourism activities and it guided their choices of destinations to visit (Mansfeld & Pizam, 2006; Fuchs & Reichel, 2011; Bae & Chang, 2020; Wen, Wang & Kozak, 2020; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021). Researchers has established that tourists' perceptions regarding their safety, health and well-being have continued to increase (Slovic, 2000; Blake & Sinclair 2003; Mansfeld, 2006; Bae & Chang, 2020; Wen et al., 2020; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021). Therefore, one of the central elements of risk perception is the uncertainties in making a travel destination choice (Hsu & Lin, 2006; Bae & Chang, 2020; Wen et al., 2020; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021), especially after the occurrence of an unexpected event that accounts for low arrival rates of tourists at destinations.



Source: UNCTAD (2021: 8, based on UNWTO)

Figure 2.1 Global international tourist arrivals (in thousands)



Before the COVID-19 pandemic, global international tourist arrivals (overnight visitors) grew 4% to 1.5 billion in 2019 (UNWTO, 2020b). In the years before the pandemic Africa had been experiencing increases in tourist arrivals with some 4% in 2019 (UNWTO, 2020b). UNWTO (2021a) records do, however, show that some countries experienced steady growth and increased tourist arrivals while others suffered declines (see Table 2.2). Nigeria received about 1.6 million international visitors in 2010 but no UNWTO records are available for 2018 and 2019. This is most likely connected to over a decade of burgeoning insecurity in the country which tourists tend to avoid unsafe places (Hsu & Lin, 2006; Okoli, 2019; Munshi 2021). South Africa is perceived a safe tourism gateway and pre-COVID-19 received most of the international tourists and tourism revenue owing to the abundance of safe recreational facilities, biodiversity, visual appeal, historical sites of significance, safaris, ecotourism and cultural tourism sites spread across the country (Visser & Rogerson, 2004; Hammett, 2014; Visser & Marais, 2021). In addition to these advantages, South Africa's government continues to promote the nation's tourism offerings and its tourist destination image through responsible tourism growth and strategic branding (Visser & Rogerson, 2004; Hammett, 2014).

Table 2.2 International tourist arrivals and receipts for selected African countries

International tourist arrivals 1000					International tourism receipts (USD million)			
Countries	Series	2010	2018	2019	2010	2018	2019	Share (%)
Ghana	TF	931	1029	1088	620	944	NR	NR
Mauritius	TF	935	1399	1383	1281	1887	1779	4.6
Nigeria	TF	1555	NR	NR	576	1962	1449	3.8
South Africa	TF	8074	10 472	10229	9070	8944	8384	21.8
Tanzania	TF	754	1378	1443	1255	2449	2605	6.8
Uganda	TF	946	1850	NR	784	1506	1463	3.8

Source: Extracted from UNWTO (2021b)

NB: Data as of November 2020

NR= No record

TF = International tourist arrivals at frontiers (overnight visitors, excluding same-day visitors)

UNWTO and World Bank point to a double-digit 22% drop in international tourist arrivals in the first quarter of 2020, with March arrivals down 57% following the start of lockdowns in many countries, widespread travel restrictions and the closure of airports and country borders (UNWTO, 2020b). This represents a loss of 67 million international arrivals in the first quarter of 2020 compared to the same period in 2019 (UNWTO, 2020b). By region, Asia Pacific, the first region to suffer the impact of COVID-19, saw a 35% drop in arrivals in the first quarter of 2020. Europe was the second hardest hit with a decrease of 19%, followed by the Americas (North America, Central America and South

America) (-15%), Africa (-12%) and the Middle East (-11%) (UNWTO, 2020b; WB, 2020a). Without prospective travellers, most airlines suspended operations. The travel restrictions have inflicted a loss of over USD200 billion on the global tourism industry, not counting other revenue losses for tourism travel. A total loss of USD113 billion is forecast for the aviation industry (IATA, 2020).

The UNWTO panel of experts survey found mixed prospects for 2021. Forty-five per cent of respondents saw a brighter outlook for 2021 compared to 2020, when international tourist arrivals fell by 74% due to the travel ban and a drop in demand. About 30% expected worsening outcomes (UNWTO, 2021b). The overall prospects for a recovery in 2021 worsened, with half of respondents expecting a recovery in 2022 and no pre-pandemic levels before 2023. Forty-three per cent of respondents pointed to a return in 2023, while 41% expected a return to 2019 levels in 2024 or later (UNWTO, 2021b). The expanded scenario for 2021-2024 highlighted by UNWTO shows “that it could take between two-and-a-half and four years for international tourism to return to 2019 levels” (UNWTO, 2021b: 1).

However, by December 2021 the UNWTO World Barometer (UNWTO, 2021c) indicated that international tourist arrivals (overnight visitors) increased by 58% in July-September 2021 compared to the same period in 2020. The report also showed that between January and September 2021, global international tourist arrivals fell by 20% compared to 2020 (UNWTO, 2021c). Asia and the Pacific continued to post the weakest results, with a 95% drop in international arrivals compared to 2019. The Middle East (-82%) saw the second largest drop, followed by Europe and Africa (both -77%). The Americas (North, Central and South America) (-68%) saw a comparatively smaller decline. Small islands in the Caribbean, Africa, Asia and the Pacific, along with some European destinations, saw the best performances in June and July 2021, with arrivals approaching or sometimes exceeding pre-pandemic levels (UNWTO, 2021c). Despite these increases, the impacts of the pandemic on tourist arrivals have affected global economies. The tourism accommodation sector was inevitably impacted by the pandemic as discussed next.

### **2.3.2 Tourism accommodation (hotels and guest houses)**

One of the genuine concerns of any traveller is where they would pass the night (for overnight visitors). The tourism accommodation subsector offers shelter for tourists and visitors and provides employment opportunities (Visser & Marais, 2021). The non-pharmaceutical interventions (NPIs) of ‘stay-at-home’, ‘physical and social distancing’ and movement restrictions imposed by the various governments in many countries continue to affect tourism businesses. Tourism accommodation (hotels and guest houses) was affected enormously during the pandemic mainly by the government-announced NPIs that prompted rapid city and state shutdowns to curb the spread of the coronavirus.

This interrupted the supply chain of tourists to accommodation providers and threw many hotels across countries into sudden shock due to sharp decline in occupancy rates (Ozili & Arun, 2020).

The COVID-19 pandemic ‘badly bruised’ the hotel industry (Mensah, 2020; Anunobi, Emeafor, & Okpoko, 2021; Kenny & Dutt, 2021; Ramuni, 2021). Xiang et al., (2022: 1) affirm that “while many hospitality establishments went out of business, those remaining in operation face a sharp decline in customers, increased prevention costs and staff safety management.” There were massive hotel booking cancellations across the world worth billions of dollars which led to a liquidity crisis, and the hotel industry sought a USD150 billion bailout (Muller, 2020). Most hotel managers in North America, Europe, Asia Pacific and much of the rest of the world have had to take furloughs and lay off staff as they temporarily close their businesses due to the sudden decline in patronage. In the UK, about “1 650 000 employees in the sector were on furlough representing 25% of all furloughed employees. However, in June 2021 the number of employees in the sector remained 11% below the levels of February 2020” (Ramuni, 2021: 1).

Kaushal & Srivastava (2021) found that in India, the accommodation sector has faced significant job losses, enforced pay cuts and permanent or indefinite leave without pay. Italy recorded a booking cancellation rate of 80% to 90% of all hotels in Rome and Sicily. Between March and June 2020 hotel occupancy in Spain fell by 91%. Hotel occupancy for the summer and autumn seasons registered an aggregate drop of 72% and 83% respectively (Hidalgo et al., 2022). Hotel occupancy rates in Ghana dropped to under 30% from a record of 70%. In the USA, hotel occupancy fell to 25% after falling 11.6% in the week ended March 7, 2020 (Mensah, 2020; Visser & Marais, 2021).

Tourism Economics (2020 cited in García-Gómez et al., 2021: 1) reported that some “4.6 million hotel room nights were lost in 2020 in the U.S. - 8.1 million total through 2024, with states and cities around the country feeling the impact.” In Nigeria the low purchasing power and the harsh economic realities caused by the pandemic resulted in low patronage of accommodation establishments. The average room occupancy rate per month in Nigeria was below 20% (Anunobi et al., 2021). In South Africa 96% of guest houses faced business disruptions with 75% experiencing a decline in income (Sucheran, 2021). The 2020 UNWTO report found that the hotel industry experienced a double-digit decline in global revenue per available room (RevPar) across all world regions. Asia recorded -67.8%, North America -53.4%, Central America -58.8%, Northern Africa -59.4%, Southern Africa -43.3%, Middle East -57.4%, Australia and Oceania -43.3% and then Europe -61.7%. Globally, the hotel industry lost a combined 75% of bookings in 2020 compared to 2019 (UNWTO, 2020e). The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the hotel industry have been devastating. Despite the interconnectedness of the industry with other subsectors of the tourism industry, the loss of

accommodation bookings inevitably rebounded on the restaurant subsector of the hospitality industry. This is examined next.

### **2.3.3 Restaurants**

The hospitality industry, of which restaurants are a crucial part, is prone to crises and disasters (Dube et al., 2020; Song, Yeon & Lee, 2021; Visser & Marais, 2021). Despite the inability of most small- and medium-sized restaurants to survive their first four years of activity, restaurants contribute generously to the economy of a destination, region or country (Madeira, Palrão & Mendes, 2021). One of the major considerations of tourists while visiting any destination is what to eat and where to get what they want to eat while socially interacting with friends and even strangers (Wan et al., 2022). The local cuisine available at a restaurant is a primary appealing attribute that contributes to the experiences that influence travellers' satisfaction with visits to tourism destinations. The linking of food to tourism has increased the demand and competitiveness in destinations' products and services "especially those with greater gastronomic presence" (Madeira et al., 2021: 2).

Although restaurants have experienced and survived crises (SARS and terrorist attacks) in recent decades, the COVID-19 pandemic has had a devastating effect on the sector by impacting thousands of people whose livelihood depends on this industry (Madeira et al., 2021; Byrd et al., 2022). Recent research on the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the restaurant industry reveals that "depending on the duration of the pandemic until the re-establishment of normality, in the best-case scenario, thousands of people will lose their jobs due to cost reductions and that, in the worst-case scenario, thousands of spaces, whether recently opened or older, may permanently cease activity" (Madeira et al., 2021: 2). The global restaurant industry has suffered tremendous impact under this pandemic. Many customers, especially in Asia-Pacific, Europe and the Americas (North, Central and South America), stayed at home, preferring to eat home-cooked meals because of the high numbers of confirmed cases in Italy, Spain, France, China, South Korea and the USA.

With the onset of the pandemic, demand for restaurant services plummeted precipitously forcing small restaurants to remain closed due to the unprecedented global economic effects of travel restrictions and lockdown (Elshaer, 2021; Xu et al., 2022). Some restaurant managers have criticized their governments for enforcing stay-at-home and social distancing policies that have played an "essential role in people's economic activities, changing their attitudes and habits towards specific sectors" (Gunay & Kurtulmus, 2021: 3). This has further been termed a 'new normal' (Baum & Hai, 2020) that created a black swan effect (Nicola et al., 2020) which has destroyed many small restaurants in small towns (Edwards, 2020; Tucker & Yu, 2020).

Governments' "stay-at-home announcements and social distancing measures were an indirect way of telling people not to come into pubs (drinking establishments), hotels and restaurants, which was a way of silently destroying the hospitality industry during the pandemic" (Edwards, 2020: 1). Many hotels in the US, UK and some European countries announced the temporary suspension of normal operations, which then resulted in an estimated loss of "24.3 million jobs worldwide and 3.9 million jobs in the USA alone due to the drop in hotel occupancy during the pandemic" (Elshaer, 2021: 1). In Egypt, over 200 000 jobs were lost due to business closures and declines in sales. Restaurants' full services and casual dining segments experienced the most deterioration at more than 50% (Elshaer, 2021). The economic impact of the coronavirus pandemic on the hotel and restaurant industry has been assessed as "more severe than the 9/11 and 2008 recessions combined" (AHLA, 2020: 1).

In retort to the emergent crisis of the pandemic, tourism businesses are adapting to various business strategies, namely restructuring and downsizing which has resulted in extreme blows to the livelihoods of the majority of workers in the restaurant industry (Gössling, Scott & Hall, 2020; Hao, Xiao & Chon, 2020; Alonso et al., 2022); cost reductions of business operations (Kim & Lee, 2020); adoption of new technologies (contactless) (Baum et al., 2020; Trunfio & Pasquinelli, 2021; El-Said & Al Hajri, 2022); and strict compliance with hygiene guidelines and protocols (Sigala, 2020; Visser & Marais, 2021). But these strategies involve layoffs, profit losses and cost cuts which necessitated appeals for urgent relief and stimulus packages for restaurants and hotels to cushion the adverse impacts on these businesses (Dube et al., 2020). The economic impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the restaurant industry have been severe and tourist attractions are a vital component of the tourism industry which the pandemic has affected as well. This is examined next.

#### **2.3.4 Tourist attractions**

The tourism destinations of countries around the world welcomed 1.5 billion people in 2019 and the industry was "almost too big to fail for many destinations and economies" (Behsudi, 2020: 38). However, the industry has since 2020 been pushed to the edge of chaos by the COVID-19 pandemic and destinations continue to be disproportionately affected by the pandemic. These impacts are evident "from the white beaches of the Caribbean, Seychelles, Mauritius, and the Pacific to the back streets of Bangkok, to Africa's sweeping national parks, [and now] countries are grappling with how to lure back visitors while avoiding new outbreaks of infection" (Behsudi, 2020: 37).

Tourism destinations in Italy, the fifth most popular tourist destination in the world, were shut down to visitors due to the pandemic as Italy became the epicentre of COVID-19 after China (Bremner, 2020). Over 65 million international arrivals and more than 65 million domestic trips to various cultural heritage and museum sites and destinations, and USD14 billion worth of receipts from

shopping by international visitors in Italy in 2020 were lost due to the pandemic. The travel forecast model for Italy showed arrivals to destinations fell by 11.2% from the baseline forecast for 2020, resulting in a drop of approximately eight million arrivals and USD5.7 billion in revenue (Bremner, 2020).

Before the pandemic, tourism accounted for almost 8% of France's GDP (Ng, 2020). Despite being one of the most visited countries in the world, France is popular for tours “(89.4 million visitors toured France in 2018) and welcomed 2.7 million Chinese tourists each year”, tourist attractions and destinations in France suffered huge declines in 2020 (Ng, 2020: 1). During the first year of the pandemic, international tourist arrivals fell to 300 million from 1.5 billion in 2019 costing the global tourism industry 272 billion euros in lost revenue (Ng, 2020).

Canada is a globally-connected destination and China is Canada's second largest overseas market with nearly 800 000 arrivals. Chinese tourists alone in 2019 generated C\$2 billion annually for Canada spending more than C\$2800 per trip (Joppe, 2020). Visitors to various tourist attractions in Canada and sales at the Vancouver International Airport - a major thoroughfare for tourists visiting the country from Asia - fell 50% as announced by tourism minister Melanie Joly (Ljunggren & Paglinawan, 2020).

The largest inbound market in Australia is China accounting for 1.5 million arrivals in 2019 with 9.4 million short-term visitors representing A\$12.3 billion in annual tourism receipts to Australia (TTF, 2020). Tourism attractions and destinations in Australia at the time of the COVID-19 pandemic have “been directly in the firing line as tourism is already on its knees” (TTF, 2020: 2). This is mainly attributed to the decline in spending by Chinese visitors, most of whom are students. Chinese tourists alone generated A\$7.1 billion annually for Australia, spending A\$9235 per trip (TTF, 2020). Sultana, Islam & Islam (2020: 48) report that the exit ban imposed by the Chinese government on many regions in China, combined with the Australian government’s entry ban on those arriving “from China and on those who had travelled through China, resulted in a total loss of Chinese visitors” to Australia thereby impacting devastatingly on Australian tourism destinations and attractions (Gössling et al., 2020). Despite the huge financial losses experienced by popular tourism destinations, tourist attractions and brand events are considered change catalysts for tourism businesses. Brand events play crucial roles in enhancing destination attractiveness. How brand events fared during the pandemic is discussed next.

### **2.3.5 Brand events and entertainment**

The events sector is a significant contributor to the economies of many countries, counting more than 1.5 billion attendees in around 180 countries and generating USD1.07 trillion in “spending, which

includes spending on business event planning, business event production, travel related to business events and direct expenses” of exhibitors (Oxford Economics, 2018: 1). Based on business sales, the business events sector is by comparison “larger than consumer electronics, computers and office equipment” (EIC, 2020: 1). The events industry generated USD2.5 trillion in direct and indirect spending through business events, contributed USD1.5 trillion to the global GDP, employed 26 million people with direct or indirect jobs in the industry and accounted for USD704 average spending by participants of business events (EIC, 2020).

The coronavirus has severely damaged this industry, which has been financially hit by countless “cancellations of exhibitions, live music shows, conferences, weddings, parties, corporate events, brand launches, trade shows” and more (Ozili & Arun, 2020: 14). The 2020 Met Gala that was to be held at the USA was postponed indefinitely and several major events were cancelled, such as the electronic entertainment expo (E3) and the South by Southwest (SXSW) technical and exhibition events in the creative and interactive industries, which led to direct losses beyond USD1 billion (Ozili & Arun, 2020). This has led to many large event management companies, financially impacted by the coronavirus outbreak, turning to their various governments for federal recovery assistance. The outbreak’s impact on live global events has been exacerbated by the social distancing policies imposed by most governments.

As of March 2020, the global film industry had already suffered a USD5 billion loss during the coronavirus outbreak, with 120,000 jobs lost from its 150,000 members. The International Alliance of Theatre Stage Employees (IATSE) reported that an estimated “120,000 entertainment industry jobs were lost due to the coronavirus pandemic, most of which were theatre stage employees” (Schiff, 2020: 1). In the USA “several Hollywood movie productions were postponed indefinitely”, so shutting the doors to theatres and cinemas (Statista, 2020: 1). In Italy “the entertainment industry incurred losses running into millions of euros just in the week February 23 to March 1, 2020” (Statista, 2020: 1).

In addition, in Italy “there were estimated losses of 7.3 million euros in the film screening sector, 7.2 million euros in the theatre segment, 4.1 million euros in the live music segment, 2.5 million euros in the dance activities segment and 1.8 million euros in the exhibition sector segment” (Statista, 2020: 1). In the UK, 50 000 freelancers lost their jobs and 71% of freelancers in the creative industries feared they could not pay their bills because they lost their job due to the coronavirus (BECTU, 2020). The film and television industries worldwide experienced a near-total shutdown, “with thousands of mostly freelance crews laid off on short notice with little or no financial compensation” (*The Guardian*, 2020a: 1). Numerous productions, from studio recordings to independent films, were discontinued (*The Guardian*, 2020a). There were similarly large increases in unemployment figures

in the entertainment industry, but there was uncertainty “as to whether the entertainment industry would receive part of the proposed federal stimulus package, as the entertainment industry was not seen as the main driver of the economy” compared to travel, finance, business and manufacturing sectors (Statista, 2020: 1).

The UNCTAD 2021 simulations of estimated global losses in employment due to coronavirus-induced declines in tourist arrivals are illustrated in Figure 2.2. These losses are indicative of the varying “proportion of unskilled labour employed in the tourism industry and the extent to which the tourism sector is hit in a specific economy” (UNCTAD, 2021: 17). The simulations were based on three scenarios consistent with the UNWTO (2021) projections for 2021 (cited in UNCTAD, 2021: 13). Thus:

The first scenario [1] is a reduction in tourist arrivals as observed in 2020. Reductions averaged 74 per cent with considerable variation between countries. This average reduction is close to 75 per cent reduction in UNWTO’S pessimistic scenario. The second scenario [2] is a reduction in arrivals averaging 63 per cent, which the UNWTO sees as an optimistic outcome in 2021. The third scenario [3] takes into account varying rates of vaccination and assumes a 75 per cent reduction in countries with low vaccination rates, and 37 per cent reduction in countries with relatively high vaccination rates.

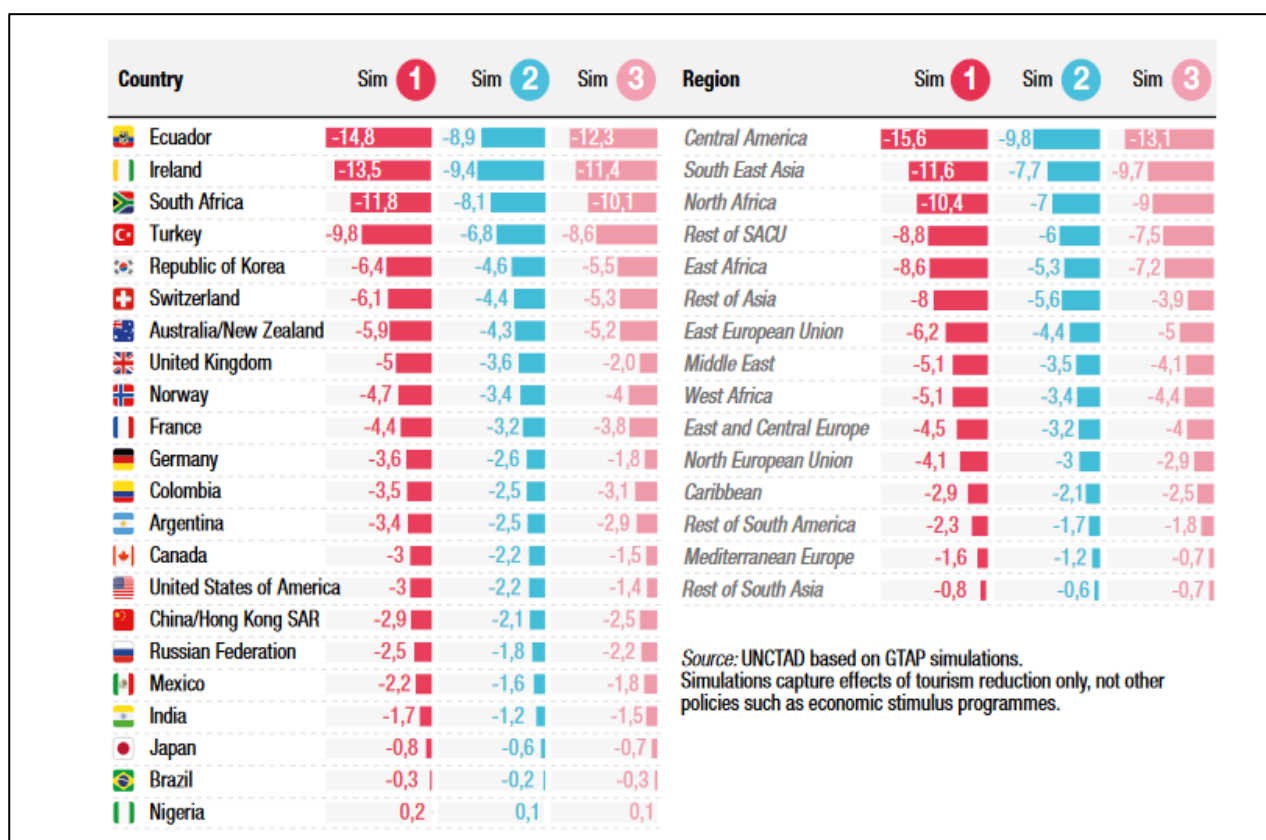


Figure 2.2 Estimated percentage losses due to the coronavirus pandemic in the employment of unskilled labour by country and region



All the destinations listed in Figure 2.2 experienced losses in employment according to the simulations except for Nigeria. The simulation results for all the regions show a negative trend that is indicative of the global fall in direct tourism jobs (UNCTAD, 2021). As many brand events and entertainment had to re-evaluate, adapt and figure out how to promote tourism in the midst of the COVID-19 pandemic, schooling and educational tourism also suffered a huge blow.

### **2.3.6 Education**

The conventional point of view sees foreign students as tourists being part of educational tourism. This category of tourists classes students as temporary migrants from their countries to other countries and continents in search of educational possibilities. In doing so they contribute financially to the economy of their host nations (Donaldson & Gatsinzi, 2005). However, the impact of the pandemic on the education industry has disrupted the higher education industry, with higher education locations such as Canada, the UK and the USA collectively losing billions in education revenue (UNESCO, 2020). Many international students either dropped out “or had to return home, while other international students looked elsewhere for a quick education when travel restrictions prevented them from studying in Canada, the UK or the USA during the outbreak” (Nicola et al., 2020: 186). There have also been school closures on every continent, with millions of students worldwide facing disruption. Educators, students and schoolchildren everywhere felt the impact of the coronavirus as colleges, universities and schools were ordered to close after the coronavirus was declared a public health emergency in most countries (Nicola et al., 2020; Ozili & Arun, 2020).

A study by the World Bank showed that seven million school children faced the risk of dropping out of primary through secondary school globally because of the financial shock of COVID-19. This figure was obtained from the simulation results of 157 countries. The simulations showed that considering the different lengths of school closures (three, five and seven months) and the different levels of mitigation effectiveness (mostly distance learning), the global levels of schooling and learning resulted in optimistic, intermediate and pessimistic global scenario (WB, 2020b).

The report further revealed that COVID-19 resulted in a quality-adjusted loss of 0.3 to 0.9 years of schooling, increasing the effective years of primary education students would achieve over their lifetime from 7.9 years to between 7.0 and 7.6 years. Also, five months of global school closures caused USD10 trillion worth of losses with a drop in annual global revenue from education spending (USD1408 to USD355) (WB, 2020b).

The UN Secretary-General, Antonio Guterres disclosed on 4 August 2020 that one billion children had by mid-July 2020 had their schooling disrupted because of the pandemic (Lederer, 2020). Granted, the schooling crisis existed long before the pandemic, but COVID-19 amplified it. Guterres

was reported to argue that the world was faced with “a generational catastrophe that could waste untold human potential, undermine decades of progress and exacerbate entrenched inequalities” (Guterres 2020 cited by Lederer, 2020: 1). Guterres further opined that the world was faced with a ‘learning crisis’ as caused by the pandemic “with more than 250 million children out of school and only a quarter of secondary school youngsters in developing countries would leave school with basic skills” (Guterres, 2020 cited by Lederer, 2020: 1).

Schools that did not have an online learning platform faced serious consequences from the pandemic (Lederer, 2020). Moodys, a credit rating agency, has downgraded the outlook for higher education in the USA from stable to negative because “30% of USA universities were already experiencing poor operating performance, making it difficult for those institutions to adapt to the financial and academic changes required of the outbreak of coronavirus disrupting university education for at least 290.5 million students worldwide” (UNESCO, 2020: 1). Most public schools in the USA were closed, Australia closed some schools, while Israel, Italy, France, Spain, Nigeria, South Africa and Egypt closed all schools. No doubt, this created unemployment for teachers whose schools in certain countries in Africa were not on any form of online teaching and learning platforms due to the inaccessibility of electricity and internet facilities in rural communities (UNESCO, 2020). The “Northern Ireland government suspended all exams at its colleges and universities, while several US-based universities running study abroad programs abroad instructed their students to return home from Italy, France and Spain as the coronavirus outbreak hit those countries” and other parts of the country became serious (Lederer, 2020: 1).

The coronavirus outbreak, according to Guterres (Guterres, 2020 cited by Lederer, 2020: no page) provided ‘a generational opportunity to reimagine education, which “increased the importance of online education and distance learning”. The reality is that only a small percentage of global education is taught online (ERAS, 2020). For example, in the USA as of fall 2019, approximately 2.4 million students (15% of the county's total undergraduate students) studied entirely online (ERAS, 2020). For some reason, even before the outbreak of COVID-19, global adoption of online education was clearly low, and the outbreak was unlikely to result in a shift from traditional classroom training to online education (Nicola et al., 2020; Ozili & Arun, 2020). Moreover, the number of schools that can arrange distance learning programmes for their students is small and this may not change soon as many African countries will find it difficult to migrate to such platforms (AU, 2020; Ozili & Arun, 2020).

The COVID-19 pandemic has led to subsequent declines in tourism and travel, which has had a significant economic impact on the volume and direction of tourism flows. The impact of the pandemic on the tourism industry has been described as damaging (Assaf & Scuderi, 2020). This

argument is supported by Karabulut et al. (2020) and Dolnicar and Zare (2020). Fotiadis et al. (2021: 2) thus argue that:

From a business perspective, a good understanding of the effects of the pandemic is likely to provide the actors of the tourism industry substantial insights on how to build and implement effective decision-making frameworks that can, in turn, ensure rapid responses to unanticipated events that threaten the financial sustainability of their businesses. From a policy-making perspective, epidemic outbreaks not only represent a serious public health crisis that challenges governments, but also the underlying economic downturns resulting from the epidemic outbreaks necessitate myriad of fiscal, monetary, and supply-side measures for full recovery.

Consequently, a decline in tourism and travel is expected as a consequent of the pandemic (Sharma & Nicolau, 2020; Fotiadis et al., 2021) and how governments have tackled the pandemic effects is discussed in the next section.

## **2.4 COVID-19: GLOBAL RESPONSES**

Severally, disease outbreaks have been experienced globally (Karabulut et al., 2020). However, scholars argue that the COVID-19 pandemic “remain the world’s deadliest epidemic outbreak that comes [sic] along with a systemic global healthcare crisis, financial crisis, and economic downturn known as COVID-19 recession” (Fotiadis et al., 2021: 1). Sharma & Nicolau (2020) support the argument that the COVID-19 pandemic plunged the economy of countries into a severe economic crisis that led governments to drafting of economic recovery plans. This section focuses on the global responses to the pandemic.

### **2.4.1 Government responses to the COVID-19 pandemic and the effects on tourism businesses**

The outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic has uncovered the tourism industry, which has long been a contributor to national economies, particularly in developing countries, where it creates job opportunities, stimulates regional development and attracts foreign exchange (Jenkins, 1982, cited in De Sausmarez, 2004). The pandemic’s debilitating impacts on the survival and functionality of the tourism industry are crucially affecting the vital contributions by the sector that is undergoing an overhaul of operations (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021; Visser & Marais, 2021). A ‘tsunami’ of research undertaken so far on the pandemic (Persson-Fischer & Liu, 2021; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021) is highlighting the responses of national governments across the world. In the following subsection some insights from the literature into the responses of governments in the Global North are examined.

### 2.4.1.1 Responses to the COVID-19 pandemic: The Global North

The concepts of Global North and Global South are used to describe a grouping of countries according to their socio-economic and political characteristics (Odeh, 2010; Collyer, 2018). The Global North is the designation of regions that are historically industrialized and urbanized representing the economically developed societies of Europe, North America, Australia and Israel (Stimson & Stough, 2008; Odeh, 2010; Pike, Rodriguez-Pose & Tomaney, 2013). Global diversities between countries dictate that the COVID-19 pandemic has and is still affecting each state to varying degrees with diverse responses by states in the Global North (Makau, 2021).

The *South Korean government* quickly recognized the threat the outbreak would pose to their nation and economy and coined the name ‘Korean model’ for the emergency management for the pandemic (Lee & Lee, 2020). In addition to NPIs and restrictive nationwide lockdowns, a draconian control of people’s movements was enforced (Kim, Cho & Hur, 2020). The Korean model is a response for democracies to contain the virus spread while keeping the economy open (Kim et al., 2020; Ha, 2022). To stimulate economic growth the South Korean government allocated KRW85 trillion in emergency funding to stabilize key sectors to prevent major industries from collapsing. Investments and payment guarantees have been provided to support businesses (KPMG, 2020g). KRW35 trillion was added to the KRW100 trillion emergency funding already available for measures to expand support for micro-entrepreneurs, corporate bond purchases and provide liquidity support for companies with poor credit ratings. The government has also invested KRW10 trillion in emergency measures to secure jobs with a VAT exemption for companies with annual revenues of KRW60 million or less (TMF Group, 2020).

In *Italy* the government implemented public health and containment measures through the lockdown of the entire country. Some municipalities opted out of the restrictive lockdown measures which resulted in staggering death rates and legal hassles (Falkenbach & Caiani, 2021). However, intervention for the tourism industry finally came about when the government announced approval of “a €55 billion stimulus package aimed at helping Italy's struggling businesses and struggling families survive the pandemic” (Fonte & Balmer, 2020: 1). The stimulus package that followed USD25 billion included “a mix of grants and tax breaks to help businesses weather the downturn. It also offered assistance to families, including childcare grants and incentives to boost the devastated tourism sector” (Fonte & Balmer, 2020: 1). Interventions for access to liquidity for short-term survival, reduced labour costs to allow companies to hire new employees, the introduction of unemployment benefits for employees who lost their jobs during the lockdown and measures to reduce spending were proposed (Del Chiappa, Bregoli & Fotiadis, 2021).

*Ireland* experienced economic disruption from the COVID-19 pandemic (Kennelly et al., 2020). The pandemic’s impact on the Irish tourism industry has been ‘cataclysmic’ according to Andrews (2021)

due to Ireland's heavy dependence on international visitors. Unemployment reached 28% in April 2020 and more than 100 000 jobs were lost despite government support in the form of a wage subsidy scheme and business continuity grants (CSO (central statistics office), 2020; Andrews, 2021). As a means of support for the tourism industry "Failte Ireland, the state agency responsible for the development of tourism, indicated that 23% of every euro spent by a visitor is returned directly to the exchequer through tourism-related taxes" (Andrews, 2021: 1). The government provided income support in the form of pandemic unemployment benefits of €350 a week to people who had lost their jobs due to the pandemic (Beirne et al., 2020; Kennelly et al., 2020). In order to "boost aviation and tourism, and to support the hundreds of thousands of jobs they sustain", the government also considered incentivizing the stimulation of traffic for airlines by providing a direct rebate to airlines (Andrews, 2021: 1).

In the *United Kingdom* the government implemented several initiatives and incentives to facilitate the safe reopening of the tourism sector (UK Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport, 2021). The initiatives include £12 billion for the COVID-19 job retention program, £5 billion for bounce-back loans, a temporary VAT reduction on hospitality, lodging and attractions and funds to support communities dependent on tourism (Newson, 2021; Jones, 2022). Other measures include COVID-19-secure guidance for visitors, for local authorities on organized events and for tourism businesses. "VisitEngland, in collaboration with the National Tourist Boards, launched the 'We're Good to Go' COVID-19 secure industry standard. A £10 million kick-start tourism package was introduced in the summer of 2020 to provide tourism businesses with funding to adapt to the pandemic (UK Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport, 2021: 21). A "£50-million 'reopening-high-streets safely' fund provided for councils to support safe reopening measures. A £56-million welcome-back fund was announced by the government in March 2021 to help councils prepare for the safe return of shoppers and tourists, including employing of extra staff to keep festivals and events COVID-19 secure" (UK Department for Digital, Culture, Media & Sport, 2021: 23).

In *Luxembourg* the TMF Group (2020) reported business aid schemes covering up to 50% of rental costs, with a cap of €10 000 per month per company (European Commission, 2022). This financial aid was intended to encourage companies with high funding rates (up to 50% of eligible costs) to carry out business development projects, digitization and environmental protection. The aid scheme was aimed at companies that suffered lost sales during the crisis. Retail companies received direct, non-refundable aid under the retail company aid scheme. The amount of support was €500 to €1000 per employee. During the pandemic, when workers suffered partial unemployment, the state paid a compensation payment of up to 80% of wages (IMF, 2021). A non-repayable recovery and solidarity fund for businesses in the tourism, hotel and catering sectors has been set up to promote and preserve

jobs and support these businesses. An additional €3 million tourism fund has been set up to support non-profit associations dedicated to tourism. The fund made contributions towards remuneration costs and operating costs. The direct monthly allowance was €1250 per single-job worker and €250 per part-time worker. To support the self-employed, the government approved an emergency compensation of €2500. There were no penalties for late filing of VAT returns as the VAT authorities refunded all positive balances up to an amount of €10 000 to meet the cash flow needs of around 20 000 companies in Luxembourg (TMF Group, 2020; IMF, 2021).

In the *United States of America* Congress passed the Consolidated Appropriations Act of 2021, which provided \$900 billion in economic stimulus to deal with the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic (Hazinski & Hansel, 2021). President Joe Biden also released the 2021 national strategy for the COVID-19 response (Biden, 2021). In Biden's national strategy applying to businesses, a multilingual outreach campaign was conducted to inform workers of their rights to protection by their employers. Workers who went into quarantine and isolation receive paid leave and no worker had to choose between earning a pay check and getting the vaccine (Biden, 2021). A national pledge was introduced that businesses ensure their employees and contractors can take paid time off to get vaccinated. The government provided guidance and support to safely open businesses as a way of maintaining safe business operations during the pandemic (Aharon et al., 2021). The president added that the recent COVID-19 supplemental stimulus package provided \$350 billion bailout for state and local governments and an additional \$285 billion for the Pay-check Protection Program to provide loans to small businesses to cover the costs of operating safely (Biden, 2021). This round of stimuli "provides more targeted relief to key industry partners in the tourism and travel industries" that have suffered financial fallout spurred by the pandemic (Hazinski & Hansel, 2021: 1).

The COVID-19 pandemic shook the world in different measures with different responses. Clearly, governments in the Global North mobilized financial resources and unprecedented policies to curb the devastations of the virus and the ways in which the pandemic was handled in the Global South is reported next.

#### **2.4.1.2 Responses to the COVID-19 pandemic: The Global South**

The Global South is agrarian-based and depends economically and politically on the Global North. The Global South countries have been described as countries and regions that are historically and economically backward, representing the economically dependent societies of Africa, Asia and Latin America. The Global South is generally poorer developing countries with fragile democracies dependent on primary sector exports and they share a history of past colonialism by the Global North

(Pike, Rodriguez-Pose & Tomaney, 2013; Saad-Filho & Ayers, 2020; Palalar, Ozbilgin & Kamasak, 2022). Due to low levels of wealth and high dependency, the COVID-19 pandemic challenged the health and economic sectors of the Global South which are reflected in the responses of the countries to this transnational threat to populations and livelihoods (Alden & Dunst, 2021).

The Global South was not left out on the ravaging impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic (Baum & Hai, 2020). Given the overwhelming spread of the virus, communities in the Global South witnessed major threats, especially communities in Africa (Rogerson & Baum, 2020; Makau, 2021). Most iconic tourism attractions in the Global South were shut down as the “deserted pyramids of Egypt lit up at night messaging people to ‘stay home, stay safe’, motionless cable cars at Cape Town’s table mountain, the cessation of tours along Ghana’s forts and castles as well as empty safari lodges across several countries in Eastern and Southern Africa are powerful symbols of COVID-19 ravages” on the economy of countries of the Global South (Rogerson & Baum, 2020: 728).

*China’s* swift response to the pandemic was an immediate adoption of the similar response approach applied during the SARS pandemic through the “traditional public health interventions, such as case detection and isolation, close contact tracing and quarantining, social distancing, screening of travellers, implementation of infection prevention guidelines, and enhanced control in healthcare settings” (Li et al., 2021: 1). After the rapid spread of the virus from Wuhan to other cities in China and much later worldwide, China initiated a 76-day lockdown in Wuhan along with other stringent containment strategies, including the banning of most foreign visitors. This affected the healthcare system and economy of China (WHO, 2020c; Li et al., 2021; Yu & Li, 2021; Hasib & Sekercioglu, 2022; Hu, Li & Dong, 2022).

China had to introduce some coping mechanisms and measures (He et al., 2021). Struggling businesses were allowed by the Chinese government to defer payment of income taxes. Small companies with “low profit margins were allowed to defer corporate tax payments from May 1 to December 31, 2020 until the first filing deadline in 2021” (KPMG, 2020: 1). Individual business owners were also granted the same grace period. Household businesses were granted further VAT relief, “extending the loss carry-forward period from five to eight years for hard-hit sectors such as transportation, hospitality and tourism, and reducing or saving large amounts of yuan (¥600 billion) of employers’ contributions to the old-age pension, unemployment and workplace insurance schemes” (TMF, 2020: 1).

China, through the State Council, has issued a guideline for employment recovery and stabilization of the impact of the pandemic (Lin et al., 2022). These included prioritizing employment, helping migrant workers return to work, expanding job opportunities for college students, and ensuring social security. This was announced alongside an approximately USD7.6 billion “financial reform package

to support smaller businesses, facilitate a steady economic recovery and ensure stability in key areas, including employment and people's livelihoods" (KPMG, 2020: 1). To encourage the development of new business models and flexible employment, China offered financial institutions 3.55 trillion yuan in low-cost capital to boost credit for start-ups and boost mass entrepreneurship and innovation. More than ¥100 billion additional transferred loans were made available to small and medium-sized banks, especially online-only banks, to alleviate financing difficulties of small and micro businesses and lower their funding costs (KPMG, 2020). This has been compounded by reductions in small business rents by centralized Chinese companies to lower operating costs for small businesses (Lin et al., 2022; Yu & Li, 2021). The government also promotes domestic and rural tourism by facilitating the recovery of the rural tourism market through the construction of infrastructure and the introduction of quality rural tourism routes (TMF, 2020).

*Brazil* is among the countries hardest hit by the pandemic and it was an epicentre in South America of the pandemic (with over 500 000 deaths until 9 August 2021) (Salazar, 2022). Although the Brazilian "government's denial of science and, consequently, of the seriousness of the pandemic to the health and wellbeing of Brazilians has led to a failure to coordinate, promote, and finance internationally sanctioned public health measures" (Ferigato et al., 2020: 1). This ineptitude enhanced the widespread diffusion of the virus throughout the country (Kerr & Kendall, 2021; Segatto et al., 2022). The eventual realization of the severity of the pandemic on national and global economies led the government to announce an economic stimulus package of R\$750 billion (KPMG, 2020c). This was intended to support small, micro and medium-sized businesses by introducing a wage finance line that provided loans of up to 30% of their gross earnings. The loan amount reached R\$16 billion. The Operational Guarantee Fund (FGO) received R\$15 billion, increasing the fund's budget to R\$18 billion. This fund covered "up to 85% of losses that would eventually stop payments to financial institutions that lend to micro and small businesses" (TMF, 2020: 1).

The Brazilian government also invested R\$20 billion in the newly launched investment guarantee fund (FGI) to further cover investments and working capital credit lines. The Brazilian Senate approved using input tax funds to combat the impact of COVID-19 by approving a bill that allocated a portion of the amount to pay federal input taxes (input taxes are public debt recognized following a court decision) (TMF, 2020). The base interest rate was also lowered by 0.5% to 3.75%. The National Bank for Economic and Social Development (BNDES) has granted R\$3.3 billion in loans to 2374 small and medium-sized enterprises to sustain around 193 000 jobs. Up to R\$4 billion in loan support has been provided for basic emergency income support, emergency employment and income support programmes and unemployment insurance (TMF, 2020). In addition, companies have been supported in various ways by the federal government. For example, credit lines have been approved for



companies with revenues between R\$230 000 and R\$10 million. The measure was put in place to fund payroll for two months and at a cost of R\$20 billion a month, it helped save and sustain jobs during the crisis. In order to help the unemployed and individual micro-entrepreneurs, an emergency aid of R\$600 per person per month has been approved by the government (TMF, 2020).

The COVID-19 pandemic was confirmed to have reached *Chile* on March 3, 2020, with cases originally imported from Southeast Asia and Europe (Mendéz, 2021). These early cases escalated into a larger number of untraceable infections, pushing the country into phase four of the pandemic (Reuters, 2020a). Chile has had one of the worst outbreaks in the world and the impact of the pandemic has been devastating in the South American country at a time when the nation was experiencing protests and riots, and confronted by unprecedented social, economic, and cultural conflicts, the subway fare increase that began in October 2019 being one example (Court & Correa, 2020). The riots left almost one third of supermarkets in the country in vandalized or looted states, turning the city centre into a war zone of smashed lights, debris, burnt-out buildings and miscellaneous graffiti (Fuentes & Sanders, 2020; Rocío & Tim, 2021). To avoid an escalation of such disturbances during the pandemic, the government hastily established non-pharmaceutical interventions (NPIs) which Chileans described as not untimely and inappropriate (Romero, 2021). The NPIs hit the country's economy adversely. Unemployment reached 9%, a ten-year high, the GDP shrank by 5.8% in 2020 (the largest recession in 40 years) leading to severe food shortages in Santiago (Reuters, 2020b; Gozzi et al., 2021).

To protect labour income, employment and SMEs, the Chilean government has suspended the monthly provisional payment (PPM) of corporate income tax for three months and postponed the payment of VAT for three months for all companies with annual sales below 350,000 Chilean pesos (CLP\$) and permitted payment in 12 monthly instalments at 0% interest rate (TMF, 2020). The Family Income Initiative was set up as an emergency arrangement for social security and job recovery which extended benefits of up to CLP\$100 000 per person. The government announced a CLP\$12 billion stimulus package and released an additional CLP\$4.5 billion to mitigate the effects of the pandemic (Fuentes & Sanders, 2020; TMF, 2020). This should ensure the sustainability of employment through the Employment Protection Act, which was introduced to protect families' labour income, guarantee employment and "labour rights such as the payment of contributions by employers" (KPMG, 2020: 1). Reactivation programs to help restore the 1.8 million jobs lost during the pandemic and global recession have been announced by the government. Job subsidies were announced, benefiting up to a million people and costing the government nearly USD2 billion (TMF, 2020).

Of all the communicable diseases that have ever affected *Malaysia* since the 1918 Flu, COVID-19 has impacted most severely on the nation's healthcare (Hashim et al.2021; Umair, Waqas & Faheem, 2021). This slowed down business activities and seriously impacted on the Malaysian economy. To reduce the negative impact of the COVID-19 pandemic, the Malaysian government announced an emergency package that is among the largest in the world (Hanafiah et al., 2021; Umair et al., 2021). The government implemented the People's Economic Stimulus Fund (PRIHATIN) package worth RM250 billion, the RM10 billion PRIHATIN supplementary package and the RM35 billion National Economic Recovery Plan (PENJANA) (TMF, 2020). Another RM250 billion was allocated to support businesses with RM2 billion earmarked to strengthen the country's economy. The government and Bank Negara Malaysia provided an additional RM4.5 billion to support SMEs and guarantee that "two-thirds of the country's workforce remain employed" (TMF, 2020: 1). This latter package secured benefits for 4.8 million workers by giving them a subsidy of RM600 to RM1200 (TMF, 2020).

The Malaysian government has also rolled out a number of other incentives to bail out tourism businesses. Foo et al. (2020) report that these incentives included a reduction in interest rates from 3.75% to 3.5%, discounts on utility bills, a deduction for training costs, financial relief from banks for affected companies and wage subsidies to help employers retain their employees. In light of these incentives, Foo et al. (2020: 4) reveal that attention "is now turning to domestic tourism to offset the fall in international arrivals. To boost domestic tourism, several measures such as personal income tax relief up to RM1000 for domestic tourism and digital vouchers valued up to RM100 per person for domestic flights, rail travel, and hotel accommodation have been offered."

SARS-CoV-2 was confirmed to have reached *Colombia* on 6 March 2020 after which nationwide quarantine and lockdowns were imposed. Due to the fast spread of the virus, the lockdown was extended several times and this affected essential economic sectors (Ahmed et al., 2020). The economic impacts of the COVID-19 in Colombia is the country's greatest economic decline in recent history, the GDP falling by 15.7% compared to 2019 (KPMG, 2020d). The monthly unemployment rate in Colombia's capital, Bogotá, jumped from 13% to 21.6% between March and April 2020 eventually increasing to 26.1% in Bogotá and an estimated 67% nationally (more than 15 million people) (Bedoya, 2021).

In response to the pandemic, the Colombian government has put together stimulus packages to limit the economic and social consequences of the crisis. The government provided additional cash transfers to 2.6 million poor households and contributed 40% of workers' minimum wages to allow companies to pay their workers' wages. (TMF, 2020; Bedoya, 2021). A service award payment (PAP) programme worth 220 000 Colombian pesos (COP\$) was set up to help workers earning between minimum wage and one million pesos. Companies received an additional COP\$350 billion loan

package at a 2% reduced interest rate, offered with a three-year term and a six-month repayment period (TMF, 2020).

The COVID-19 pandemic was reported to have spread to *Ecuador* by 29 February 2020. In April the nation was described as an ‘epicentre’ of the pandemic in Latin America (Faiola & Herrero, 2020). Due to the extremely high numbers of the fatalities and to address the health and sanitary emergency, the government deployed a military task force to evacuate the over 500 bodies on the streets (Alava & Guevara, 2021). The military was overwhelmed to the point where bodies were left in the streets of Guayaquil (Rogers, 2020). Horrifyingly, they were bodies “of people who had collapsed and died as they struggled to breathe and bodies of those who had died in their homes and whose relatives had placed the bodies on the sidewalks in the hope that the authorities would take charge of the situation” (WB, 2021: 1). The improper handling of the bodies led to one of the indigenous communities fleeing into the Amazon rainforest for shelter out of fear that the virus would wipe out their community (Alava & Guevara, 2021). A group of 40 protesters took to the streets to send a message to the government about the unhealthy conditions and improper handling and evacuation of dead bodies left in the streets (Valencia & Del Pino, 2020). Vivanco (2020) of the Human Rights Watch reports that the police charged the demonstrators and caused injuries in the process. The government had to provide emergency cemeteries to dispose of the bodies that were left in the streets (Valencia & Del Pino, 2020) and to focus on how to use the insufficient funds available to address the pandemic and deal with the resultant impact on the nation’s economy (KPMG, 2020e; Alava & Guevara, 2021).

To contain the spread of the virus in Ecuador the government paid informal workers USD60 per month to stay at home. This was at a time the country was already having economic difficulties before the advent of the pandemic and the fall in oil prices amplified the economic problems in the country. Ecuador has been unable to pay its foreign debts which led to a budget deficit of at least USD12 billion in 2020 (KPMG, 2020e). In 2020, 150 000 jobs were lost due to the impact of the pandemic in the absence of stimulus packages and with public sector workers’ salaries being cut (BBC News, 2020b). Regrettably, the Ecuadorian government’s responses have been shrouded by political corruption and poor management (Alava & Guevara, 2021). Consequently, there is little documentation of the government’s response to the pandemic (TMF, 2020)

In *South Africa* several general business continuity support interventions and stimulus packages were put in place. The R200-million Tourism Relief Fund (TRF) grants supporting small businesses “to ensure their sustainability during and after the implementation of government measures to contain the spread of the pandemic in South Africa” (Odeku, 2021: 3). The TRF is capped at R50 000 per company to subsidize expenses related to fixed costs, running costs, consumables and other printing costs items to resuscitate dying businesses and ensure their continued survival during and beyond the

pandemic (Odeku, 2021). There is also a waiver on tourism grading fees and an additional R15.4 billion of mixed capital to strengthen liquidity and biosecurity standards to reduce transmission risks for safe reopening of the tourism sector (South Africa Department of Tourism, 2020).

To support the economic recovery, the government announced a R800 billion stimulus package to alleviate hunger, social stress and support businesses and workers, with a further R200 billion guaranteed loan programme to inject liquidity into struggling businesses, which are supported by the treasury and the major commercial banks (South African Department of Tourism, 2020). Government relief programmes during the pandemic have helped millions by providing more infrastructure, massive increases in local manufacturing, more local incentives to “create jobs to support livelihoods, and the rapid expansion of energy production” (News24, 2021: 1).

Although the pandemic has impacted negatively on South Africa due to the country’s strategic location in Africa, the President gave new hope to business owners and the citizens. In a television broadcast he emphasized that “...the people of South Africa, have over the past year experienced a terrible hardship. Like a wildfire that sweeps across the mountain ranges where the fynbos grows, a deadly pandemic has swept across the world, leaving devastation in its path. And yet, like the hardy fynbos of our native land, we too have proven to be resilient in many ways” (News24, 2021). The government has rolled out an economic reconstruction and recovery plan (ERRP) along with a tourism sector recovery plan (TSRP) (South Africa Department of Tourism, 2021) in response to the challenges of the COVID-19 pandemic. These plans aim to facilitate the wise use of R189 billion to help the sector regain its production and employment levels by 2023 and position the tourism sector for the long term by creating 125 000 jobs (South Africa Department of Tourism, 2021).

The Republic of *Mauritius* on the south-eastern coast of Africa has a population of 1.3 million on its three main islands, Mauritius, Rodrigues and Agalega. The densely populated Mauritius receives some one million tourists annually (Jeeneea & Sukon, 2020). The first three cases of COVID-19 in Mauritius (all imported cases) were detected on March 18 2020 and the following day the government announced border closures and implementation of NPIs, up to implementation of a full lockdown on March 24 (Kowlessur et al., 2020). There was an evolution of the outbreak “from sporadic cases to clusters and then local transmission” (Reliefweb, 2021: 1). However, these transmissions were contained in 39 days and no new cases were reported as of April 26, 2020 (Reliefweb, 2021). This is undoubtedly related to the country’s decades of experience in successfully combating communicable diseases (Musango et al.2021: 4). Due to the low transmission rates, the lockdown ended on 30 May 2020 to encourage all business activities. Consequently, beaches, markets, gyms, parks, movie theatres and “other public places became open to the public but wearing face masks and social distancing” remained mandatory (Musango et al., 2021: 4). These interventions also affected tourist

arrivals in the country, with only 2772 tourists brave enough to travel to Mauritius in the first quarter of 2021 compared to the record 304 842 arrivals in 2020 (Ramphul, 2022).

The early reopening of business activities in Mauritius is attributable to strong leadership, high political engagement by the government and private sector involvement (Murday, Reddi & Sookrajowa, 2021). Buttressing the reasons for the early reopening, Musango et al. (2021: 4) posit that “governance and leadership, communication, coupled with proactive contact tracing and test-and-treat measures as key factors contributing to the success of Mauritius.” The adherence and compliance by the public with the NPIs stipulated by the government were also helpful. This gave the government ample time to focus on the economy and stimulus packages to revive the economy. It was estimated that the lockdown cost the Mauritian economy between one billion Mauritian rupee (MUR) to MUR1.3 billion per day, resulting in an estimated total cost of MUR15-20 billion or 4% of the country’s GDP for the full 15-day lockdown in March 2020 (KPMG, 2020f).

To stimulate domestic activity, the Bank of Mauritius’ Monetary Policy Committee cut the key repo rate (KRR) by 50 basis points to 2.85% per year. The bank also introduced support programmes to support Mauritian companies in all sectors of the economy. These measures included an immediate government pledge of MUR12 billion (US\$300 million) to support businesses and workers; a special relief of MUR5 billion from commercial banks to meet the liquidity and working capital needs of economic actors; and reducing the cash reserve ratio applicable to commercial banks from 9% to 8% (Jeeneea & Sukon, 2020; TMF, 2020). A wage subsidy system was introduced to ensure that workers in the private sector were paid properly. Private sector companies received an amount equivalent to a 15-day base wage bill for all workers earning a monthly base wage of up to MUR50 000, subject to a cap of MUR12 500 per worker (KPMG, 2020f).

Although governments responded swiftly to the pandemic, however the COVID-19 pandemic has impacted negatively on the economies of the Global South (Palalar, Ozbilgin & Kamasak, 2022). Having reported the responses of selected countries in the Global South, the next section adjusts the focus to a deeper discussion of the responses of the Nigerian government.

#### **2.4.2 The Nigerian governments’ response to the COVID-19 pandemic**

Nigeria has one of the largest economies in Africa with a vast population and abundant natural resources. The country’s economy has been unstable and the nation suffers from insecurity, low socio-economic livelihoods of its citizens compounded by unemployment, inflation, ineffective health care facilities and inadequate social welfare (Adeniran & Sidiq, 2018; Awofeso & Irabor, 2020; Dushime & Osele, 2021). These factors continue to widen the inequalities between the elite political class and the vulnerable marginalized poor, thereby weakening social cohesion and citizens’ trust in

the government (Awofeso & Irabor, 2020). These gaps have been widened by COVID-19. Consequently, the Nigerian government initiated NPIs to control the spread of the virus, such as lockdowns, social distancing, compulsory wearing of face masks, staying at home and working from home (Bello & Bello, 2021).

The stay-at-home guidelines' lockdown and movement restriction orders affected businesses that rely "on daily access, such as face-to-face interactions through socialization and customer flows to meet basic needs" (Oruonye & Ahmed, 2020: 35). Scholars contend that face-to-face interaction, impeded by physical and social distancing negates the philosophy of socialization and togetherness (ubuntu) (Etieyibo, 2017; David & Okoliko, 2020). Moreover, the maintaining of physical and social distancing and good hygiene practices are major challenges in Nigeria, with its high population density and poor housing conditions that are common in both rural and urban areas. Most residential houses in Nigeria lack good sanitary and waste disposal facilities which further aided the spread of pandemic in Nigeria (Adesoji, 2014).

The economic impact of the pandemic has been devastating in Nigeria. Economic growth turned negative with the GDP growth rate falling to 1.87% and then -6.10% in the first and second quarters of 2020 respectively (Dushime & Osele, 2021). Unemployment and poverty rates increased and many companies have been forced out of business (Onyeiwu, 2021). This worsened the country's poverty and unemployment struggles. Businesses continue to struggle for survival, an indication that unemployment and high poverty rates will persist in Nigeria as over 770 000 jobs have been lost in the tourism industry alone (Nnodim, 2021). The WFTU (World Federation of Trade Unions, 2021: 1) describes the pandemic as having dragged down Nigeria's economy and it is "more of a killer because most families were living dead as they lost their jobs due to low or no patronage in some cases. Many died out of frustration even before the epidemic could get to their environment."

This dire situation is reflected in "World Bank estimates that 11 million Nigerians will be pushed into poverty by 2022, adding to the 100 million already considered poor among the country's 200 million people" (Onyeiwu, 2021: 1). Onyeiwu (2021) reports that in a survey by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) and the National Bureau of Statistics, the results show that 80% of the companies surveyed reduced production in 2020. Sixty per cent experienced an unexpected increase in operating costs and "one in three respondents said they knew of at least one business that had to close permanently" (Onyeiwu, 2021: 1). A dramatic increase in food prices and a sharp devaluation of the Nigerian currency (Naira) are the main causes of inflation in Nigeria. The lethal combination of unemployment and high inflation rates (pegged at 17% in 2021) presages another recession like the previous one in 2016 (Onyeiwu, 2021).

Unfortunately, Nigeria is not included in the TMF Group's 2020 findings on what governments across the world are doing to support businesses in 2020 during the COVID-19 outbreak (see TMF Group, 2020). This must be seen against the background that the Nigerian constitution does not provide for a legal entitlement to social security and there are no laws that create an entitlement to unemployment or child benefits (Human Rights Watch, 2021; Lain & Vishwanath, 2021). However,

In the absence of a more developed social security system capable of channelling support to vulnerable families, the Economic Sustainability Plan sought to expand the social assistance measures that did exist before the pandemic, including a nationwide cash transfer program that was reaching more than 835 000 households before COVID-19 hit. Cash transfers expanded early in the crisis - reaching 921 445 households for the period March to April 2020 - but their coverage reduced as the pandemic wore on, with 400 734 households receiving payments for November to December 2020 (Human Rights Watch, 2021: 1).

Nigeria's vulnerability to "the economic impact of the COVID-19 pandemic largely stems from the lack of a functioning social security system capable of supporting households who lost jobs and income during the crisis" (Human Rights Watch, 2021: 1). Some Nigerians picked holes in the distribution of palliatives through the monthly ₦5000 (USD12) conditional cash transfer to poor Nigerians which is far below the international poverty line of USD1.25 (₦518) per day (Central Bank of Nigeria, 2015). Recently the Catholic Bishop of Sokoto Diocese, Matthew Hassan Kukah, described the Economic Sustainability Plan as a monumental fraud coming from a government that has perfected the art of deception to enrich a select few (Edokwe, 2021).

However, the Central Bank of Nigeria has increased its focus on stimulating local businesses through fiscal stimulus measures to support the country's economy with a ₦50-billion (€121 million) credit facility targeted at households and SMEs with a 5% interest rate reduced from 9% (IFC (International Finance Corporation), 2020; Strategic Comments, 2020; KPMG, 2020a; CDC Group 2021). Taxes were not reduced, rather an extension was granted for filing tax returns (KPMG, 2020b). This is a far cry from what happened in Mauritius, where taxpayers who were unable to file their returns or pay any taxes due to the pandemic lockdown were not fined or charged interest (TMF Group, 2020). The federal government of Nigeria launched a ₦2.3 trillion (US\$5.6 billion) rescue fund under the Economic and Sustainability Plan in response to the economic impact of the pandemic to be implemented over a period of 12 to 18 months. As of May 2021, the federal government had disbursed ₦500 billion (US\$1.2 billion) (Human Rights Watch, 2021). Despite the stimulus packages the federal government quickly passed a relief programme with limited fiscal space and capacity. This means that the "government will need to work with the private sector and with development organizations to coordinate and track the health and economic impact of the pandemic at the local

level” (IFC, 2020: 10). Given that the study area of this research is in Nigeria’s Plateau State, the next section turns to the responses of the state’s government in the face of the pandemic.

### **2.4.3 Plateau State governments’ response to the COVID-19 pandemic and the effects on the tourism industry**

Due to the pandemic, global and local tourism markets are facing an equilibrium between keeping their market economies and averting unemployment (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020). Governments’ responses and support during this health crisis are crucial (Mensah & Boakye, 2021). In Plateau State (PS) the ministry of health, in collaboration with the NCDC (National Centre for Disease Control), provided periodic updates to the state governor for communication to the public via live radio and television broadcasts. Press statements were issued by the governor with the PS ministry of health providing updates on the daily case counts and measures taken that were updated on the NCDC website with general information on hygiene practices, compulsory wearing of face masks and continuous handwashing and sanitizing.

PS is rich in cultural heritage which, together with impressive natural resources, attractive scenes and clement weather contributes a resource base for a tourism industry that contributes to the state’s GDP (PSG (Plateau State Government), 2020). The tourism industry was about to take off after the successful launch of the Plateau State Tourism Policy with a committee set up with a mandate to resuscitate the industry after the expiration of a declared state of emergency on the industry. However, everything came to a standstill in March 2020 when about 90% of global and domestic travel had to be stopped through travel restrictions and border closures to reduce the spread of the coronavirus (Gössling et al, 2020). Governments around the world began to roll out relief packages to support the economy and businesses, becoming the cause of a major economic downturn as tourism businesses began to feel the worst impacts (Dube et al., 2020).

Following the release of bailout funds (survival funds) by the Federal Government of Nigeria, the PSG announced the receipt of relief packages (palliatives) from the federal government (*The Guardian*, 2020b). The coordination and disbursement of the palliatives were fraught with slow distribution so that many poor, vulnerable and low-income informal workers employed by small tourism businesses not being able to access any relief packages (*The Guardian*, 2020b). This was due to very strict selection criteria that fell short of the standard indicators (disability status, income, employment and education) measuring household poverty (WB, 2014). A report indicate that this was deliberate party politics geared to have palliatives to be distributed to party loyalists at the expense of the poor and vulnerable in society (Njoku et al., 2020). As citizens continued to wait for the funds, fuel and electricity tariffs were increased without any form of tax waivers for businesses



(Adegboyega, 2020; Obiezu, 2020; Alade, 2021). Despite these challenges, “forms of government interventions, the redevelopment of social safety nets, and the significance of social caring and networks have been the primary responses to challenges of this crisis” (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2020: 8).

The PSG had to revitalize the Government Enterprise Empowerment Programme (GEEP) (NOA (National Orientation Agency), 2021) under the management of the National Social Investment Office (NSIO) to alleviate poverty by providing access to funds for Nigerian entrepreneurs who were struggling. The programme (GEEP 2.0) was launched with two broad objectives, namely “(a) access to funding by providing microloans in an easily accessible way to those at the bottom of the pyramid who engage in commercial activities but face significant challenges with access to finance and credit; and (b) financial inclusion ensuring that the beneficiaries are brought under the formal financial sector and can further seize the opportunity to access other credit products from financial service providers” (NOA, 2021: 1). By April 2022 there is no clearly documented evidence of what the PSG had done to cushion the effects of the pandemic on tourism businesses. The global economic consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic intensified the economic crisis witnessed in Plateau State as businesses face possible closure and workers suffer the non-implementation of the new minimum wage (Pwanagba, 2020). With the uncertainty about the future viability of businesses in the tourism industry a guide becomes necessary to chart the course to recovery for the tourism industry. This is reported in the next section.

## **2.5 THE RECOVERY OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY**

The COVID-19 pandemic has caused devastating impacts on the tourism industry and “recovery strategies cannot be placed in an ethical vacuum” (Rastegar, Higgins-Desbiolles & Ruhanen, 2021: 2). The pandemic has brought with it many transformations in the tourism industry and has “provided an opportunity to pause, reorientate and rethink” (Lew et al., 2020: 459). Tourists are now desirous for new experiences post pandemic (Mulder, 2020; OECD, 2020). Despite the formidable challenges and uncomfortable changes following the COVID-19 pandemic, tourism businesses can revamp and experience success going into the ‘new normal’ to stay on top of their game and rebuild tourism for the future (Bolchinova, 2021). The survival of the tourism industry is at serious risk without continued government support (OECD, 2020). There are indications that efforts are being made for the tourism industry to ‘return to the past’ as “many tourists are anxious to stretch their wings again after being locked down hoping for change” (Lew et al., 2020: 461). While the literature reports impressive government action taken to cushion the blow to tourism, minimize job losses and fuel recovery, much more needs to be done and certainly in a more coordinated way (OECD, 2020).

Many countries around the world are supporting job and income protection in the tourism industry as a way of recovery for informal and formal tourism business operators across the economy with measures that prevent businesses from firing workers (Mulder, 2020; OECD, 2020). Public-private partnerships will promote job retainment, especially the transfer of tourism workers to other sectors requiring additional support staff (OECD, 2020). The temporary closure of tourism businesses has had strong repercussions on women's economic autonomy because they make up most of the tourism workforce, they are overrepresented among the poor and they face barriers to being fully engaged in paid jobs (Mulder, 2020; OECD, 2020). To bridge this gap of uneven representation there should be measures to formalize informal workers in tourism with special attention given to grassroots organization as well as rural-based and young businesswomen in the tourism industry (OECD, 2020).

Tourists' confidence in partaking in tourism activities has been hit hard by the pandemic and restoring this confidence and starting up tourism after the pandemic will be formidable challenges (Mulder, 2020; OECD, 2020). Although tourism businesses may be objectively safe, visitors may seek to avoid exposure to contracting or transmitting the coronavirus and decide not to engage in tourism activities (Choi & Bum, 2020). Expedited actions can be put in place to regain potential tourists' trust, such as preventive measures, "the review and adjustment of all areas with shared equipment and guest facilities, the placement of new informational safety tips and materials", and constant provision of disinfectant kits for visitors and workers (Mulder, 2020: 1).

The supporting of tourism businesses in their adaptations and survival actions requires workable measures which have been effective in other parts of the world (OECD, 2020). Some of these measures are exemptions from paying income tax or value added tax (VAT); social security contributions; COVID-19 relief packages for small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs); access to credit facilities or subsidies; and wage payments for SMEs and/or large companies (Dube et al., 2020; Mulder, 2020; OECD, 2020). Governments can also facilitate business support and transfer cash programmes to registered businesses operating in the tourism industry by offering a moratorium on the payment of licenses and fees in the tourism sector (Mulder, 2020; OECD, 2020).

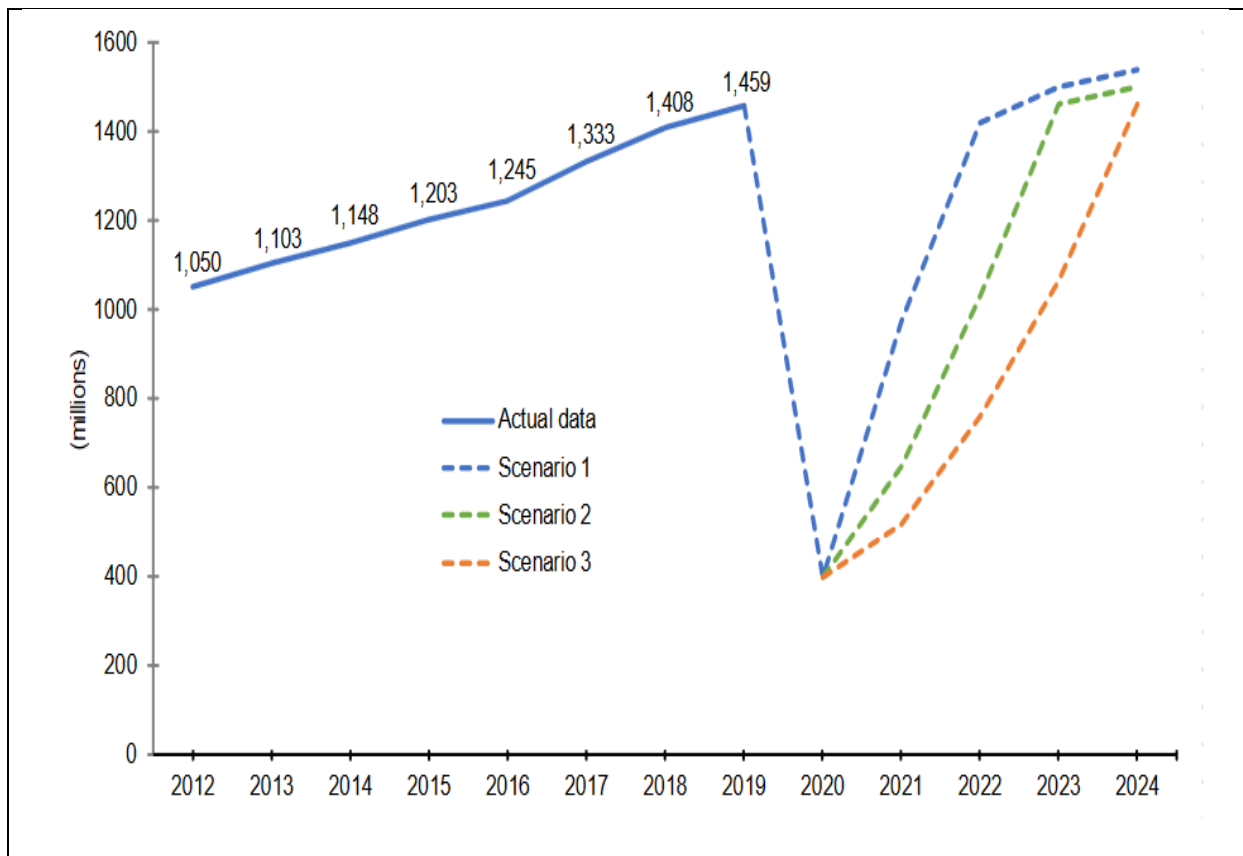
There has been a global recognition of domestic tourism as the key driver of the tourism sector. In 2017 domestic tourism accounted for 73% of the world's total travel and tourism spending (WTTC (World Travel and Tourism Council), 2018 cited in Arbulú et al., 2021b). It has been reported that it is during times of crisis that domestic tourism thrives and regains importance (De Sausmarez, 2007; Garau-Vadell, Gutierrez-Taño & Diaz-Armas, 2018; Dahles, Prabawa & Koning, 2020; Hanafiah et al., 2021; Shi et al., 2021; Anu et al., 2022). The facilitation of the recovery of tourism businesses during the COVID-19 crisis through domestic tourism is a much-needed boost for the recovery and sustaining of the tourism industry (OECD, 2020). The literature supports the argument that many

domestic tourism destinations and businesses will continue to be key drivers of recovery for the tourism industry in the short to medium terms (OECD, 2020; Arbulú, Razumova, Rey-Maguieira & Sastre, 2021b; Boto-García & Mayor, 2022). Domestic tourism will help in the reactivation of the “economy while recognizing the importance of access to leisure for everyone” by bringing the tourism experience closer to the tourists (Mulder, 2020: 1).

In building a resilient and sustainable tourism industry activities, conferences and country actions will establish the speeding up of the tourism industry (Gössling et al., 2020; OECD, 2020; Gössling & Schweiggart, 2021; Pololikashvili 2021; Rastegar et al., 2021). Sustainable practices and environmental initiatives are becoming important for the resilience of the tourism industry (Hall, Scott & Gössling, 2020; Bolchinova, 2021; Rastegar et al., 2021). Sustainable travel choices are now needed to save the environment and future generations as the “climate emergency is bigger than Covid” (Pololikashvili 2021: 1). There is an increasing awareness of this as travellers are adopting this mindset and calling for a ‘reset’ and ‘transformation’ in making their tourism and travel decisions (Gössling et al., 2020; Gössling & Schweiggart, 2021; Rastegar et al., 2021). The pandemic has presented “an opportunity to rethink the tourism sector and its contributions to the people and planet; an opportunity to build back better towards a more sustainable, inclusive and resilient tourism sector that ensures the benefits of tourism are enjoyed widely and fairly” (Pololikashvili 2021: 1). Going forward, sustainability will be a continuous and decisive factor in travel and tourism (Mulder, 2020; OECD, 2020; Bolchinova, 2021).

To be a sustainable tourism industry, UNWTO forecasts that international arrivals are expected to rebound in 2021 (UNWTO, World Tourism Barometer, 2020d). This forecast and scenario assume that international arrivals will recover on the basis of the gradual reversal of the pandemic-induced travel restrictions and border closures, the COVID-19 vaccine roll-out and the restoration of travellers’ confidence to engage in travelling again. The rally is expected to continue in 2022 and it will take two to four years for international tourism to return to 2019 levels (UNWTO, 2020d).

Figure 2.3 illustrates the recovery times for each recovery scenario as forecast by UNWTO (2020d). Scenario 1 has a two-and-a-half-year recovery running into 2023; Scenario 2 has a three-year recovery period running to the end of 2023; and Scenario 3 features a four-year recovery running until the end of 2024. These extended scenarios are based on annual totals and not on growth. Hence rebuilding and regenerating tourism post-pandemic requires a road map to guide the process.

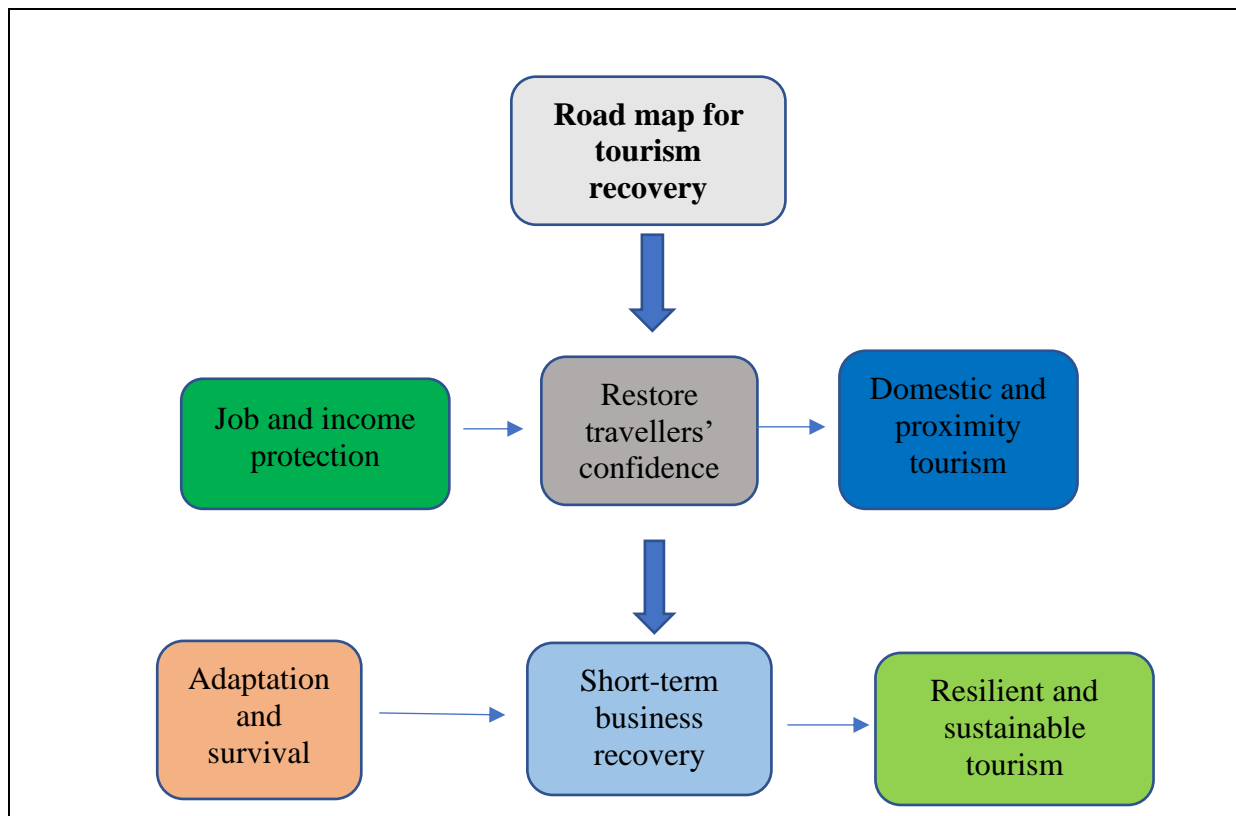


Source: UNWTO (2020d: 11)

Figure 2.3 International tourist arrivals: Scenarios for 2021 to 2024

The roadmap for tourism recovery depicted in Figure 2.4 showcases that building a resilient and sustainable tourism post-COVID-19 starts with job and income protection. The revival of tourism hinges on building tourists' confidence to engage in domestic or proximity tourism. Short-term business recovery plans will enhance the adaptations and survival strategies of tourism businesses post-COVID-19 to lead to resilient and sustainable tourism.

Never in history has so great a plethora of debates surrounded the tourism industry following a crisis. The COVID-19 pandemic has opened a lot of discussions regarding the way the tourism sector would be after the crisis. The majority of the debates are centred on the return of businesses to business as usual and the rebuilding of more sustainable and resilient tourism industry. Tourism post-COVID-19 will continue to see governments providing financial support to spur tourism (especially domestic tourism), either directly or through soft loans for businesses in the industry (Sharma, Thomas & Paul, 2021) with the increased use of more indigenous people to sell tourism and 'cultural experiences' (Hutchison, Movono & Scheyvens, 2021).



Source: Adapted from OECD (2020) and Mulder (2020)

Figure 2.4 Road map for tourism recovery post-COVID-19

Tourism businesses are looking forward to normal business operations and will have to adapt to models and online training certification classes to help improve the skills of workers in the industry (Babii & Nadeem, 2021). Tourism-reliant economies hampered by space could develop new initiatives to reignite the sector to boost domestic tourism (Mensah & Boakye, 2021; Vogler, 2022). Tourism is likely to shift towards ecotourism - a fast-growing industry focused on conservation and local job creation which can further boost the industry (OECD, 2020; Babii & Nadeem, 2021; Hutchison et al., 2021).

To help shape the recovery of tourism activities, more sustainable forms of tourism and other niche markets can be explored (Giddy & Rogerson, 2020; Babii & Nadeem, 2021; Sharma et. al., 2021). Gössling et al. (2020) maintain that a shift to sustainable tourism will further aid the implementation of sustainable development goals so giving opportunities for the growth and well-being of other areas. This can be further enhanced with physical and social distancing and the health and hygiene protocols that are likely to remain in place for the tourism industry for the foreseeable future (Babii & Nadeem, 2021; Cao & Nguyen, 2021; Miao et al., 2021; Mirzaei, Sadin & Pedram, 2021; Naumov, Varadzhakova & Naydenov, 2021; Vogler, 2022; Zhu & Dolnicar, 2022). Social distancing has enhanced the delivery of contactless services and investment in digital technologies, which could provide a bridge to tourism recovery (Hall et al., 2020). Economic diversification is an option for

some tourism-dependent countries going forward if reductions and restrictions on international travel remain in place (Mensah & Boakye, 2021). Although “investing in non-tourism sectors is a long-term goal, this can be supported by strengthening links between tourism” and local agricultural production, manufacturing and creative arts (Babii & Nadeem, 2021: 1).

The COVID-19 pandemic impacts on global economies have deepened taking a toll on most economic sectors owing to governments responses to support businesses and workers of which the tourism industry is not an exception (Hanafiah et al., 2021). To regenerate the tourism industry governments must continue to support business recovery measures that would stabilize their economies post-COVID-19.

## **2.6 CONCLUSION**

In this chapter the literature has been reviewed on tourism and crises as unexpected events to gain knowledge and a better understanding of the issues associated with crises, especially the COVID-19 pandemic and how it impacts on tourism. The scale of unexpected events driven by external forces and crises has increased in the past years with larger impacts on the tourism system. Thus, the increasing magnitude of the impacts of crises and unexpected events, especially the pandemic, is driven largely by a globalized world which in its turn influences the sustainability of tourism businesses.

Tourism businesses play a crucial role in the economic development of countries by generating employment opportunities for the localities and regions that depend heavily on the sector for their economic development. The consequence of the pandemic for most tourism businesses that are small- and medium-sized businesses have been devastating since these businesses do not have financial reserves. The global transformation and changes for mankind brought about by the movement restriction order and the further ban on social gathering impacted these businesses to the extent that they had to shut down completely. This global challenge has had effect on the economic development of businesses and countries worldwide.

The global tourism industry leads in the provision of employment opportunities for women and youths but millions of these cohorts' jobs and businesses in the tourism sector were lost due to the pandemic. The pandemic also led to sharp declines in the number of international travels as most countries closed their borders and restricted non-essential passenger flights. The drastic decline in the UNWTO-forecast growth of international tourists for 2020 declined to 1% from the estimated 4%. This estimate was largely interpreted using the SARS scenario, global market travel and current travel disruptions. Moreover, restaurants were virtually empty, occupancies in hotels were mostly single

digits and tourist attractions were devoid of visitors, all of which have caused the tourism sector heavy economic losses.

Having examined the literature on the concepts of tourism, crisis, unexpected events, and the nature of the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism industry in different countries, the next chapter examines models and theories used to understand the principles of the tourism crisis leadership in crisis.

## CHAPTER 3

### THEORETICAL CONTEXT

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

The interdisciplinary and multifaceted nature of the discipline of geography has stimulated a growing interest about the chaos and risks various forms of a crisis have on tourism (Pine & Mckercher, 2004; Zeng et al., 2005; Yang & Nair, 2014; Maphanga & Henama, 2019; Gössling et al., 2020; Hall, Scott & Gössling, 2020). Tourism contributes in diverse ways to the economic growth and survival of countries that depend on tourism (Ritchie, 2004). It is inevitable that tourism managers and planners will be pressured to consider the impact of crises on tourism systems so strategies can be developed to manage the impact and protect the system (Ritchie, 2004).

Consequently, Ritchie (2004) proposed a three-stage crisis management framework involving (a) proactive scanning and planning, (b) implementation of strategies, and (c) evaluation and refinement of strategies. Later, Prideaux (2009) suggested a similar three-stage framework: (a) a pre-crisis stage, (b) a crisis stage and (c) a crisis recovery stage. Despite the existence of these tourism crisis management strategies, there has been reluctance in the tourism sector to adopt these models (Speakman & Sharpley, 2012). These two authors argue that this disinclination probably stems from the limitations of these models regarding the responses called for by the crises that tourism destinations experience. Other scholars claim there is a lack of enthusiasm because these models propose linear, deterministic frameworks that fail to account for the complex and chaotic characteristics of a tourism system (Mckercher, 1999; Faulkner, 2000; Speakman & Sharpley, 2012; Boukas & Ziakas, 2014). In the light of these contentions, this chapter explores chaos theory as a better option for understanding of the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic health crisis on the tourism system. The chapter comprises two main parts. In the first section the limitations of three models for explaining how crises can be managed are highlighted, while the second part provides an alternative perspective for studying the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses by using chaos theory.

#### 3.2 LIMITATIONS OF SELECTED CRISIS MANAGEMENT MODELS

Because each crisis is unique and different, the circumstances surrounding each one are varied and influenced by time, location, intensity and geographical spread (Jaques, 2007). Crisis management is not a deliberate response when a crisis occurs, rather it is a holistic and integrated process that requires a multidirectional and unpredictable approach (Jaques, 2007). Speakman & Sharpley (2012: 67) maintain that existing crisis management models and strategies tend to lack “practical responses to



potential and actual cases that tourism destinations may experience.” This is substantiated in the following subsections that in turn assess the limitations of three contemporary models namely the crisis life cycle, the resilience loop and protection motivation theory.

### **3.2.1 Crisis life cycle**

Faulkner’s (2001) seminal work on the concept of life cycle laid a foundation for the crisis life cycle model of systems. He argues that because crises in systems are dynamic, evolving and changing over time disaster management is required for tourism systems. The impact of unexpected events on tourism and the reactions of the industry and relevant government agencies will help to manage this impact and the impact of similar events in the future. Each crisis goes through different phases (Lemonakis & Zairis, 2019). The life cycle model proposes that crises “left unaddressed tend towards increasing seriousness and greater risk; and that the longer an issue survives, the choices available decrease and cost of intervention and resolution increases” (Jaques, 2007: 148).

Although Faulkner’s model is one of the most widely cited frameworks for crisis management, it has led to the emergence of numerous models and frameworks that also support the use of crisis phases to divide the pre-crisis and post-crisis period (Ritchie, 2004). However, some researchers (for example Laws & Prideaux, 2005; Scott, Laws & Prideaux, 2008) insist that crisis onset and impacts are unique. Accordingly, crisis management and recovery do not require a series of remedial actions to return to previous normality. According to Scott, Laws & Prideaux (2008: 11) “a fuller understanding of the range of challenges that may occur requires [a] more advanced theoretical perspective which sees the organization as a member of a wider system operating in a context of a variety of partner organizations and as a member of one or more dynamic and complex functional networks.” Speakman & Sharpley (2012) further argue that an alternative systems dimension to crisis management offers a better representation of crisis because systems are dynamic and so are crises.

Although Faulkner’s (2001) crisis life cycle framework can be implemented in addressing crisis at the destination level, with the unpredictable and chaotic nature of the COVID-19 pandemic it may be difficult following the stages suggested in investigating the pandemic’s impacts on the tourism industry.

### **3.2.2 Resilience loop**

Over the years the frequency and severity of unexpected events have been increasing, so impacting increasingly on tourism. Hence, the need for building resilient tourism systems (Taiban et al., 2020). As the tourism industry is extremely vulnerable to significant types of risk, the industry has become more resilient to recover from various crises and outbreaks (Sigala, 2020). The term resilience is not

new and comes from the Latin verb *resilire* meaning leap back or recoil. The term came into vogue from use by Holling (1973) in his research on ecological systems in the early 1970s where he defined resilience as a measure of the persistence of systems and their ability to absorb change and disruption and still maintain the same relationships between populations or the states of variables. Resilience is also viewed as the ability to predict risk, limit impact, and recover quickly through survival, adaptability, evolution, and growth in the face of turbulent change or unexpected events (Pelling, 2003a).

Holling's (1973) fundamental principles of resilience are: (a) systems do not evolve linearly but in a loop, (b) the phases of the cycle broadly repeat themselves but with differences in each iteration, (c) the characteristics and speed of recovery of a system after an event depend on the systems adaptability capacity; and (d) adaptability is based on different forms of capital accumulated in previous stages. Although resilience theory has been used in tourism studies (Cochrane, 2010; Orchiston et al., 2016), the limitations of this model are that it is predictive, cyclical, has no dividing point between the stages and does not recognize the complexity in systems (McKercher, 1999; Speakman & Sharpley, 2012). Therefore, resilience theory may not be appropriate in investigating the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses due to the complexities related to the emergence of a new order in response to the pandemic.

### **3.2.3 Protection motivation theory**

Although risks occur in our everyday activities, they are influenced by personal experiences and judgments, perceptions, culture or social groups that can influence a tourist's choice of a destination (Sjoberg, 2000; Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007; Donaldson & McKay, 2018). Scholars submit that these tourist choices are usually based on five main risk factors inherent to tourism, namely health concerns (McKercher & Chon, 2004; Cooper, 2005), terrorism (Sönmez, 1998), natural disasters (Armstrong & Ritchie, 2008), crime (Pizam, 1999) and political instability leading to war (Mansfeld, 1996).

Consequently, one of the most frequently cited terms to explain risk perception is the Protection Motivation Theory (PMT) advocated by Rogers (1975; 1983). The theory holds that protective motivation arises from the cognitive evaluation of an event as harmful or likely to occur, along with the belief that a recommended coping response can be effective in preventing the aversive event from occurring (Rogers, 1975). A major limitation of this theory is that protection motivation is not aroused unless an event is judged to be serious or likely to occur, or if nothing can be done about the event.

Most tourism crisis management models do establish the interrelatedness of the different components of tourism, but they assume that tourism is linear, cyclical, deterministic and predictable. Crises and disasters occur unexpectedly without warning. The reality is that just as the tourism system is chaotic

and complex, crises are dynamic, chaotic, changing, evolving and cannot conform to a life cycle as the life cycle model and resilience loop suggest. These models fail to recognize that tourism crises are dynamic, unpredictable, and occur “in different cultural and geographic settings, thereby limiting the applicability of models” to smaller different settings (Speakman & Sharpley, 2012: 70).

Moreover, a ‘one-size-fits-all’ approach is not feasible due to the differing circumstances in scale and duration (Mckercher, 1999). Each crisis is unique, has different impacts, dissimilar recovery times, and requires a unique approach or model to deal with it. For example, Zeng, Carter & De Lacy (2005: 306) noted that various “crises, such as epidemics (human and animal), extreme destructive weather conditions, natural disasters, civil violence, war or terrorism, all have disparate effects and recovery times”, hence it is inappropriate to limit all forms of crises to the same model. It is noteworthy that tourism is also complex and cannot be captured in a deterministic model (Mckercher, 1999; Speakman & Sharpley, 2012). As reasoned by Speakman & Sharpley (2012: 69):

Crises scramble plans of action and surprise everyone in and out of the field, as the dynamics of crisis constantly change and unfold on a daily and hourly basis, with unpredictable outcomes. Thus, many crisis management models fail as they tend to offer a series of remedial steps without appreciating the true complexity of the situation and the dynamic and complex network of relationships involved in the tourism system.

Schroeder & Pennington-Gray (2016) point out that the major criticisms against these foregoing models in tourism studies is their unidimensional approach and their lack of a theoretical underpinning in a complex system. Given these critical evaluations, chaos theory is reviewed as a profitable alternative perspective on crisis management.

### **3.3 CHAOS THEORY AND TOURISM STUDIES**

Worldwide, over the years, many unexpected events causing chaos continue to affect tourism destinations (Rindrasih et al., 2019; Aldao et al., 2021; Park, Kim & Kim, 2022). According to Mckercher (1999: 428) “chaos literally implies a complete lack of order.” However, in the context of tourism, chaos occurs when “a system is dislodged from its steady condition by a triggering event that is as random and unpredictable as the outcome” (Russell & Faulkner, 2004: 557). Chaotic and extremely complex systems such as the tourism industry can be studied constructively using the chaos theory (CT) (Russell & Faulkner, 1999; Sellnow et al., 2002; Zahra & Ryan, 2007; Speakman & Sharpley, 2012). Russell (2006: 110) suggests that “chaos theory reflects the change-proneness, the dynamism, and the self-healing properties of living organisms.... Chaos theory and numerous

instances of recent events have demonstrated that, if anything, the only certainty about the future is that the unexpected will happen” (Faulkner & Valeiro, 1995: 33).

The early works of Henri Poincare led to the development of chaos theory (CT) (Russell, 2006; Cummins, 2020) of which he is seen as the father. Being curious about Newton’s predictable and linear equation of the solar system, Poincare added more elements to the equation, thereby changing the initial point of some of the orbits in the solar system. He observed that very small changes to the initial equation made it almost impossible to predict how the orbit might work (Russell, 2006; Cummins, 2020). Mckercher (1999) referred to this as ‘sensitive dependence on initial condition’ (SDIC). Poincare’s findings propelled the rejection of the Newtonian view of a predictable linear relationship between elements and that those systems can be reduced to elements (Russell & Faulkner, 1999; Speakman & Sharpley, 2012). Similarly, Zahra & Ryan (2007) argue that the reduction of chaotic systems to elements is not feasible as “the whole is greater than the sum of the parts and that systems and organizations are dynamic, complex and synergistic” (Zahra & Ryan, 2007: 855). Therefore, CT explains non-linear complex systems (Mckercher, 1999; Russell & Faulkner, 1999) and it recognizes “the random, complex, unpredictable and dynamic nature of systems” (Speakman & Sharpley, 2012: 68).

Furthermore, CT is a crisis management theory (Zamoum & Gorpe, 2018); it accounts for unpredictable and unexpected events that have large-scale impacts leading to the regrouping and emergence of a new order (Russell & Faulkner, 1999; Russell & Faulkner, 2004; Johnson & Aday, 2014); it describes the behaviour of complex systems; and it provides clarifications of unforeseen consequences (Russell & Faulkner, 1999; Correani & Garofalo, 2008). There is agreement that CT provides an insightful paradigm for investigating the changing situations that influence a non-equilibrium system and it focuses on changes that accumulate over time and that accelerate alterations in the system (Scott, Laws & Prideaux, 2008). Six concepts of chaos theory help in understanding how crisis in a complex and chaotic tourism system can be managed, namely “butterfly effect, lock-in effect, edge of chaos, bifurcation, self-organization and strange attractors” (Russell & Faulkner, 2004: 557) and further gives insight into crisis management in non-equilibrium systems.

The butterfly effect was coined in 1963 by meteorologist Edward Lorenz who was looking for patterns and predictability in complex weather systems (Sellnow et al., 2002; Russell, 2006). In Lorenz’s study of the dynamics of moving fluids, he observed that the line connecting the traced patterns was like the open wings of a butterfly. But a further repetition of the same experiment with changes in the input, produced completely different outcomes by the computer (Russell, 2006). This implies that over time, minute changes can result in significant differences (Zahra & Ryan, 2007). According to Russell (2006: 111) “the butterfly, it was theorized, aptly symbolized this tentativeness

and capacity of small triggers to cause responses out of proportion to their size. The fluttering of a butterfly's wings in the Amazon could initiate a ripple that would magnify to a dust in Texas."

The butterfly effect described by Mckercher as SDIC explains how significant developments may lead to profound chain reactions that can alter or shift the system structure (Mckercher, 1999). Similarly, Russell (2006) observed that tiny alterations come suddenly and can produce large catastrophic outcomes. The inability to adequately measure the impact of the disaster further complicates the situation, as single events can lead to chain changes at destination locations (Boukas & Ziakas, 2014). For example, the COVID-19 pandemic started in Wuhan, China, and spread to over 200 countries. The reaction is that it altered the tourism system and impacted tourism businesses because of the lockdown. In the tourism context, the COVID-19 is the butterfly effect that grew exponentially (Mckercher, 1999) and disrupted global systems because of the travel restrictions and ban on social gatherings (Ozili & Arun, 2020).

The lock-in effect explains how, in chaotic systems, certain past innovations that have been inherited can have a lasting effect even though the initial response has become expendable (Mckercher, 1999; Russell & Faulkner, 2004; Speakman & Sharpley, 2012). As observed by Mckercher (1999: 429) this justifies "why accidents of history are still current today." Implying that certain incidents of the past may still be useful today. This explains why the same non-pharmaceutical interventions (NPIs) that were used during the SARs crisis were also implemented in the COVID-19 pandemic (WHO, 2003; WHO, 2020b). In the context of tourism, tourists repetitive behavioural pattern describes the impact of the lock-in effect which Mckercher describes as 'brand loyalty' or 'our family has always gone there'. This explains "why some destinations still retain a level of appeal that would normally not be warranted" (Mckercher, 1999: 429). This attraction or familiarity gained through previous visits influences long-term relationships that inspire repeat visits (McKercher, 1999; Tsai, 2012). Experiences of the past shapes tourists' image about a destination and improves destination image for tourists (De Nisco, Mainolfi, Marino & Napolitano, 2015). The lock-in effect of past experiences can therefore be an important determinant of crisis management.

According to Speakman & Sharpley (2012: 70) "a system is always on the edge of chaos when a trigger event may directly or indirectly induce a crisis." This may be due to the existence of the possibility of system disruption despite the stability in time past. In a bid to control the uncontrollable, organizations are faced with the threat of losing control which can be frightening for the organization (Mckercher, 1999). However, chaos recognizes that the frightening period of instability of the system is necessary for further change to occur in complex systems (Boukas & Ziakas, 2014). Scholars argue that instability is intrinsic to complex systems and stability can be disrupted unexpectedly (Mckercher 1999; Speakman & Sharply, 2012). Hence, systems must be ready for radical changes once they reach

the point of tenuous equilibrium (steadiness) (Russell & Faulkner, 2004; Russell, 2006). This stage is the edge of chaos where dynamic complex systems evolve towards the edge of chaos taking up extreme changes to return to normal.

Bifurcation is a critical point where changes that emerge in response to a chaotic environment can lead to a breakdown or a breakthrough in a system (Paraskevas, 2006). Sellnow et al. (2002: 271) describes bifurcation as “the flashpoints of change where a system’s direction, character, and/or structure are fundamentally disrupted.” This implies that bifurcation is the point of unexpected system stability breakdown or breakthrough. Sellnow et al. (2002) further argue that all intricate systems have the potential for bifurcation despite the appearance of stability and order. During the COVID-19 pandemic most tourism businesses got to the point of breaking down or breaking through due to the impact of the pandemic.

Systems are thrown into chaos and disequilibrium like Faulkner’s emergency phase of the disaster life cycle and no organization is completely insulated from crises (Faulkner, 2001). Unexpected events (UEs) can leave tourism systems irreparably damaged. Conversely, a system can emerge stronger if the system responds to the corresponding changes. The quick response by global, regional, national tourism organizations, tourists and stakeholders determines the bifurcation of the tourism system (Speakman & Sharpley, 2012). Turbulences in the tourism system are not predictable, however these turbulences allow the system to re-emerge into a more competitive system. Self-organization is a consequence of bifurcation where order and new stability emerge from a random and chaotic phase (Sellnow et al., 2002). Sellnow et al. (2002) posits that the relationship between chaos and order is complex and dynamic. Despite the chaos, tourism operates with some order for the achievement of a new stable and adaptive system (Mckercher, 1999). For example, during a crisis, information dissemination is co-ordinated and information can be assessed on daily basis. In a complex tourism industry tour organizers and managers of hotels, restaurants and tourist attractions can self-organize to satisfy the needs of customers (Mckercher, 1999). Additionally, managers can prepare, train and equip workers to handle the challenges of initial conditions teaching them to ‘organize the chaos’ (Mckercher, 1999; Lemonakis & Zairis, 2019).

Sellnow et al. (2002: 272) observed that “through self-organization, new forms, structures, procedures, hierarchies and understanding emerge, giving a new form to the system, often at a higher level of order and complexity.” Self-organization changes the goals, activities, resource layout and directions of the system. Lemonakis & Zairis (2019) agree that self-organization leads to significant improvements in efficiency, upgrade of human resources, improves performance and increases the value of the system. They maintain that for an organization to self-organize, assessing the current state of the business must be through identifying the self-organization goals and preparing the work

plan. The implementation of the work plan and evaluation of the results helps in successfully repositioning the system through the self-organization process (Lemonakis & Zairis, 2019).

CT encourages synergy, order and pattern (Speakman & Sharpley, 2012) despite the disturbances within the chaotic system (Boukas & Ziakas, 2014). Zahra & Ryan (2007) describe strange attractors as a common vision, strategy or value that is a motivating force for a collection of people to actualize common goals. Similarly, Sellnow et al. (2002) agrees that despite the chaos, the system logically returns to normal through the formation of new behaviours, values, common visions, strategies and codes which are described as strange attractors. Tourists can become strange attractors. As tourists prepare to return to tourism activities post COVID-19 arousal of the tourists' protective behaviour (Rogers, 1975) through the adherence of the WHO protocols led to the prevailing of the tourism system despite the chaos. By fostering collaborative relationships and facilitating methods in which the system can work together toward the attainment of common recovery goals, managers become 'strange attractors' (Speakman & Sharpley, 2012).

Tourism operates at multi-dimensional levels and scales. The factors that influence the system change at various levels but the relationship between each element remains similar, thus the chaos model designed by McKercher (1999) continues to work. These factors help in understanding why tourism defies the top-down control process that is viable in most public sectors. For instance, the multifaceted tourism industry was hit by a global event and the butterfly effect resonated in almost the same manner across the world and altered the tourism system everywhere. Clearly, the COVID-19 pandemic is the butterfly effect that triggered an unexpected sudden change in the entire tourism system. From Wuhan, China, to India, Italy, the UK, the USA, South Africa, Nigeria and other countries devastated by the pandemic, the same measures were enforced by the governments of these countries to stem the further spread of the virus, although these countries announced lockdown and restriction-of-movement orders (MROs) at different times.

Severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) is part of the coronavirus family because of its genetic structure. Many studies (see Bocking, 2003; Booth et al., 2003, Leong, 2003; Au et al., 2005; Cooper, 2005; McKercher & Chon, 2005; and Kuo et al., 2008) give vivid explanations of the global responses to SARS and how the outbreak exemplified the link between travel, tourism and infectious disease. The virus spread from Hong Kong and around the world. Scientists from Hong Kong, Vietnam, Canada, Singapore and several other countries, all coordinated by the WHO, swung into action as the outbreak became evident. Various protocols and guidelines were announced by experts, but the oldest medical techniques to break the chain of infection by 'super spreaders' (individuals with usually large numbers of contacts (Meyers et al., 2005)) and isolating those affected became effective in curbing the spread (Bocking, 2003). The same responses have been applied to the COVID-19 pandemic.

Although the SARS epidemic only affected 29 countries, COVID-19 pandemic cases have been reported in more than 200 countries and territories worldwide (WHO, 2021). The lock-in effect described by CT fits into this scenario as certain responses to SARS are implemented in the COVID-19 case.

Like the SARS crisis, the 2014 outbreak and spread of Ebola virus disease (EVD) in West Africa was attributed to tourists returning home after visiting affected areas (Benavides et al., 2017; Keyes & Benavides, 2018). The first case of EVD in West Africa originated in the Guinea forest in December 2013 and spread rapidly to the bordering countries of Liberia, Sierra Leone, Nigeria, Senegal and Mali, and later to the USA and the UK (Foh, 2015; Mangiarotti, Peyre & Huc, 2016). This spread triggered pandemonium and fear among both affected and unaffected populations so presenting unprecedented challenges in the social and medical sectors which negatively influenced international tourist arrivals to the entire African continent (Novelli et al., 2018). The emergence of fear and loss of confidence in institutions during an epidemic or pandemic concur with findings by Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty (2009) that situations of uncertainty heighten fear due to the complexities of handling crises. CT was applied in managing the Ebola crisis in affected countries by ensuring the safety of tourists and the community, rebuilding the tourism sector and emphasizing how businesses can respond, recover and improve during a surprise or uncertainty (Speakman & Sharpley, 2012; Benavides et al., 2017; Keyes & Benavides, 2018; Novelli et al., 2018).

Boukas & Ziakas (2014) have reiterated that crisis occurrences are chaotic and can occur simultaneously without any linear order. The COVID-19 pandemic is a real-case scenario. Nations were faced and are still facing the reality of the chaos the pandemic created and they are still grappling with the situation. Initially, there was heightened fear and confusion due to the astronomic death figures resulting from the virus. This necessitated an urgent need to understand the context within which the pandemic was occurring, since there is no standardized recipe for confronting crises. The lock-in effect at this early stage became useful and effective. Experiences from handling health crises in the past (such as SARS, EVD and Zika virus) became a guide for trials in understanding how to deal with the coronavirus as scientists swung into action.

This brought a ray of hope out of the initial chaos for one of cohesion and stability (Zahra & Ryan, 2007). Cohesion and stability can be attained after a complex system has survived the chaos (McKercher, 1999; Russell & Faulkner, 2004). Although each element in the system acts independently with unpredictable complex individual behaviour, the whole system works collectively and in an orderly manner that leads to spontaneous order necessitated by strange attractors (McKercher, 1999).



Tourist flows are unpredictable and cannot follow regular trends (Correani & Garofalo, 2008). Chaos theory serves as a creative response for entrepreneurs “to new opportunities which predisposes them to an approach that endeavours to circumvent constraints imposed by the managers, who aim to maintain a steady state through regulations designed to control change” (Russell & Faulkner, 1999: 413). Businesses can self-organize and introduce strange attractors such as free entry or lowering of production costs to favour competition (McKercher, 1999). Tourism can still flourish and continue to attract tourists even if the business environment has been altered due to crises (Sönmez, 1998).

One of the implications of using CT in the tourism system is that the components can be applied to travel decisions (Speakman & Sharples, 2012). Safety in travel can influence tourists’ travel decisions (Sönmez, 1998). Safety, tourists’ self-organization and their behaviour can all change thus leading to a change in destination choice and avoidance of destinations with higher risks. This in turn leads to declining number of visitors (Chen & Noriega, 2004; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2005; Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007; Batra, 2008; Cui et al., 2016). There are three compelling reasons why tourist numbers are declining in post-event unanticipated areas. First, is the resultant effect of the damage inflicted by the event thereby preventing the area from engaging in tourism activities (Laws & Prideaux, 2017; Rosselló et al., 2020). Second, is due to the experiences in and avoidance of unsafe regions (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007; Kozak et al., 2007; Laws & Prideaux, 2017). Third, potential tourists feel uncomfortable and unsafe travelling to regions bedevilled by unexpected events (Laws & Prideaux, 2017; Rosselló et al., 2020). Of course, health security is a basic component of an attractive image that tourists form about a destination before their visit to engage in tourism activities (Alluri, 2009).

Tourism activities are dynamic and operate in a non-linear (complex) system characterized by changes and stimuli which impact tourism businesses (McKercher 1999; Russell & Faulkner, 2004). Tourism activities, especially travel, accelerate the progression of influenza and viruses which spread among people travelling and contacting each other (Brown et al., 2016; Nicolaides et al., 2019) thereby posing a risk to tourism and the world at large (Hall, 2006). In the case of the coronavirus many people who travel would feel at risk at the onset of a pandemic due to the fear of an unknown deadly virus (Hyams et al., 2002). Furthermore, the fear and progression of the spread of SARS were influential in the world’s response to it which was also reflected in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. The SARS butterfly effect, like many other infectious diseases, shows great heterogeneity in transmission among certain travellers being responsible for the spread (Booth et al. 2003; Donnelly et al., 2003) either by super spreaders or ‘super shredders’ (individuals who are unusually effective at excreting the virus into the environment posing great risks to others) (Meyers et al., 2005). For

instance, the international SARS crisis management were based on ideas of early interruption of travel and critical social contacts to avoid the exponential spread for the safety of others (WHO, 2003).

It has been firmly established in the tourism literature that tourism is susceptible to crises and disasters (Huang & Min, 2002; McKercher & Chon, 2004; Ritchie, 2004; Higgins, 2005; Rodway-Dyer & Shaw, 2005; Cheung & Law, 2006; Calgaro & Lloyd, 2008; Su et al., 2012; Yang, Ryan & Zhang, 2013; Ye et al., 2013; Foh, 2015; Mangiarotti, Peyre & Huc, 2016; Malikhao, 2017; Carlino et al., 2008; Benavides et al., 2017; Keyes & Benavides, 2018; Novelli et al., 2018; Tsaur et al., 2018; Gray & Mishtal, 2019; Maphanga & Henama, 2019). However, there is a subtle difference between crises and disasters (Faulkner, 2001). The former is internal and manageable while the latter is external and less predictable, but both involve risk management within a system (Reddy et al, 2020). Tourism is a dynamic, non-linear and complex system that has been described in the chaos paradigm (Mckercher, 1999; Russell & Faulkner, 2004). In this context of a single-event crisis leading to large-scale displacement of systems, CT offers an alternative perspective (Faulkner, 2000) for studying the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses.

### **3.4 CONCLUSION**

The models and theories discussed in this chapter each emphasizes the complex nature of the tourism system. The applicability of each model and theory to managing crises in the tourism system is assessed and the inherent limitations of each one discussed. Chaos does not mean complete disorder. Therefore, chaos theory helps in understanding the concept “that the whole is greater than the sum of the parts and that systems are dynamic and complex” (Zahra & Ryan, 2007: 855). The dynamism inherent in systems is based on the underlying principles governing systems. These principles enable systems to function in an orderly manner that leads to spontaneous order despite the chaotic state of a system. CT has far-reaching implications for avoiding travel and destinations that are considered unsafe. A tourist’s behaviour may change after self-organizing and perceiving that the strange attractors do not outweigh the risk of contracting the COVID-19 at a destination. This eventually affect tourism businesses.

This present study addresses the question of how COVID-19 impacts tourism businesses. CT concepts are central to answering this question. The exercise is premised on the non-linear and non-cyclical fashion of salvaging the complex tourism system during a crisis. The severity of the butterfly effect of the pandemic led to a complete shutdown, ban and restrictions on travel, leaving tourism businesses to suffer losses. However, these losses may not linger for long thanks to the resilience of the tourism system which has a great capacity for adapting and renewing itself after a disequilibrium

event. The next chapter discusses and justifies the methodological choices made for studying the impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State, Nigeria.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

The reviews of the relevant literature and theories in Chapters 2 and 3 have provided a fundamental understanding of unexpected events, especially in respect of the COVID-19 pandemic and its impact on tourism businesses in accordance with chaos theory. This chapter focuses on research philosophy, research methodology and research methods and is structured in two parts. The first part provides context to the philosophy adopted for the research and the second part highlights the research methodological design (including methods) of the study which guided and enabled the entire research process.

#### 4.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

Research is careful and organized inquiry into a field of knowledge undertaken to ascertain facts or principles (Grinnell & Unrau, 2018). It is a journey of discovery, diligent exploration and learning (Fellows & Liu, 2008). Research philosophy is the approach that reflects the values, views and assumptions of researchers regarding the development of knowledge (Saunders et al., 2009; Mkanzi & Acheampong, 2012; Saunders et al., 2015; Thakurta & Chetty, 2015; Muhaise et al., 2020). The position that a researcher takes in choosing an appropriate approach and method for an investigation is influenced by the assumptions and fundamentals that guide a research project. The philosophical assumptions of researchers (Saunders et al., 2009; Saunders et al., 2015; Bryman et al., 2017; Muhaise et al., 2020) involve an attitude to what knowledge is (ontology) as it is known (epistemology) and what values go into it (axiology) and the process of studying them (Adetola, 2014).

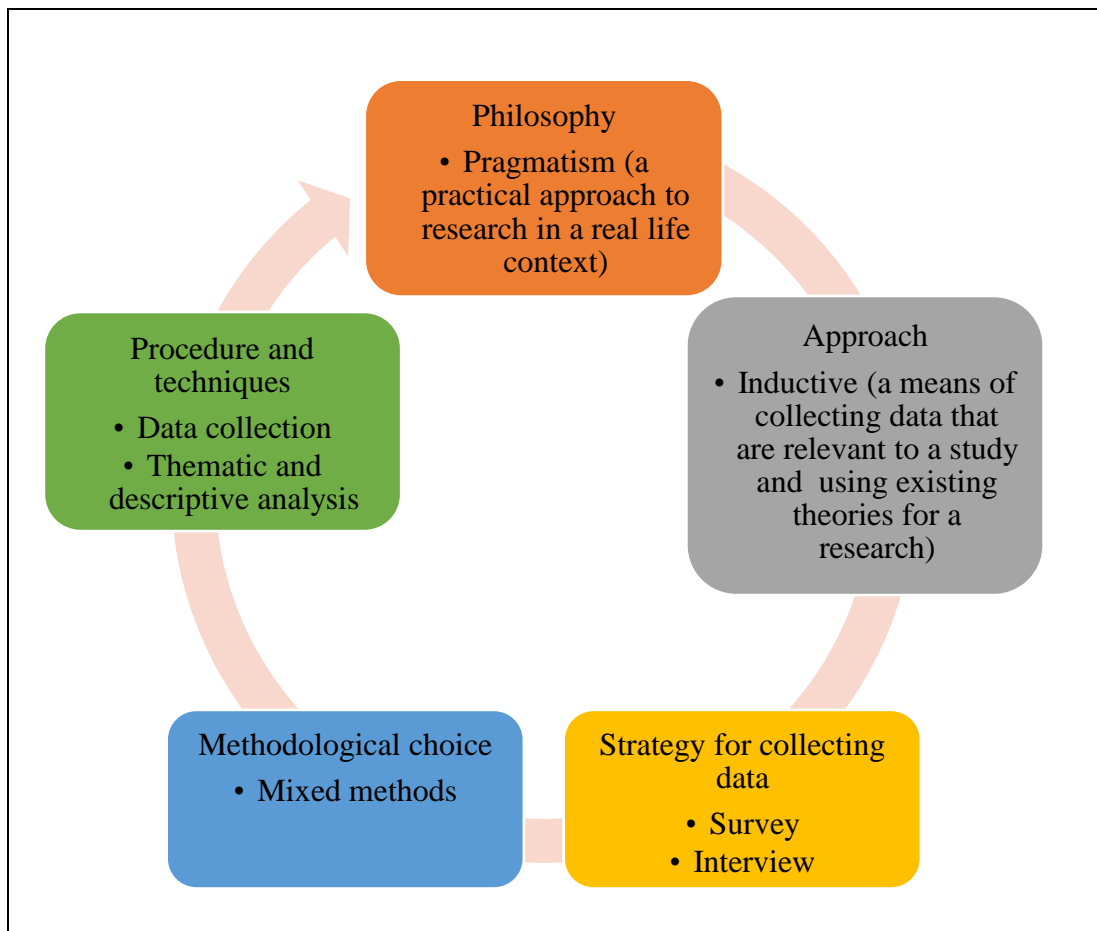
*Epistemology* is concerned with the researcher's perspective of knowledge within the physical and social worlds, how certain facts are and whether research findings can be generalized from the positivist or the interpretivist stance (Saunders et al., 2009; Saunders et al., 2015; Bryman et al., 2017). *Positivism* view research from the lens of a natural scientist to produce law-like generalizations (Saunders et al., 2009; Saunders et al., 2015; Bryman et al., 2017). Positivists are concerned with consistent facts rather than impressions. In this context, research is conducted value-free without human interference to generate uninfluenced and pure data. The research is inductive and highly structured with quantifiable observations. The researcher is completely detached, neutral and independent of what is researched and maintains an objective stance regardless of what the data and findings show (Fellows & Liu, 2008; Saunders et al., 2009; Saunders et al., 2015; Bryman et al., 2017; Muhaise et al., 2020). Generated facts are independent of the observer and "total, objective and

accurate observation would yield consistent perception, same outputs or results, given the same inputs under the same circumstances” (Adetola, 2014: 133). The knowledge that is developed through a positivist approach is based on careful reflexion and measurement through reliable, consistent, objective, valid, reproducible and generalizable processes (Creswell, 2009). *Interpretivism* emphasizes the difference between humans and physical phenomena. People create more meaning for research when the study focuses on people rather than objects like trucks and computers. In this way, humans act as social actors, playing roles on the stage of human life and interpreting those roles based on their understanding. “Crucial to the interpretivist epistemology is that the researcher has to adopt an empathetic stance” (Saunders et al., 2009: 107) to grasp the meaning of social actions and become emancipated (Creswell, 2009).

*Pragmatism* has emerged as a reprieve to the debates on both epistemology and ontology in the sense of a choice between a positivist or an interpretivist philosophy of research (Saunders et al., 2009; Saunders et al., 2015; Muhaise et al., 2020). Pragmatists believe that actions are supported by concepts to make those actions relevant. Early pragmatists such as Charles Pierce, William James and John Dewey made this philosophical stance popular in the late 19th and 20th centuries in the USA. They argued that pragmatism brings together contextualized experiences that eliminate the differences between objectivism and subjectivism (Saunders et al., 2009; Muhaise et al., 2020). The real-world context matters a lot to the pragmatists as specific contexts are not viewed in abstract forms but in the practicality of knowledge applied to solving problems (Creswell, 2014). Rather than dwelling on the concepts of truth and reality, pragmatism emphasizes the influx of processes, experiences and practical solutions and outcomes in a real-life context in promoting equity, freedom and justice as a way of generating practical consequences for society (Creswell, 2014).

The pragmatist philosophical stance was adopted for this study because of the real-world outcomes and applications to improve human life (Brown, 2021). As put forward by Ortega (2005: 430), “any research field in the social sciences has as its ultimate goal the improvement of human life.” Tashakkori & Teddlie (1998: 30) have advocated that one should “study what interests you and is of value to you, study in the different ways in which you deem appropriate and use the results in ways that can bring about positive consequences within your value system.” In this research the *inductive approach* was selected for systematically identifying themes, patterns and regularities in the research data to reach conclusions on the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses. The researcher using the inductive approach as maintained by Creswell (2009: 64) must gather “detailed information from participants and then forms this information into categories or themes. These themes are developed into broad patterns, theories or generalizations that are then compared with

personal experiences or with existing literature on the topic.” The research process adopted is depicted in Figure 4.1.



Source: Researcher's construct, 2021

Figure 4.1 The research process adopted in this study

In this study the data collection, organization and analysis were guided primarily by the pragmatist mixed methods research and the explanatory sequential design matrix (Table 4.1). The sequential design matrix gives detailed procedures and products expected for each step of the study. The study objectives are considered in steps one to five with commensurate procedures and expected products. Considering the multiple steps and procedures for collecting data in this study, the sequential design matrix with a mixed-methods approach was useful in providing data sets for analysis. Quantitative data obtained through questionnaire surveys provided information on tourists' experiences during the COVID-19 pandemic and helped in assessing the economic impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the revenue generation (economy) of tourism businesses. Qualitative data from interviews was used to ascertain the strategies and practices used by managers in managing the risks of the COVID-19

pandemic affecting their businesses in the promotion of tourism activities after the reopening of tourism businesses.

Table 4.1 Sequential design matrix for the study of COVID-19 and tourism businesses

<b>STEPS</b>	<b>PROCEDURES</b>	<b>PRODUCTS</b>
1. Investigate tourists' experiences during the COVID-19 pandemic.	Survey tourists	Generate quantitative data on how domestic tourists' patronage of tourist destinations has been affected by COVID-19.
2. Assess the economic impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the revenue generation (economy) of tourism businesses.	Survey tourism business managers (sample frame obtained from the Plateau State Tourism Corporation)	Generate quantitative data on how tourism businesses' revenue has been affected by COVID-19.
3. Determine the experiences of managers in their managing of tourism businesses during the COVID-19 pandemic.	Interview selected business managers	Generate qualitative data on how managers were able to manage tourism businesses during the COVID-19 pandemic (survival, adaptation or collapse).
4. Ascertain the strategies and practices used by managers in managing the risks of the COVID-19 pandemic affecting their businesses in the promotion of tourism activities after the reopening of tourism businesses.	Interview selected business managers	Generate qualitative data on strategies used by managers in managing the risks of the COVID-19 pandemic affecting their businesses in the promotion of tourism activities after the reopening of tourism businesses.
5. Establish how qualitative findings add to the understanding of tourists' behaviour towards tourism businesses due to the COVID-19 pandemic.	Survey and interview integration	Quantitative and qualitative data to establish how pandemics (COVID-19) can impact tourists' behaviour towards tourism businesses which affects revenue generation and what strategies have been employed by managers for managing tourism businesses during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Source: Author's construct, 2021

The sequential research matrix also offered guidance for the proper targeting of the study population.

### 4.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGICAL CHOICE AND DESIGN

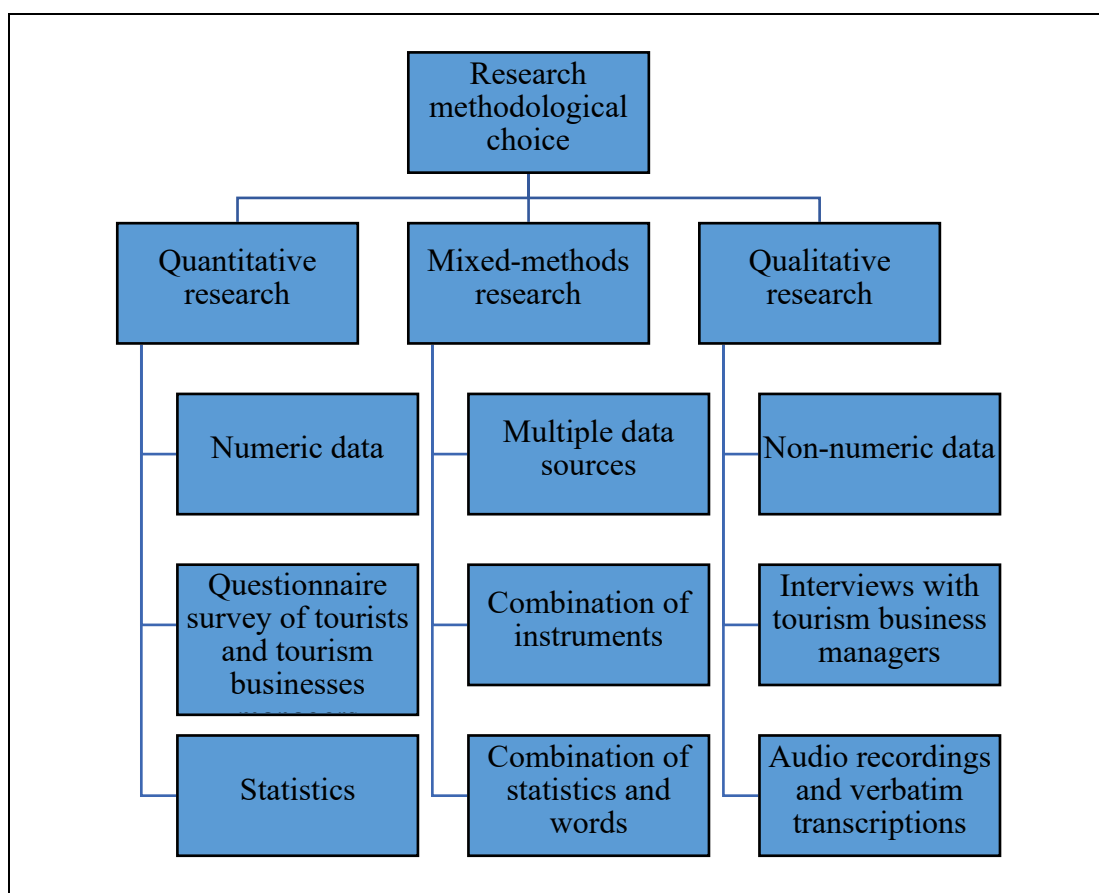
Research methodology is a set-out plan or procedure for a study that includes research philosophy, investigation strategies, research methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation (Creswell, 2009). This research project was conceived from the need for a detailed and comprehensive understanding of the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State, Nigeria, using chaos theory as a point of departure. Given that the research was conducted employing mixed methods, it was possible to use a variety of research strategy to collect data, generate new insights, avoid distorted findings and maximize the richness of the discussions (Creswell et al., 2003; Creswell, 2009; Guetterman, Fetters & Creswell, 2015; Muller-Bloch & Kranz, 2015; Burch & Heinrich, 2016; Bryman et al., 2017; Miles, 2017).

Research requires a multiplicity of approaches and methods of enquiry (Winchester & Rofe, 2010) and the research methodology choice is a concrete aspect of research design that highlights the researcher's choice to adopt a quantitative, qualitative, or mixed-method research design (Creswell et al., 2003; Morgan, 2007; Creswell, 2009; Greene & Hall, 2010). Mixed methods research (MMR) is based on a pragmatic research philosophy and involves the integration of qualitative and quantitative methods to strengthen interpretations through triangulation (Ivankova, Creswell & Stick, 2006; Brown, 2021).

No research strategy is superior or inferior, the most important criterion is which one meets one's research objectives and philosophical underpinnings (Saunders et al., 2009). MMR is a choice for conducting research that involves "an empirical study of a phenomenon in its real-world context" using multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 2014: 16). MMR is widely used in explanatory and exploratory research, and data collection techniques are diverse and are used in combinations which draws heavily on pragmatism (Merriam, 1988; Creswell, 2002; Creswell et al., 2003; Robson, 2002; Yin, 2003; Creswell, 2009; Saunders et al., 2009; Yin 2009; Zhanga, 2014; Bryman et al., 2017) as an alternative to other paradigms in social science research (Bryman, 2006; Morgan, 2007; Bryman et al., 2017).

Creswell (2015: 2) defines MMR as "[a]n approach to research in the social, behavioral, and health sciences in which the investigator gathers both quantitative (closed-ended) and qualitative (open-ended) data, integrates the two, and then draws interpretations based on the combined strengths of both sets of data to understand research problems." In the light of the foregoing, the MMR afforded the researcher an opportunity to generate and integrate data from multiple sources (qualitative and quantitative). The methodological choice for this study is MMR and is depicted in Figure 4.2.





Source: Author's construct, 2021

Figure 4.2 MMR methodological choice

Apart from contributing to “deeper in-depth analyses of research questions, mixed methods research also has an important part to play in reaching diverse audiences and overcoming challenges associated with certain research settings” (Angouri, 2010: 39). The pragmatist MMR also absolves the researcher of the limitations in data generation (Morgan, 2007; Feilzer, 2009). MMR was essential for this study since the study population comprised of diverse participants

For this inductive research, quantitative data was collected through questionnaire survey and qualitative data through face-to-face interviews. Primary data were generated from the interviews and the questionnaires, while secondary data relating to unexpected events, past pandemics and the COVID-19 pandemic were obtained from articles published in peer-reviewed journals as well as textbooks, newspapers and websites which were relevant and helpful in generating ideas and facts relating to the study.

#### 4.4 SAMPLING DESIGN

It is time-consuming to collect data from a large population that is not easily accessible, hence the need for a sample of the population to represent the whole population from which to draw inferences, conclusions or generalizations (Laxton, 2004; Bryman et al., 2017; Robbins, Ghosh-Dastidar & Ramchand, 2019; Yang, Kim & Song, 2020). In both qualitative and quantitative research, to ensure that inferences and conclusions indicate the true nature of an entire population requires that representative samples are selected (Laxton, 2004; Tashakkori & Teddie, 2010; Bryman et al., 2017).

Probability and non-probability sampling are two sampling techniques to ensure representativeness. Probability gives each entity in a population an equal chance of selection (Laxton, 2004; Bryman et al., 2017; Robbins et al., 2019; Yang, Kim & Song, 2020; Stratton, 2021). This technique requires a selection framework appropriate to answer the research questions by ensuring that different sections of the population have an equal chance of selection (Berndt, 2020). Probability sampling assumes a normal distribution, which allows random selection to be achieved. It is commonly used in quantitative research. Types of probability sampling are random, stratified, systematic, and multilevel sampling. Conversely, non-probability sampling is a method in which the population is not evenly distributed and each part does not have an equal chance of being selected. Examples of non-probability sampling are purposive, quota, snowball, and convenience sampling (Bryman et al., 2017; Bacher, Lemcke, Quatember & Schmich, 2019; Robbins et al., 2019; Yang, Kim & Song, 2020; Stratton, 2021).

The selection of individuals to be sampled varies according to the type of research. It has been established (Patten, 2016; Crick, 2021; Gioia, 2021; Hays & McKibben, 2021) that qualitative researchers prefer the use of informed judgment (decision based on the knowledge of a subject or situation) in the selection of samples, whereas random selection is preferred in quantitative research. The disadvantage of informed judgment is the lack of justification for sampling in qualitative research which can lead to unwanted generalizations (Robinson, 2014). But an advantage of qualitative enquiry is the suitability of the process as a source of information (Bradshaw & Stratford, 2010; Corbin & Strauss, 2015).

The selection of samples for quantitative and qualitative research can be based on familiar knowledge and good judgment (Denscombe, 2014) but in qualitative research knowledge and judgment must be complemented by objectivity, depth and availability of information irrespective of the number of respondents whereas in quantitative research subjectivity and a large sample size are preferable (Laxton, 2004; Bradshaw & Stratford, 2010; Patten, 2016; Berndt, 2020). A complex study using a combination of qualitative and quantitative (mixed methods) research requires more than one

sampling strategy that includes both probability and non-probability sampling techniques (Sharp et al., 2012; Bryman et al., 2017).

#### 4.4.1 Sampling population for questionnaire survey

This study's target sample population for the questionnaire survey comprised international, domestic or proximate tourists and tourism business managers (TBMs) (see Table 4.2). A sampling frame of the list of registered hotels and guest houses, restaurants and established tourist attractions in the study area was obtained from the Plateau State Tourism Corporation (PSTC). For the selection of sample sites from the sample frame (total population) where to undertake the questionnaire survey, stratified random sampling was used to ensure equal chance of selection for each group of tourism businesses.

Table 4.2 Sample population for questionnaire survey

<b>Sample population for questionnaire survey</b>
<p>*International, domestic and proximate tourists</p> <p>*Tourism business managers</p> <p>-For the selection of tourism businesses sample sites- stratified random sampling was utilized.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Population was divided into 3 sub-populations based on business type</li> <li>2. Various tourism businesses were categorized and numbered separately.</li> <li>3. 10 tourist attractions were purposely selected</li> </ol> <p>-For the selection of participants (international, domestic or proximate tourists) convenience sampling was utilized.</p> <p>-For the selection of participants (TBMs): whole population was used for questionnaire.</p>

The population was divided into three sub-populations based on business type (Table 4.3). The various tourism businesses were categorized and numbered separately and 20% of tourism accommodation establishments and restaurants and 10 tourist attractions were purposely selected and were deliberately chosen based on their popularity and the researchers' knowledge of the businesses. Twenty per cent of tourism accommodation establishments and restaurants was derived from prior knowledge of response rate in the study area to reflect the population that provides the most meaningful information. This is also supported by scholars (Brunt, Horner & Semley, 2017). Due to the small size of tourist attractions, 10 tourist attractions were selected to account for

representativeness based on the location of the tourist attractions (Israel, 1992). The tourist questionnaire survey was done at various selected sites.

Table 4.3 Registered tourism businesses in the study area and sample sizes for each

<b>Tourism Business</b>	<b>Total Number</b>	<b>Total selected sites for questionnaire survey</b>
Tourism accommodation (hotels and guest houses)	162	32 (20%)
Restaurants	55	11 (20%)
Tourist attractions	10	10 (100%)
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>227</b>	<b>53 (23%)</b>

Source: Plateau State Tourism Corporation (2021)

The selection of participants (international and domestic or proximate tourists) in the questionnaire survey was done by convenience sampling. Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique that selects participants based on willingness and availability to participate in a study (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016; Stratton, 2021). Convenience sampling has been used successfully in similar research (Kim, 2018; Sharma & Nayak, 2019). The tourists visiting Plateau State (Jos North and Jos South) were considered to be the target population. Prospective participants were approached in areas where the chances of finding tourists were most probable such as at the tourist attractions, restaurants and selected hotels. Considering that the large number of tourists visiting tourism businesses is unspecified or unknown, random sampling was not feasible or practical because tourists could not be sampled in an uncontrolled environment hence, the use of convenience sampling (Stratton, 2021).

Although convenience sampling was used in this study, Cochran's (1963) sample size formula (used to calculate sample size for populations that are large with unknown variability to yield a representative sample for proportions) was used to determine the study's sample size (Cochran 1963 cited in Israel, 1992). The sample size formula is given as follows:

$$n_o = \frac{Z^2 Pq}{e^2}$$

Where,

$n_o$  is the sample size

$Z^2$  is the abscissa of the normal curve (a value of 1.96 is given for  $Z$  and is found in statistical tables which contain the area under the normal curve that represents the confidence level)

$e$  is the desired level of precision

$p$  is the estimated proportion of an attribute that is present in the population and

$q$  is 1-p.

Assuming  $p=0.5$  (maximum variability), 95% confidence level and  $\pm 5\%$  precision (Israel, 1992). In determining the sample size for this study, the level of precision, level of confidence and the degree of variability were considered. For a representative sample, 95% confidence level was used at  $\pm 5\%$  precision level. The sample size for this study is calculated as follows:

$$n_o = \frac{Z^2 Pq}{e^2} = \frac{(1.96^2)(0.5)(0.5)}{(0.05)^2}$$

$$n_o = 385$$

From the calculated sample size, the questionnaire was to be administered to 385 tourists. However, the size of the sample was increased by 10% to make allowance for potential nonresponses (Israel, 1992; Martinez-Mesa, Gonzalez-Chica, Bastos, Bonamigo & Duquia, 2014). Accordingly, a total of 426 tourists were approached in the survey. Out of 426 questionnaires received from respondents, 18 were excluded due to their being incompletely filled in. A total of 408 questionnaires were retained for processing. Table 4.4 gives a summary of the data collection and percentage of response rates which are extraordinarily high for a questionnaire survey.

Table 4.4 Questionnaire survey response rates

<b>Data collection method</b>	<b>Proposed number of participants</b>	<b>Completed number of questionnaires</b>	<b>Percentage of completed questionnaires</b>
Tourists' questionnaire	426	408	96%
Manager's questionnaire	227	209	92%

Considering the smaller population of tourism business managers (TBMs), the entire population of tourism business population (227) was used. Full coverage was opted for because it "eliminates sampling error and provides data on all the individuals in the population" (Israel, 1992: 2). A total of 227 questionnaire was administered to TBMs and 209 usable copies were returned.

#### 4.4.2 Sampling population for interviews

Table 4.5 presents the sample population for the interview. The TBMs were selected for interviews using purposive sampling of the most popular hotels, guest houses and restaurants. A stratified random sample comprising of 24 tourism accommodation (hotels and guesthouses), 10 restaurants and 10 tourist attractions in the study area were selected from the sample frame. Interviews were conducted with the managers who consented to be interviewed.

Table 4.5 Sample population for interview

<b>Sample population for questionnaire survey</b>
*Tourism business managers (TBMs)  -For the selection of participants (TBMs): stratified random sampling was used to select 44 participants but also purposive sampling was used for interviews.

Of the 44 TBMs selected for interviewing, 24 consented, 19 declined and the manager at one of the hotels was unreachable for an interview due to a workers' union industrial dispute. Table 4.6 shows the interview response rates.

Table 4.6 Interview response rates

<b>Data collection method</b>	<b>Proposed number of participants</b>	<b>Completed number of interviews</b>	<b>Percentage of completed interviews</b>
Managers interviews	44	24	55%

In addition to sample selection, various methods and materials were employed and these are discussed in the following section.

#### 4.5 STRATEGY: METHOD AND MATERIAL FOR DATA COLLECTION

In addressing the study's objectives, Morrison (1988) maintain that besides having a good sample size useful data needs to be collected properly. Both primary and secondary data were used in this study. Primary data was generated using questionnaires, while interviews were used to collect mainly qualitative data from TBMs. Secondary data was also collected through archival sources. Maps needed for the study were sourced from the map library of the GIS (geographic information system) laboratory, Department of Geography and Planning, University of Jos, Nigeria. Audio-tape recorder

was used to record interviews while the Garmin GPSMAP 78c waterproof marine geographical position system (GPS) receiver were collected from the Department of Geography and Planning, University of Jos and were used to take coordinates of visited tourist sites for map generation.

#### **4.5.1 Questionnaires and method of collection**

Quantitative data for this study was collected through questionnaire survey. To ensure proper data were collected a pilot test (Cooper & Schlinder, 2001) was conducted to detect any weaknesses and problems in the proto-questionnaire design (instructions and questions) and the survey procedure. The six pilot respondents were informed of the purpose of the study and their consent to participate in the test was obtained. The pilot test was conducted on 4 January 2021 to determine whether the questionnaire assessed what it was intended to do, validated the data collection method, was understandable and whether the responses received provided the information sought. The pilot test resulted in changes to the instruments, namely improving the instructions, changing the wording of the questions, shortening the questionnaire by omitting some irrelevant questions, changing the style of the questions and changing the order of the questions to ensure a more logical flow.

The criteria for including respondents in the survey to collect the quantitative data were all willing and consenting international, domestic and proximate tourists, and TBMs in Jos. The criteria for excluding tourists and TBMs were non-consent or declining to take part in the questionnaire survey. Respondents in the survey were sampled using a combination of convenience and purposive sampling over a period of four months (January to April 2021).

The convenience-purposive sampling decision enabled the researcher to easily access research respondents. Although respondents were security conscious due to the high incidence of kidnapping in Plateau State and Nigeria in general, they were willing to participate on the assurance it was solely for academic purposes and no vital information such as their name or contact information was asked in the tourist questionnaire. Attacks by armed bandits in communities sharing boundaries with Jos North and Jos South local government areas (LGAs) caused a great deal of inconvenience for the participants and interviewers (field workers). Some contacted interviewees declined to participate while other interviews were rescheduled following rumours of planned terrorist or bandit attacks in Jos North LGA.

These rumours became true when communities in Jos North were attacked by bandits two weeks after completion of data collection exercise in the study area. This led to a declaration of a 24-hour curfew in Jos North LGA by the Plateau State government (PSG) on 15 August 2021, subsequently relaxed on 18 August 2021. The PSG had to reimpose the curfew in Jos North on August 25 2021 following

growing tension arising from the attack on Yelwa Zangam village in Jos North LGA where people were killed and properties destroyed.

To decrease the potential for sampling error, the sample size was increased to allow for questionnaires not being filled in completely. To decrease the potential for sampling bias (Laxton, 2004; Creswell, 2009; Bryman et al., 2017) the study population all had a chance to be selected for inclusion in the interviews and questionnaire surveys, irrespective of gender, religion, tribe or ethnicity. To decrease the potential for non-sampling error (Laxton, 2004; Creswell, 2009; Bryman et al., 2017) the researcher avoided leading questions, assured respondents of their anonymity and the confidentiality of their answers and tried to decrease the potential for biased communication not to influence the responses by respondents.

To ensure adequate representation, respondents at tourist attractions and restaurants were sampled at various times in mornings and afternoons before business closing times. Although hotels and guest houses had closing times, security reasons demanded that participants at these establishments were sampled during the day. Word of mouth alerted prospective participants to the study and when approached their willingness to participate was sort.

Having been assured of confidentiality and anonymity, the respondents were issued the respondent recruitment and consent forms to sign (Appendixes A and B), the questionnaire was completed and retrieved on the spot. The researcher personally thanked each respondent and re-emphasized that all responses will be treated anonymously and with the utmost confidentiality. The data generated from the questionnaire were coded and later analyzed using appropriate inferential and descriptive statistical techniques.

The instrument for collecting the quantitative data is a self-explanatory questionnaire designed to be self-completed by a respondent (see Appendix C for tourist questionnaire and Appendix E for TBMs questionnaire). The questionnaire comprises closed and open-ended questions constructed and administered to respondents for choosing the alternatives that best describe their opinions using the Likert scales to rate such variables and for writing their opinions as answers to the questions.

The mixed methods explanatory design used for this research involved the administration of the questionnaire to elicit information on the experiences of tourists during the COVID-19 pandemic and assess the economic impacts of the pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State using chaos theory (see Section 1.3). Although questionnaire surveys often have low response rates (Laxton, 2004; Bryman et al., 2017), they were very high in this study and produced analysable data inexpensively.



The data collected through the questionnaire survey are unlikely to be as comprehensive as those collected through other research strategies (Saunders et al., 2009), hence they are less useful in situations where human actions in a social context are to be understood (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). In the latter case interviewing participants is more appropriate. To enhance the value of the survey data a range of additional qualitative information was obtained through interviews conducted with individuals. The next subsection describes the interview process and the interview schedule.

#### **4.5.2 Method for the interviews and the interview guide**

Information “can be collected from numerous sources such as documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant observation and physical artifacts” (Yin, 2014: 99). Interview entails the exchange of information verbally through a face-to-face process, although telephonic interviews are also useful for obtaining information (Groves, 1990 cited in Dunn, 2010). Interviews aid in understanding views expressed during a survey as a source of evidence (Yin, 2003; Yin, 2014). Interviews are verbal conversations between two or more people to collect information for research purposes (Saunders et al., 2016). Interviews are useful in exploring “the experiences of participants and the meanings they attribute to these experiences” (Kavita, 2014: 68). This method is useful in addressing descriptive and explanatory questions to understand people’s behaviour, opinions, perceptions, attitudes and their experiences of events (Cooper & Schlinder, 2001). This study’s mixed-methods explanatory design involved connecting the results obtained from the questionnaire survey to help plan the interviewing of the TBMs. This approach was effective because interviews help investigate complex behaviours and motivations, interviewees can be probed and individuals’ responses can help to explain the quantitative results.

Three pilot test interviewees were selected and informed about the study and their verbal and written consent obtained to participate in the pilot test. The original set of interview questions was asked on 4 May 2020 by the researcher to test the individuals’ responses if the questions assessed what it should and was comprehensible. The pilot test led to amendments being made to the interview schedule, namely altering question wording, omitting some irrelevant questions and changing question style to provide a more logical flow. The answers from the pilot test were not included in the study. Assurances were given to participants about the confidentiality and anonymity of their responses. After the pilot test, participants for the study were later sampled using a combination of convenience and purposive sampling. Interviews were then conducted with the research participants within three months (May to July 2021) to answer the fourth and fifth research objectives (see Section 1.3).

The criteria for selection as an interviewee participant were being a registered tourism business manager in Jos willing and agreed to being interviewed at a place of convenience, such as at the

business premises. The TBMs were excluded if they did not give consent via SMS when asked or declined outright to take part. The selection of a sample of participants from the sample frame (total population) was done by separately categorizing, numbering and arranging alphabetically all the registered tourism businesses and then applying stratified random sampling to purposively select the business managers in Jos who agreed to be interviewed.

The size of the sample was based on previous qualitative tourism and hospitality studies in which samples ranged from 14 to over 30 interview participants (Yap & Ineson, 2009; Phelan, 2015; Kaushal & Srivastava, 2021). In this study the 44 TBMs originally approached for participation were reduced to 24 consenting participants representing a 55% response rate. Face-to-face and telephone interviews were carried out at the time of the first contact, at the option of the participants. Eighteen interviews were conducted face-to-face while six were conducted telephonically. The participants were managers of hotels, guest houses, restaurants and 10 tourist attractions. The interview questions were extracted from the fourth and fifth objectives (see Section 1.3) comprising of five sections. A semi-structured face-to-face interview lasting about 50 minutes was conducted with each participant and detailed notes were taken by the researcher and the conversations were audio-taped for verbatim transcription. The telephone interview lasting about 40 minutes was conducted with each participant and the conversations were also recorded for verbatim transcription. The style of questioning was formal to elicit information from the participants' perceptions and experiences during the COVID-19 pandemic. Protocol of ethics of confidentiality and anonymity was followed. The information obtained from the interviews was later subjected to thematic analysis.

In this study, face-to-face interviews were used to establish participants' meanings, actions, contexts, and perceptions (Neuman, 2003). Approval and consent were obtained from participants and they were asked to sign the written informed consent form (Appendix D). Interviewing was done because it allowed the interviewer to give explanations to the respondents when necessary for clarity and to get personal responses that might not have been possible through a questionnaire survey. Interviewing also allowed the researcher to make probing inquiries into the responses made by participants. This is important to gather relevant information that may not have been thought of or fully thought through. The face-to-face interviews with the consenting TBMs were conducted to establish their roles in influencing the promotion of tourism in Plateau State (see Appendix F for example of recruitment and consent form).

These interviews aimed to gain a broader and deeper understanding of the business management practices and the risk management strategies for promotion of tourism activities after the reopening of tourism businesses in Plateau State after the COVID-19 pandemic (see Appendix G for an example of the interview guide). The interview information was obtained to complement the other data sets

needed to achieve the study objectives. The revelations made by the interactions with the TBMs pointed to a need for additional documentary data to validate some of the information that emerged. Hence, the need for secondary information.

#### **4.5.3 Archival data**

Secondary data were collected from various sources. Results obtained from the interviews and questionnaires were corroborated using secondary data through the process of triangulation to eliminate chances of bias (Yin, 2014; Bryman et al., 2017). Triangulation involves the combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods to corroborate, supplement or complement the validity of research findings (Kavita, 2014; Yin, 2014; Bryman et al., 2017). The relevant materials used in this research to triangulate are documents of business management practices and risk management strategies obtained from the interviewed TBMs in Jos to help understand how tourism business managers managed their businesses and dealt with the risks of the COVID-19 pandemic affecting their businesses. This need for triangulation was indicated by the preliminary results from the questionnaire survey and interviews.

The data obtained from the documents complemented the interview and survey data sets used to address the research objectives (fourth and fifth) of examining the business practices employed by tourism businesses during the COVID-19 pandemic and evaluating the risk management strategies of restaurants, hotels, guest houses and tourist attractions in the promotion of their tourism activities after the reopening of tourism businesses. In addition, relevant literature was obtained from online sources, journal articles, news reports and conference papers on tourists' behaviour towards tourism businesses and the economic impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses. This information was also used to corroborate primary information obtained by the questionnaire survey and interviews. The important issue of the validity and reliability of the acquired data is assessed next.

#### **4.6 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF DATA**

The positivist paradigm requires that two main issues be considered in order to ensure that research data is of satisfactory quality to enable inferences that are applicable in real-world contexts. They are validity and reliability. Validity is the extent to which the data collected reflects the phenomenon being studied and the accuracy of the data obtained from the field (Laxton, 2004; Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006). Reliability refers to the extent to which the results achieved are unbiasedly the same from one occasion to another, are consistent and generate understanding (Laxton 2004; Yin, 2014; Bryman et al., 2017). Although there is no independent framework for quality assessment in mixed

methods (O’Cathaian, 2010), there are criteria to ensure validity and reliability in quantitative and qualitative research (Adetola, 2014; Bryman et al., 2017).

Reliability is distinct from validity because validity is about whether there is interference consistent with the results. If a measure is valid, it is reliable, but a reliable measure does not mean that it is also valid because you can reliably measure something other than what you want to measure (Veal, 2011). In this research, validity was ensured by using instruments that satisfactorily assessed the theoretical constructs of the literature review (see Chapters 2 and 3) and using multiple techniques to interview research participants. One can assume that the research has gained validity.

Moreover, care was taken that all the questions were answered when respondents had difficulties in understanding certain questions, clarifications were given by the researcher and/or field assistants who were competently trained in the skills of data collection (see Appendix I for an example of the field assistants’ research recruitment and confidentiality form). Standardized instruments, guidelines and training protocols were also used to ensure that the questions covered the theory and the study contexts. One of the aims of this study was to provide a complete description of the approaches, the choices made and the procedures followed in the research design (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006).

These precautions were taken to help designers of similar studies to determine the extent of transferability to the development of their studies and permit adequate comparisons (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). Validity and reliability were also promoted by increasing the sample size and by choosing non-disruptive environments in which to conduct the interviews. Triangulation was used to test credibility which is also a means of assessing dependability (Bryman, 2006; Bryman et al., 2017). Attention was also paid to the processes followed in the research and attempts were made to ensure that each process was clear, systematic and well documented.

#### **4.7 TECHNIQUE FOR DATA ANALYSIS**

Numerical codes were assigned to the quantitative data collected from the questionnaire survey. Respondents were asked to rank their responses to some of the questions on a provided Likert scale. The data were cleaned and validated, and then entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (IBM SPSS, version 23). Numeric coding for quantitative analysis differs from qualitative coding. Quantitative analysis converts the coding of raw data into numeric representations to enable statistical analysis of the aggregated data (Veal, 2011). The coded data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistical methods. The results were appropriately presented in tables and graphics. Basic descriptive statistics were used to further organize and present the results. To

safeguard the veracity of the data and the wholesomeness of the questionnaire, accuracy checks were carried on the data input and again after some corrections were made.

The qualitative data were transcribed verbatim using the descriptive qualitative tools Otter.ai and Sonix.ai applications. The transcripts were later processed, edited and analyzed. Based on the study objectives, the frequency with which specific words appeared were counted and the emerging themes in the transcripts were classified. Scharkow (2013), Zhu, Duncan & Tucker (2017); Song, Park & Park (2020) and Berbekova, Uysal & Assaf (2021) have observed that thematic analysis helps to evaluate textual information, examines patterns in the datasets and describes the phenomenon under study. Using themes to study patterns proved to be the most appropriate way for evaluating the business management practices and the risk management strategies of restaurants, hotels, guest houses and tourist attractions in the promotion of tourism activities after the reopening of tourism businesses in the study area. The next section considers some ethical issues and field experiences.

#### **4.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS AND FIELD EXPERIENCE**

This research project was approved by the Stellenbosch University Research Ethics Committee: Social, Behavioural, and Education Research (SU-REC: SBER, Project No. 18 978, 19 November 2020) (see Appendix J). Research that involves engagement with human or animal subjects inevitably raises ethical issues (Munford et al., 2008; Babbie & Mouton, 2009; DuBois & Antes, 2018; Soulsbury et al., 2020; Comiskey, 2021). Research in the social science domain entails the understanding of and how to deal with such ethical issues when they arise according to agreed principles and guidelines (DuBois & Antes, 2018; Sisk & Dubois, 2020; Comiskey, 2021). The integrity of research is enhanced by observing these principles and guidelines to the letter (Munford et al., 2009; DuBois & Antes, 2018; Soulsbury et al., 2020; Comiskey, 2021). In this research these guidelines were considered at the outset and they were duly observed at the various stages of data collection. They involved voluntary participation, no harm or loss to participants, informed consent, anonymizing and confidentiality.

A crucial part of the process was the receipt of the approval and ethical clearance from the Stellenbosch University Research Ethics Committee (see Appendix J for research approval notice) before commencement of participant recruitment and data collection. The research did not involve vulnerable groups or persons nor any sensitive social issue. Consequently, the COVID-19 pandemic and the associated health risks led to the grading of the research as a medium-risk project. Furthermore, informed consent guided the selection of participants as only those who willingly agreed to partake in the field survey and have their interviews recorded were recruited for the research (see

Appendix B for example of informed consent form). Consent was evidenced by documenting dates, signatures and the verbal consent of participants and the researcher before each data collection session. Care was taken to observe every aspect of the researchers' responsibilities enshrined in the University's ethical clearance approval letter, including the recruitment of a psychologist during the survey (see Appendix H for example of the research recruitment and confidentiality form). For added security all the raw field data were stored in a locked fireproof cabinet and transcribed interviews were computer passworded. In data analysis and reporting the use of pseudonyms helped to anonymize research participants, hence the names reported in this study are not the true identities of the persons interviewed.

Following the approval and ethical clearance of the research by SU-REC: SBER (Project No. 18 978) in November 2020, the researcher commenced fieldwork on January 11, 2021. The early commencement of data collection helped to successfully drive the research process.

#### **4.9 CONCLUSION**

In this chapter, the research philosophy and research design were discussed and the chosen research methodology and methods used were justified. The convergence of qualitative and quantitative methods led to the adoption of the pragmatic philosophical mixed methods approach to understand the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses using a chaos theory approach. The mixed-methods approach mined multiple sources of data. The quality of these multiple data was evaluated using a validity and reliability framework.

Having discussed the research methodological stance, the empirical results and findings of the study are presented in the following set of three chapters, beginning in Chapter 5 with the discussion of the experiences of tourists in Plateau State during the pandemic.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **TOURIST EXPERIENCES DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC IN PLATEAU STATE, NIGERIA**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

Crises impact the tourism industry and affect the behaviour of tourists and residents patronizing tourism businesses. Due to their nature, health crises and pandemics are taken seriously as they pose great risks to tourists and the tourism system. The spreading of COVID-19 is especially common where many people gather in places such as restaurants, hotels, tourist attractions, institutional settings and mass transportation networks. The virus spreads easily from touching contaminated surfaces and coming unprotected into contact with individuals who have contracted the virus. This contagious disease's threat and unpredictability often affects tourists' behaviour (Sng, Neuberg, Varnum & Kendrick, 2018).

One of the safest ways of preventing the spreading of the virus is through appropriate individual behaviour. Avoidance of places that may increase the probability of contracting or spreading the disease helps to lower the risk of infection. Besides, one of the proven barriers to disease transmission is healthy behaviour. This chapter addresses the experiences of tourists in Plateau State during the COVID-19 pandemic (research objective 2) and first examines tourism development in Plateau State (PS) and the COVID-19 situation in Nigeria and PS. This is followed by an analysis of tourists' experiences during the pandemic in PS. The demographic characteristics of the survey participants, the analysis of survey participants' responses regarding tourists' activities during the COVID-19 pandemic and tourists' protective behaviour during the pandemic are presented here. Tourism, infrastructure and the development of facilities are taken up first.

#### **5.2 TOURISM, INFRASTRUCTURE AND FACILITIES DEVELOPMENT IN PLATEAU STATE**

Variety of tourist attractions exist in Nigeria such as extensive river and sea "beaches ideal for swimming and other water sports, unique wildlife, vast areas of unspoiled nature ranging from tropical forests to magnificent waterfalls, some new fast-growing cities and climatic conditions in some parts" that are particularly holiday-promoting (Akukwe & Odum, 2014: 109). Other attractions include unique climate and weather patterns across the 36 states, fascinating traditional ways of life,

rich and varied handicrafts, colourful art products, and the authentic, easy-going but friendly attitude of many Nigerian communities (Akukwe & Odum, 2014).

PS is recognized as Nigeria's premier tourist paradise. The history of tourism development in the state followed national trends. In order to achieve and maintain a leadership position by capitalizing on the rich potential of tourism, the state government formed the Plateau State Tourism Corporation (PSTC) in 1986 to develop, market, and promote the industry under the Tourism Division of the State Department of Commerce and Industry. The corporation was charged with the responsibility of managing some hotels which hitherto had been the responsibility of the Plateau Hotels and Tourism Company. The corporation was charged with developing and managing the Mado and Pandam Tourist Villages, Assop Falls, Jos Wildlife Park, and the Wase and Pandam game reserves.

Apart from the state government encouraging private participation to boost the development of the tourism industry, it has also entered into partnerships with private investors and it has been active in providing basic infrastructure to further attract private investment in tourism. In pursuance of its ambitious goal of making PS the best centre of tourist attractions in Africa, the Tourism Endowment Fund was launched in 1991 when ₦35 000 000 (USD91 860) was realized on the spot. The state's Tourism Corporation organizes *Discover Plateau* tours to some tourist sites and participates in the World Tourism Day at the end of each September. It has also set up tourist information posts (TIPs) at strategic locations in Jos (Gontul, Oche & Daloeng, 2007).

Under the leadership of the then Governor Dariye, the state now has a Ministry of Tourism and Culture, which evolved from the Ministry of Commerce and Tourism. This is seen as a bold move to invigorate and focus more on the country's tourism sector. The efforts made by the government over the years to develop the state's tourism sector have earned the state the nickname *Home of Peace and Tourism*, which is the motto of the state. The slogan aims to strengthen the country's image as a country-wide unique travel destination. The justification for PS being the home of peace and tourism comes from the state with pleasant weather amid a hot tropical savannah, receptive and hospitable people, and being the land of beauty and abundance (Gontul et al., 2007). The colonial masters took advantage of this and developed Jos as a holiday town for their officers serving in other parts of the country. This led to the establishment of "two Catering Rest Houses in the city, which later transformed into the present-day Hill Station Hotel and Plateau Hotel, and the Jos Museum, 'the first purpose-built' in Nigeria" (PSG (Plateau State Government) 2020: 11).

The clement weather gave PS a boost as more tourists from other parts of Africa and from Europe were attracted to the state, including the Queen of England and her husband the Duke of Edinburgh who visited in 1956 (News24, 2014; Alao & Sadiq, 2015; PSG, 2020; British Pathe, n. d.). The state has



comparative advantages over other states in its natural and non-natural cultural endowments as well as its film making, entertainment, sports, medical, agricultural, educational, mining, safari and eco-tourism resources and attractions.

The Plateau State government (PSG) is striving to harness, adapt and develop all these tourism potentials to become the financing option in rebuilding a strong, sustainable and balanced economic base for the state. After a state of emergency was declared on the tourism sector, the state governor Simon Bako Lalong, established a team to develop a tourism policy for PS. The policy aims to position PS as Nigeria's leading tourism destination for both investors and tourists, the mission of the policy being to improve livelihoods by embracing natural heritage and associated cultural heritage through sustainable tourism development (PSG, 2020).

A crucial selling factor in the tourism industry is the weather. Good weather is a fundamental ingredient in holidaying as it can make or mar a holiday. Researchers agree that weather is the most important influence on the choice of leisure travel destinations (Gontul, et al., 2007; Selemon & Alemken, 2019). Fine, warm weather with an abundance of sunshine are major tourist attractions the PS boasts. The serene temperate-like weather and cool upland areas of the state capital necessitated the development of a hill station resort and other resorts across the state that attract visitors to Jos.

Scenic attractions are important factors in tourism. Dramatic mountain landscapes and beautiful coastal scenery are strong pull factors. Attractions such as theme parks, museums, national parks, wildlife parks, gardens, spectacular natural landforms and riverscapes are some of the attractions found in PS. These natural features, described as 'nature in the raw', have great appeal to the tourists (Robinson, 1976; Selemon & Alemken, 2019). Nature's gift to PS include the Ampidong Crater Lake (the only perennial volcanic crater lake in West Africa) and the AP Leventis Ornithological Research Institute (APLORI) that is famous for the discovery of the Indigo bird and the African fire finch bird species indigenous to PS (PSG, 2020).

Nigeria has just two sources of natural spring water namely the **Kerang Spring** of PS (Figure 5.1a) and the Ikogosi warm spring located at Ikogosi in Ekiti State. The plains of the Kerang spring stretch as far as one's eyes can see. This beautifully impressive volcanic mountain is the source of cool, enchanting springs which supply water to the popular spring waters Nigeria limited (SWAN) (PSG, 2020). Figures 5.1a to 5e portray selected scenic and tourist attractions in PS. The five illustrated features are discussed in turn.

**The Kahwang Basalt Columns** (Figure 5.1b) is one of the world's most famous columnar rock formations (after the giant causeway in Northern Ireland). The Kahwang rocks are visited by tourists from different parts of the state, across the country and occasionally from outside Nigeria to see this

wonder of nature. The interlocking basaltic columns and “the striking placement and orderly arrangement of these rocks is indeed a great work of art” (Iyakwari & Lar, 2012: 194). They are impressive, breath-taking and a beauty to behold. However, this site still awaits the attention of the PSTC to meet modern standards and serve as another source of revenue for the state (Anzaku et al., 2021).

**Assop Falls** (Figure 5.1c) is arguably the most notable of Nigeria's many waterfalls. It is located on the edge of the Jos Plateau, about 40 miles (64 kilometres) from the town of Jos, on the road to Abuja. The place is a popular spot for tourists to film local soap operas and advertisements as well as for picnicking, swimming and sightseeing (Ogezi, Aga & Okafor, 2010). The Assop River's water feeds the rapids and falls and it sustains the natural vegetation of grasslands that extend into the gallery forest. The site is an area of guinea savanna which covers the slopes and the top of a mid-latitude ridge of the Jos Plateau next to the Jos-Abuja road.

**Kurra Falls** (Figure 5.1d) is an area 77 kilometres south-east of Jos. It is the site “of the state's first hydroelectric power station and it is a beautiful landscape of rocks, hills and lakes ideal for boating, camping and rock climbing” (Iyakwari & Lar, 2012: 196). This waterfall is unique and outstanding with its 11 continuous waterfalls (Ramoni, 2021). The Nigerian Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC) “has established an international tourist centre at Kurra Falls” with accommodation facilities to position this site for increased patronage and revenue generation (Iyakwari & Lar, 2012: 196).

**Wase Rock** (Figure 5.1e) is a distinctive dome-shaped inselberg (trachyte plug) that rises gigantic up to a height of 450 metres from the ground. It is 216 kilometres southeast of Jos near the town of Wase. Wase Rock is one of the few breeding grounds for migratory and endangered white pelicans in Africa and one of the only five types in the world (Ogezi et al., 2010; Iyakwari & Lar, 2012). The rock is home to a large collection of “reportedly more than 167 bird species made up of indigenous and exotic birds that migrate all-year round from Europe to Africa and Plateau State” (Ogezi et al., 2010: 612). As a result, the government protects 321 acres (1.3 km<sup>2</sup>) of land surrounding the rock as a bird nature reserve and for nature conservation.



Figure 5.1a: Kerang Spring



Figure 5.1b: Kahwang Basalt Columns



Figure 5.1c: Assop Falls



Figure 5.1d: Kurra Falls

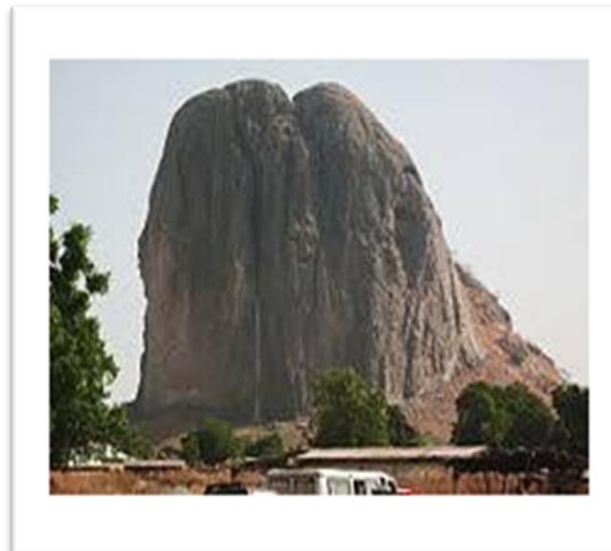


Figure 5.1e: Wase Rock



Source: Researcher, 2018

Figures 5.1a to 5e Selected scenic and tourist attractions in Plateau State

There are many other tourist attractions in PS but due to their immense popularity and particular appeal, six have been selected to be discussed here.

**Jos Wildlife Park** is located four kilometres from the state capital and offers a variety of animal species. The park combines in-situ and ex-situ (captive) breeding. Thus, the animal species comprise the exotic and local types. These include lions, leopards, pigmy buffaloes, hippopotami, baboons, monkeys, Derby eland, pythons, crocodiles, jackals, eagles, chimpanzees and ostriches. A stunning panoramic view of Jos can be seen from the park. There is a 43-kilometre network of safari tracks within the park (PSTC (Plateau State Tourism Corporation), 2019). The park serves the multiple purposes of tourism, recreation, conservation, research, education and revenue generation. It is managed by the PSTC.

**National Museum Jos** (NMJ) is situated close to the heart of Jos town and is one of Nigeria's earliest (1952) museums which is very popular for its collection, exhibition and conservation of objects used for cultural and educational purposes (Onyejegbu, 2014). The museum aids in preserving the past for the future (Onyejegbu, 2014; Kojah, 2019) and it has a wide-ranging offering which includes the Nok Terra Cotta (500 BC to AD 200), replicas of traditional wares, crafts, pottery and ironworks among some other ancient and contemporary Nigerian cultural artifacts (PSTC, 2019). Some of the country's earliest railway engines, carriages and tracks are on display. The pottery section of the museum has a display of pots and glazed household wares as well as an exhibition devoted to tin mining.

**Museum of Traditional Nigerian Architecture (MOTNA)** is a special traditional architectural museum of the diverse traditional Nigerian architecture. Described as the museum that houses "some of the best collections of Nigerian artifacts" (Onyejegbu, 2014: 51), MOTNA covers a land area of 60 acres divided into zones according to the various architectural designs of some Nigerian ethnic groups. It has a full-scale replica of Katsina Palace, Kano Wall, Mbaise House (Owerri) and a Tiv compound. It is envisaged that a mini map of the rich and diverse Nigerian architecture will be produced (PSTC, 2019).

**Jos Zoological Garden** is located near the NMJ and the Jos Monuments Gallery two kilometres from Jos city centre. The zoological garden was opened to the public in 1957 (Ijeomah, Alarape & Ogogo, 2011). The zoological garden is surrounded by trees and is a ground for captive breeding of wild animals. The zoological garden has a stock of mammals (22 species and 68 specimens), birds (19 species and 60 specimens) and reptiles (10 species and 59 specimens). The animals include lions, elephants, tigers, crocodiles, pythons and peacocks (PSTC, 2019). At the entrance of the garden are some antique vehicles and engines that were presented to the Nigerian government in 1960 on independence, including a steam locomotive nicknamed *Dan Zaria* in one of the local Nigerian languages (Hausa), which was built in 1921 for the Nigerian Railway Corporation.

**Rayfield Holiday Resort** is located seven kilometres from Jos in an impressive scenic environment that also offers tourist facilities and amenities for bathing, boating, swimming, fishing, recreation, dancing and amusement. Amenities are either natural, such as beaches, sea bathing, fishing, and opportunities for rock climbing or hiking, or man-made for entertainment of many kinds and facilities catering for the special needs of the visiting tourists. Because people's tastes change and their wants become more sophisticated, the tourism businesses and resorts in PS keep attracting their clients by moving with the trends and times by providing the amenities currently in vogue and in demand (Robinson, 1976; Selemon & Alemken, 2019). For a fun day out or a weekend getaway, Rayfield Holiday resort makes for leisure and tranquillity. The facility also accommodates a bar and a restaurant.

**AP Leventis Ornithological Research Institute (APLORI)** is home to a field station dedicated to ornithological research. This ornithological institute is a research centre in West Africa for research on and conservation of wildlife. It was set up in 2001 by the Leventis Conservation Foundation (LCF) which remains the institute's principal source of funding. It functions in collaboration with the Nigerian Conservation Foundation (NCF), the Laminga community and the University of Jos, Nigeria. The institute contributes directly to the wildlife knowledge base, especially in West African countries and provides a special centre for setting up long-term ecological research projects. The institution works closely with the local community of Laminga where it is situated in the Jos East local government area (LGA) of PS as an employer and facilitator of sustainable rural development. Covering 3000 hectares of land, the APLORI reserve has over 330 species of birds and animals such as monkeys, monitor lizards and snakes. Some of the bird species found here are the Jos Plateau indigo bird, rock firefinch, Ibadan malimbe, red-capped lark, nightingales, turtle doves, cuckoos, flycatchers, grey-necked picathartes, white-throated mountain babbler and Bannerman weaver.

Tourist attractions of any kind would be of little value if they could not be reached by normal means of transport. Better access to attractions improves visitor satisfaction, encourages repeat visits, boosts positive word-of-mouth, makes a destination more competitive, helps businesses maximize market opportunities and improves the quality of the tourists' experience (Ayo-Odifiri, 2022; Rucci & Porto, 2022). By ensuring that destinations and tourist attractions are physically accessible, destinations enhance their business prospects by attracting a wider range of tourists. Physical accessibility of tourist sites is an inclusive marketing process for products and services. Physical isolation and inadequate transport facilities are significant handicaps to tourism. Lack of good roads and the lack of motorable highways discourage many holidaymakers from visiting some tourist sites (Robinson, 1976; Selemon & Alemken, 2019). Fortunately, this is not the case in PS where most tourist sites are easily accessible.

Accommodation covers food and lodging and involves an array of amenities essential to tourism. Accommodation not only represents style, comfort and taste, it also allows for a complete travel experience (Morando & Platania, 2022). Indeed, large numbers of tourists go to certain spots because of the presence of first-class hotels that provide excellent food, rooms and facilities. There are excellent hotels in PS renowned for their cuisine, services, facilities, comfort, luxury and cleanliness. Other attributes of the tourism industry that abound in PS which make tourists' visits and activities pleasurable are hospitable hosts, currency exchange venues and information bureaus.

Globally and over the years, tourism has been a major growth industry shaped by tourism infrastructure and facilities (Jovanović & Ilić, 2016; Mandić, Mrnjavac & Kordić, 2018). The major factors "underpinning this growth include the growth of incomes and wealth, improvements in transport, changing lifestyles and consumer values, increased leisure time, international openness and globalization, immigration, special events, education, information and communication, technologies, destination marketing and promotion, improved general tourism infrastructure" (Matias et al., 2007 cited in Jovanović & Ilić, 2016: 288). Tourist attractions, infrastructure and facilities can be damaged by crises that can occur at any tourism destination or region in the global tourism industry (Laws & Prideaux, 2005). Each of these needs to be protected as they are great determining factors in tourists' travel plans. Tourism infrastructure and facilities are all vital to tourism development. The availability of these at tourism destinations increases patronage, improves competitiveness, improves the living conditions of local residents and tourists and contribute to increasing the demand and supply of tourism services (Jovanović & Ilić, 2016; Mandić, Mrnjavac & Kordić, 2018; Biswas, Omar & Rashid-Radha, 2020).

The COVID-19 pandemic has been described as the most serious economic crisis since World War II because all economic sectors have been disrupted, especially the tourism industry (OECD, 2020). Since the beginning of 2020 the COVID-19 crisis has diffused through all countries with a diversity of measures and strategies being instituted by governments to deal with the chaotic months of radical uncertainty, health, economic and social challenges. Many governments reacted quickly as illustrated by the circumstances in the Federal Republic of Nigeria described in the next section.

### **5.3 THE COVID-19 SITUATION IN NIGERIA**

Global economies continue to grapple with the dire effects of the COVID-19 pandemic which has spread to 230 countries around the world as of March 2022 (see Table 5.1). Daily increasing confirmed positive infections have led to business closures because of the movement restriction orders (MROs). Due to the pandemic there has been drastic shrinkings of economic activities given

the persistent and prolonged lockdowns, travel restrictions, salary cuts, job losses and the very high unemployment situation globally (UNWTO, 2020a). Various reports show the global efforts of vaccination drives to contain the spread of the virus, but structural changes in economic and social systems continue to deteriorate due to the ongoing measures (movement restrictions, lockdowns as well as physical and social distancing) (Awofeso & Irabor, 2020).

Table 5.1 Global COVID-19 cases as of 12 October 2022

<b>Number of countries</b>	<b>Total cases</b>	<b>Total deaths</b>	<b>Total recovered</b>
230	627 853 147	6 564 348	607 377 296

Source: Worldometer (2022b)

The above scenario is a replica of what has happened in Nigeria. Nigeria recorded the first confirmed COVID-19 positive case in sub-Saharan Africa on 27 February 2020. The case concerned an Italian national working in Nigeria who had “returned to Lagos from Milan on 25 February 2020” (NCDC, 2020: 1). Since then the numbers of confirmed COVID-19 cases and deaths in Nigeria have continued to increase. These increases have largely been attributed to conspiracy theories that the pandemic is non-existent or that the virus is a disease for elite and wealthy individuals (Awofeso & Irabor, 2020). Although the Nigerian government intensified the awareness of precautionary measures, the lower classes in the country’s society have “perceived government regulations as a sham, thereby increasing the rate of community transmission of the virus” (Campbell & McCaslin, 2020: 1). Whereas the Nigerian government is still dealing with the issues, Kenyan government in December 2021 imposed restrictions on access to public spaces for those who had not been vaccinated against COVID-19 (Kyobutungi, 2021). Other African countries followed suit. Zimbabwe, Egypt and Nigeria have imposed mandatory COVID-19 vaccination on their workers (Erezi, 2021).

To curb the spread and impact of the pandemic in Nigeria, along with mandatory vaccination (announced by the Nigerian government in early October and affective from 1 December 2021), a range of safety measures were instituted by the government which are applicable in every state. These involve lockdowns in most cities and states, physical and social distancing, border closures, the enforcement of MROs, compulsory wearing of face masks, hand washing and sanitizing, bans on cultural festivals, celebrating of anniversaries, large-scale gatherings, commercial motorcycles operations, closure of entertainment places, leisure centres and illegal markets in addition to the imposition of a nationwide curfew all aimed at flattening the COVID-19 curve (Awofeso & Irabor, 2020; FRN (Federal Republic of Nigeria), 2020; Africanews, 2021).

The government initiated a phased lockdown strategy. Table 5.2 shows the various phases of lockdown and how the Nigerian government responded. Phase 1 of total lockdown was announced by the President and implemented from 30 March until 29 April 2020 on Abuja, Lagos and Ogun States. All international flights were suspended with exceptions for emergency and essential flights. There were severe restrictions on movement with citizens being allowed to leave their homes only to purchase medication and food at government-designated open locations. Travel was restricted and only workers classified as ‘essential’ were permitted to travel. On 27 April the President announced the gradual easing of the lockdown to a nationwide night curfew (20:00 to 06:00) from 4 May to 17 May.

Table 5.2 The phases of COVID-19 lockdown in Nigeria

Phases	Features	Period of implementation (2020-2021)	Measures
Phase 1	Unprecedented virus spread Unpreparedness of health systems	30 March to 29 April 2020 Nationwide curfew introduced from 4 to 17 May 2020 to usher in eased lockdown.	Hard lockdown High restriction
Phase 2	Moderate virus spread Low to moderate health systems preparedness	2 June to 29 June 2020 Eased lockdown extended by one week to 6 August 2020.	Moderate restriction Easing of lockdown
Phase 3	Low virus spread High health systems preparedness	4 September 2020 to 25 January 2021 Phase 3 eased lockdown extended by one month from 26 January to 26 February 2021. This continued until 10 May 2021.	Low restriction Eased lockdown continued
Phase 4	Low virus spread High health systems preparedness	11 May 2021 and ongoing	Low restriction Eased lockdown continues.

Source: FRN (2020); NCDC (2021b)

Phase 2 lockdown commenced 2 June 2020 and lasted for four weeks until 29 June when the nationwide curfew was adjusted to 22:00 to 04:00 daily. This phase’s lockdown was extended by one week and elapsed at midnight on 6 August (Adebowale, 2020). The ban on air travel continued during this phase for both domestic and international flights with the exemption for emergency flights. Phase 3 that eased lockdown was announced on 30 June 2020 and commenced on 4 September 2020. During this phase a few modifications were made, including the reopening of airports for international and local flight operations as well as the reopening of schools.



The “Presidential Steering Committee on COVID-19 reinstated the enforcement of the COVID-19 health protection regulations and announced Phase 4 of the eased lockdown, effective from 11 May 2021” (NCDC (Nigeria Centre for Disease Control), 2021b: 1). Moreover, the government lifted the ban on interstate travel and increased the capacities for mass gatherings in confined spaces from 20 to not more than 50 persons while strictly observing physical distancing and extra health screening measures (PLAC (Policy and Legal Advocacy Centre), 2020). The Phase 2 hours of the nationwide curfew were maintained, the use of facemasks in public places remained mandatory and non-compliance became punishable by law for defaulters as provided in the Quarantine Act, Section 34, namely a fine or a term of six months imprisonment or both (Asadu, 2021). The Nigerian Police Force (NPF) and other law enforcement agencies were saddled with the responsibility of enforcing the law. The Inspector-General of Police, Adamu, agrees that “the uncertainty and risks engendered by the advent of the pandemic have placed additional responsibilities on the Police and other law enforcement agencies. While enforcing related orders and restrictions, we must show tact, compassion, and empathy with our fellow citizens. We must be firm and professional and at the same time remain polite and civil. We must respect the fundamental rights of all Nigerians” (NPF, 2020: 26).

In the wake of the national lockdown, the PSG implemented Phase 1 of their lockdown on 10 April 2020 which lasted briefly until 11:59 15 on April 2020. Thereafter, the lockdown phases in the state followed the national prescriptions. The first coronavirus case in PS was recorded on 23 April 2020, namely a traveller from Kano State who sneaked into Jos, the state capital, inspite of the lockdown (Sahara Reporters, 2020). This necessitated the imposition of MROs and other measures by the state government which included interstate and interlocal government travel bans through the ‘stay at home’ policy. This policy, akin to that of most nations of the world, was to a great extent a major strategy for reducing the rapid spread of the virus (Gössling et al., 2020). These MROs affected all sectors of the economy, but tourism businesses were the most severely hit (Cetin, 2020; David & Okoliko, 2020; Rogerson & Baum, 2020; Rogerson & Rogerson 2020; UNWTO, 2020a), particularly because the state is the *Home of Peace and Tourism* with many tourism businesses that serve as major sources of income and revenue for individuals and the PSG.

By 8 August 2020, Nigeria was reporting fewer than 500 daily coronavirus infections. However, PS had, for the first time, the greatest number of daily reported cases, with 103 infections on 7 August 2020 and 186 cases on 19 August, so superseding Lagos State (NCDC, 2020, 7 & 20 August). By March 2021 the total number of confirmed cases in PS exceeded 10 000 with 75 deaths (NCDC, 2021a). Although PS led by the number of new cases in August 2020 (NCDC, 2021a), Lagos State remained the epicentre of the disease. More than one third of Nigeria’s cases (nearly 100 000) have

been recorded in the nation's commercial headquarters (Lagos State) with an almost negligible number in Kogi State.

As nations of the world continued to manage the threat and spread of the pandemic which exacerbated the slump in the price of crude oil in the international market, many economies battled depression, which translated to limited access to funds and increased cost of living. Nigeria, by contrast, faced a triple-threat pandemic comprising the pandemic, escalating attacks by insurgents or bandits on rural communities (albeit amid the lockdown and MROs) and hunger tagged by the populace as the *hunger virus* (or HuVid-20) (because of the dramatic increases in food prices during this period) (Adie, 2020; Folarin, 2020; Mailafiya, 2020; Piwuna, 2020).

Adegboye (2020) maintains that the price hike was exacerbated by the inability of farmers to maintain agricultural output, the shutdown of markets and slow transportation networks which all resulted in wastage and inadequate food supplies. Other reasons were border closures which shrank the supply chain, lockdown directives that led to panic buying which caused a rise in the price of food items and the unabated escalation of kidnap gangs and armed bandit attacks on rural communities in northern Nigeria where most of the states are located that are the major food-producing areas of the country (Adegboye, 2020; Folarin 2020; Mailafiya, 2020; Piwuna, 2020).

In a joint report by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the World Food Programme (WFP) and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), 12.1 million Nigerians were expected to go hungry throughout December 2021 due to food insecurity and the pandemic (Kunle, 2021). In another report, the United Nations listed Nigeria among 10 countries suffering acute hunger (Emewu, 2022). This plight is heightened by incessant conflicts and the lack of a social security system in Nigeria so increasing the wave of hardship as food prices continued to rise steeply (Things to know, 2020; Adegbesan, 2021; Human Rights Watch, 2021; Emewu, 2022).

Although Nigeria continues to record new COVID-19 cases daily, the country had to ease the lockdown and reopen the economy to balance health needs with the economic needs of the citizens. Schools reopened gradually and the domestic and international flights resumed. Markets and religious centres gradually reopened as did tourism businesses while observing all the protocols and guidelines stipulated by the WHO for every country that desired partial or full reopening of their economies. These tourism businesses operated according to requirements such as employee screening and temperature checks, compulsory wearing of face masks and daily environmental sanitization. The results emerging from this study indicate that the sustenance of tourism businesses largely depends on tourists' experiences. The experiences and behaviour of tourists during this period (January to August 2021), when Nigeria was in the third and fourth phases of eased lockdown, are reported in the next section.

## **5.4 THE EXPERIENCES OF TOURISTS**

Tourism literature has documented and reported the ‘tourist experience’ since the 1960s (Uriely, 2005). The experiences of tourists vary and are affected by a combination of several components and aspects ranging from motivations and subjective experiences to the tourist as a consumer with a focus on the products and activities that elicit the experiences, such as satisfaction, familiarity, provisions and incitement (Volo, 2010). This diversity in tourists’ experiences typifies the complexity of the tourism industry in which the tourists’ experiences are enhanced by expectations, events and memories. Although these memories of tourist experiences are important predictors of the desire to experience the same thing again (Wirtz, Kruger, Scollon & Diener, 2003; Lee, Cui, Kim, Seo & Chon, 2020; Liao, Wu, & Truong, 2021; Kim, Ribeiro & Li, 2022; Shin & Jeong, 2022), in the case of tourists’ experiences with COVID-19, these may not be the same. The pandemic has had significant impacts on tourists’ experiences and it is unlikely that it will be a memorable experience to relive the social interactions disrupted by lockdowns, travel restrictions and social distancing. This section documents tourists’ experiences during the pandemic in PS. The demographic characteristics of the surveyed tourists are taken up first.

### **5.4.1 Demographic characteristics of respondents**

This subsection presents some results of the questionnaire survey of 408 participating tourists. The aim of the survey was to examine the impact of the pandemic on tourists’ experiences by investigating their behaviour towards tourism businesses. Their responses provided in-depth information on the tourists’ activities, their protective behaviour and their behaviour concerning tourism businesses. Table 5.3 reports the number of sampled visitors at each of 12 tourism businesses while Table 5.4 provides background information of the sampled participants. Most of the respondents were sampled at the National Museum Jos (NMJ). The location, accessibility to and proximity of the museum to the heart of Jos town (central business district) probably account for this. The Jos Zoological Garden and the Museum of Traditional Nigerian Architecture (MOTNA) have similar locations to the NMJ. Jos Wildlife Park, Solomon Lar amusement park and Korret hamlet amusement park had a fair number of sampled visitors. Despite being in the same location and close proximity, Rayfield holiday resort had more sampled visitors than Mees Palace amusement park. Although situated in close proximity to the heart of Jos town, Just relax garden and Elsee garden had the least sampled visitors.

Table 5.3 Number of sampled visitors at various tourism businesses

Number	Tourism businesses	Number	%
1	National Museum Jos	62	15.2
2	Restaurants	61	15.0
3	Jos Zoological Garden	54	13.2
4	Rayfield Holiday Resort	50	12.3
5	Jos Wildlife Park	42	10.3
6	Solomon Lar Amusement Park	32	7.8
7	Korret Hamlet Amusement Park	29	7.1
8	Tourism accommodation (hotels and guest houses)	22	5.4
9	Museum of Traditional Nigerian Architecture (MOTNA)	17	4.2
10	Mees Palace	15	3.6
11	Just Relax Garden	13	3.2
12	Elsee Garden	11	2.7
	<b>Total</b>	<b>408</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field survey, 2021

As shown in Table 5.4 the respondents were categorized either as residents (proximate tourists, see Section 1.4) or visiting tourists whose numbers exceeded the resident tourists twofold. Ten per cent of sampled resident tourists have lived on average for 21-30 years in PS. They are proximate tourists who sustain the local tourism industry. There are equal numbers of respondents aged 26-35 and 36-55 years (middle aged). The combined age cohort of 26-55 years (66%) accounts for most of the respondents. This is consistent with the results of other studies (Mensah, 2016; Akande, Abiodun & John, 2021) that a larger percentage of the middle-aged population engage in travel and tourism while the proportion decreases for younger age groups. According to the income profile of the respondents nearly two fifths (38%) earned a monthly household income of less than ₦101 000 (USD238). More than one quarter earned a monthly income of ₦101 000 to ₦200 000 while more than one third earned more than ₦200 000 a month. This suggests that less than one quarter of the study population have disposable incomes to afford leisure, travel and tourism activities. A large (70%) proportion of the respondents had attained a tertiary education and at least one in five a secondary education (Table 5.4). The high educational levels attained account for the high level of participation in tourism activities. This is consistent with the results of other studies (Bozic & Jovanovic, 2019; Dingil & Estergâr-Kiss, 2022) that the level of education influences the tendency to engage in travel and tourism

Employment plays a major role in tourists' purchasing power, purchasing behaviour and expenditure (Ramya & Ali, 2016; Pena-Sanchez, Ruiz-Chico, Jimenez-Garcia & Lopez-Sanchez, 2020; Shebi,

Hady & Refaat, 2021). In this study's sample 74% were employed and 26% unemployed. It is significant that three quarters of the respondents were still employed at the time of the survey and then had discretionary income for spending on luxuries like tourism.

Table 5.4 Socio-demographic characteristics of the survey respondents

Variable	Number (n=408)	%
<b>Tourists status</b>		
Resident (proximate)	129	31.6
Visitor	279	68.4
<b>Residents' duration of stay in Plateau State</b>		
1-10 years	32	7.8
11-20 years	35	8.6
21-30 years	42	10.3
31-40 years	16	3.9
Longer than 40 years	4	1.0
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	228	56
Female	180	44
<b>Age</b>		
18-25 years	114	27.9
26-35 years	135	33.1
36-55 years	133	32.6
≥56 years	26	6.4
<b>Average household income</b>		
≤ ₦30 000	14	3.4
₦30 000 – ₦100 000	143	35.0
₦101 000 – ₦200 000	108	26.5
₦201 000 – ₦400 000	81	19.9
₦401 000 – ₦600 000	42	10.3
≥ ₦601 000	20	4.9
<b>Education</b>		
Primary	8	1.9
Secondary	88	21.6
Tertiary	282	69.1
Informal	30	7.4

Source: Field survey, 2021

Note 1: The percentage of residents' duration of stay does not total 100 as 68.4 accounts for visitors to Jos during the survey period.

The crosstabulation of age and income (Table 5.5) shows that the middle-aged respondents (26-55 years) accounted for 80% of those household that earned incomes of more than ₦600 000 a month, while more than 50% earned between ₦400 000 and ₦600 000. These groups of respondents were categorized as high-income earners. Seventy-five per cent of this age category earned between ₦201

000 and ₦400 000 while nearly 80% earned between ₦101 000 and ₦200 000. They are considered to be average income earners. The more than 50% of the respondents who earned between ₦30 000 and ₦100 000 seen to be low-income earners. The large disposable income of the high-income respondents may have accounted for their participation in proximate tourism, so leading to increased tourism consumption expenditure. The finding of this study is consistent with that of Incera & Fernández (2015) and Bernini & Fang (2020) that higher income promotes more tourism participation and consumption. This study also found that young people (18-25 years) were the largest (64%) cohort earning less than ₦30 000 monthly (see Table 5.5). This is probably because the category of young people in this study earned less than the middle aged who have the financial resources to engage in tourism activities.

Table 5.5 Household income of the survey respondents by age

Age in years	Household income					
	Less than N30, 000	N30 000 – N100 000	N 101 000 – N200 000	N201 000 – N400 000	N401 000 – N600 000	>N600 000
	%	%	%	%	%	%
18-25	64.3	44.1	15.7	12.3	33.3	5.0
26-35	21.4	34.2	31.5	37.0	28.6	35.0
36-55	14.3	19.6	47.2	38.3	28.6	45.0
56-65	0.0	2.1	5.6	12.3	9.5	15.0

Source: Field survey, 2021

The study area is a popular tourism destination for Nigerians. About one third of the tourists surveyed were proximate (resident) tourists from PS. The places of origin of respondents were varied. The visitors (non-resident) to PS during the survey period came from 30 of Nigeria's 36 states (Table 5.6). Eleven per cent of the respondents were visitors from Abuja, the nation's capital, which can be attributed to the proximity of Jos to Abuja. Lagos State ranked second highest with 7% because most meetings and conferences that were to be held in Lagos State were moved to Jos due to the country's highest incidence of COVID-19 being in Lagos State. Kaduna State had 5% of the respondents who were visiting PS at the time of the survey. The latter is also quite likely attributable to the proximity of Kaduna State to Jos, although it has been reported that increasing number of Kaduna State residents are fleeing to neighbouring states in search of safety after surviving the brutal bandit attacks and reprisals in the state (Hoffmann, 2017; Okoli & Ugwu, 2019; Anyadike, 2020; Daily Trust, 2020; Ewang, 2020). The remaining 48% of the surveyed respondents hailed from the other 27 states of Nigeria.

Table 5.6 Origin of the tourists who visited the study area

State or country	Frequency	%	State	Frequency	%
Proximate tourists from Plateau State	129	31.6	Jigawa	2	0.5
Abia	4	1.0	Kaduna	20	4.9
Abuja	46	11.3	Kano	13	3.2
Adamawa	4	1.0	Katsina	1	0.2
Anambra	11	2.7	Kogi	12	2.9
Bauchi	25	6.1	Kwara	1	0.2
Edo	14	3.4	Lagos	28	6.9
Benue	5	1.2	Nasarawa	15	3.7
Borno	1	0.2	Niger	5	1.2
Cross River	1	0.2	Ondo	1	0.2
Delta	1	0.2	Oyo	2	0.5
Ebonyi	2	0.5	Rivers	4	1.0
Ekiti	1	0.2	Taraba	3	0.7
Enugu	12	2.9	Yobe	3	0.7
Gombe	13	3.2	Zamfara	6	1.5
Imo	2	0.5	Others	21	5.0
			Total	408	100

Source: Source: Field survey, 2021

The survey also found that domestic and international travel and tourism suffered major setbacks during the pandemic as reflected in the low number of international visitors during the time of survey (see Table 5.6). At the time of survey when international travel was restricted, only 5% of visitors surveyed were international tourists (from Turkey) who stopped over at Jos en route to Bauchi State to enjoy the clement weather and serene beauty of the Jos plateau.

#### 5.4.2 Tourist activities

Tourism is a refreshing, rejuvenating, positive and exciting leisure experience to be lived, remembered and recounted (Kim, Ritchie & McCormick, 2012). It offers tourists the opportunity to break free from constraints of everyday life and enjoy the climate, mountains, serene beauty of cities and vegetation, as well as opportunities for tourists seeking nature-orientated activities (Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Smith 1994; Barros, 2012; Sarial-Abi, Merdin-Uygur, Gürhan-Canli, 2020). Tourism essentially comprises five basic elements as identified by Okpoko et al (2008 cited by Akukwe & Odum, 2014: 110):

(i) tourism arises from the movement of people to and stay in various destinations as well as their activities therein (ii) that the journey to and the stay take place outside one's normal place of residence and work (iii) that the movement must not be less than twenty-four hours and not more than one year. Any movement away from home that is less than 24 hours is referred to as excursion (iv) that the movement to other destination is temporary and short-term, with the intention of returning home within a few days, weeks or months (v) that the money spent during such travel and stay is derived from home and not earned in the destination.

Respondents were asked to indicate which listed tourism facilities and attractions they had visited or would be visiting during their stay in Jos during the survey period (January to August 2021). The results are documented in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7 Places visited or will be visited by respondents

Tourism business	Visited		Will be visiting	
	n	%	n	%
Jos Wildlife Park	249	61.0	159	39.0
Restaurant	234	57.4	174	42.6
Rayfield Holiday Resort	202	49.5	206	50.5
Hotel or guest house	180	44.1	228	55.9
National Museum Jos	171	41.9	237	58.1
Jos Zoological Garden	152	37.3	256	62.7
Solomon Lar Amusement Park	140	34.3	268	65.7
Mees Palace Amusement Park	120	29.4	288	70.6
Museum of Traditional Nigerian Architecture (MOTNA)	112	27.5	296	72.5
Korret Hamlet Amusement Park	69	16.9	339	83.1
Others	220	53.9	188	46.1

Source: Source: Field survey, 2021

Note 2: Frequency and percentage for places visited and will be visited in Table 5.6 do not sum to 408 and 100 because they were multiple responses. The percentage for each answer is expressed as a percentage of the sample size (408).

Jos Wildlife Park (61%) and Rayfield Holiday Resort (50%) received most of the respondent tourists most likely because these two are strategic and valuable sites for sharing tourism experiences. It is also significant that over 50% had visited restaurants and had specified other activity which was majorly visiting family and friends. Although Korret Hamlet Amusement Park, the Museum of Traditional Nigerian Architecture (MOTNA), Mees Palace Amusement Park, Solomon Lar Amusement Park and Jos Zoological Garden each received less than 40% of the visitors, large percentages of the surveyed respondents intended to visit these tourist attractions. Overnight stays are evidenced by 44% having visited hotels or guest houses and 56% would be making use of these



accommodation facilities while in PS. It is true that when people travel and visit tourism destinations, they tend to choose places that hold value for them owing to the memorable tourism experiences they have had in the past (Wong, Lai & Tao, 2020). Such experiences are reliable predictors of future tourist behaviour (Kim, Ritchie & McCormick, 2012).

Figure 5.2 shows the location of each surveyed tourist attraction and lists the percentage of tourists sampled at each one. Most of the respondents were sampled at National Museum Jos, Jos Zoological Garden and Rayfield Holiday Resort. Participants were asked to list which three tourism attractions they enjoyed most based on the facilities and services rendered. Jos Wildlife Park, Rayfield Holiday Resort and National Museum Jos (46%, 28% and 26% respectively) were named most often. This is probably attributable to the general popularity of these attractions in Jos as opposed to the other attractions that are sparsely distributed in the city with a cluster of attractions on the northern fringe.

There are different ‘adjectival’ forms of tourism, each based on location or type of activity aimed at meeting the needs of tourists (Sirgy, 2019). There has been an overall growth in tourism due to the increased participation by tourists in the wide variety of activities (Mumuni & Mansour 2014; Su, Chen & Swanson, 2020). Segments hitherto not considered as significant are now important niche markets (Butler, 2009; Giddy & Rogerson, 2020).

These ‘adjectival’ forms are adventure tourism, sustainable tourism, religious tourism, conference and business tourism, culinary tourism, wine tourism, dark or doom tourism, cultural tourism, drug tourism, nature or eco tourism, medical tourism, sex tourism, educational tourism, space tourism, sports tourism, virtual tourism and war tourism (Butler, 2009; Singh, 2011; Akukwe & Odum, 2014; Tourism Notes, 2018; Allayarov, 2019; Roman, Niedziolka & Krasnodebski, 2020). All these varieties of tourism and activities provide enhanced experiences for tourists (Sirgy, 2019; Su, Chen & Swanson, 2020). This study found that during the pandemic, education tourism, visiting family and friends, conference tourism, business tourism and religious tourism featured in the study area (see Figure 5.3).

Respondents were asked to select from a list or specify which type of tourism activity they engaged in when visiting PS. Figure 5.3 indicate 43% of the respondents were in the study area for tourism activities related to education and conferences. Only nine per cent were in the study area for businesses, while visiting family and friends and religious festivals accounted for nearly a third of the tourist activities. Others (18%) specified that they came to enjoy the weather, serene scenic beauty, tourism facilities, and the historical and cultural features of the Jos Plateau.

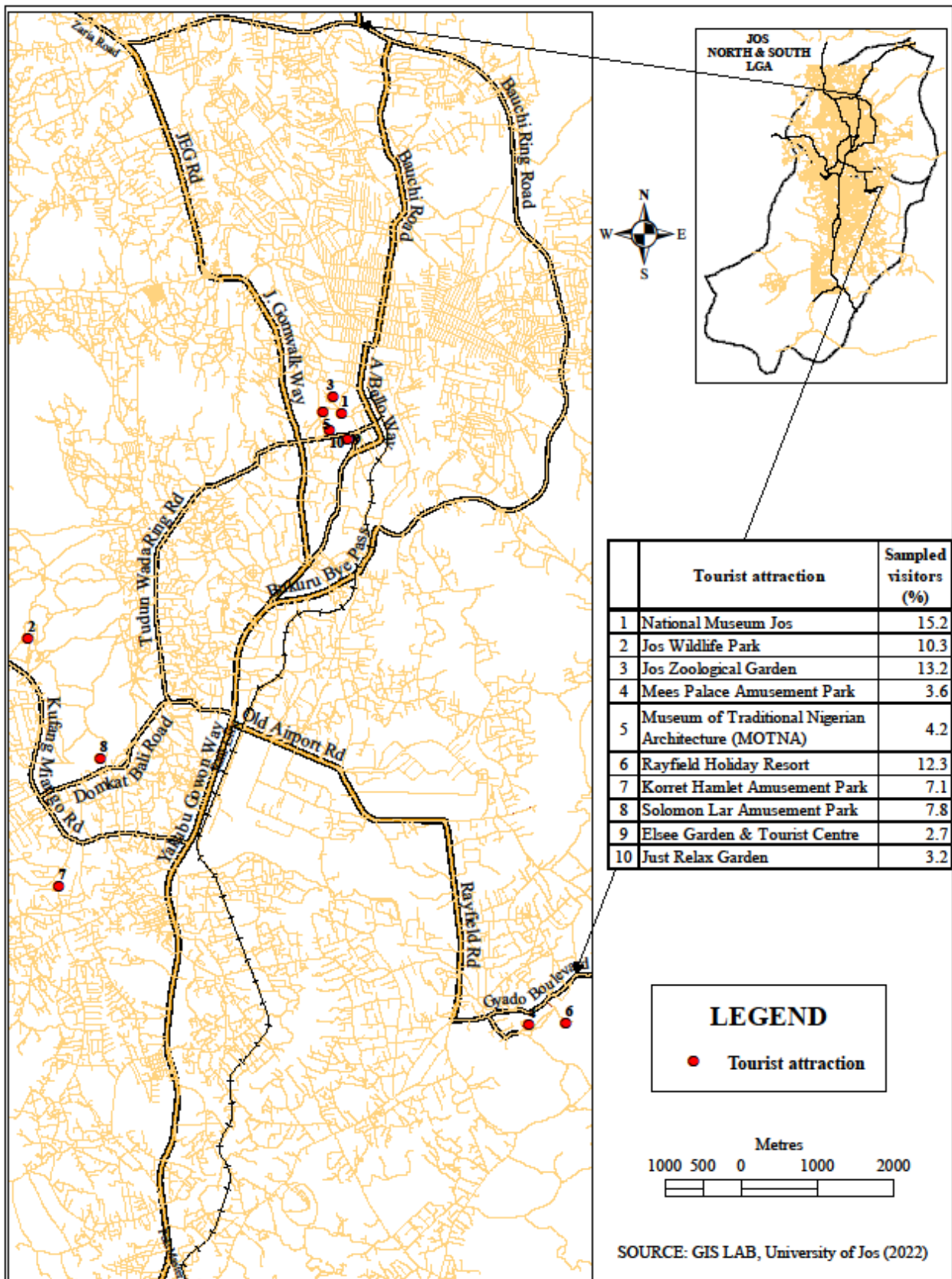
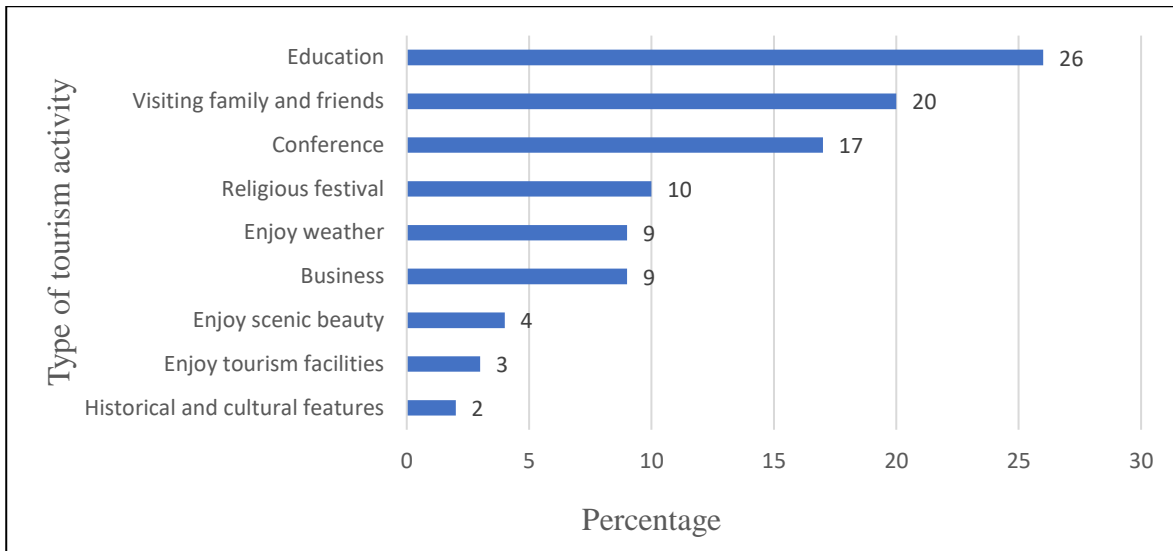


Figure 5.2 Tourist attractions in the study area where tourists were surveyed

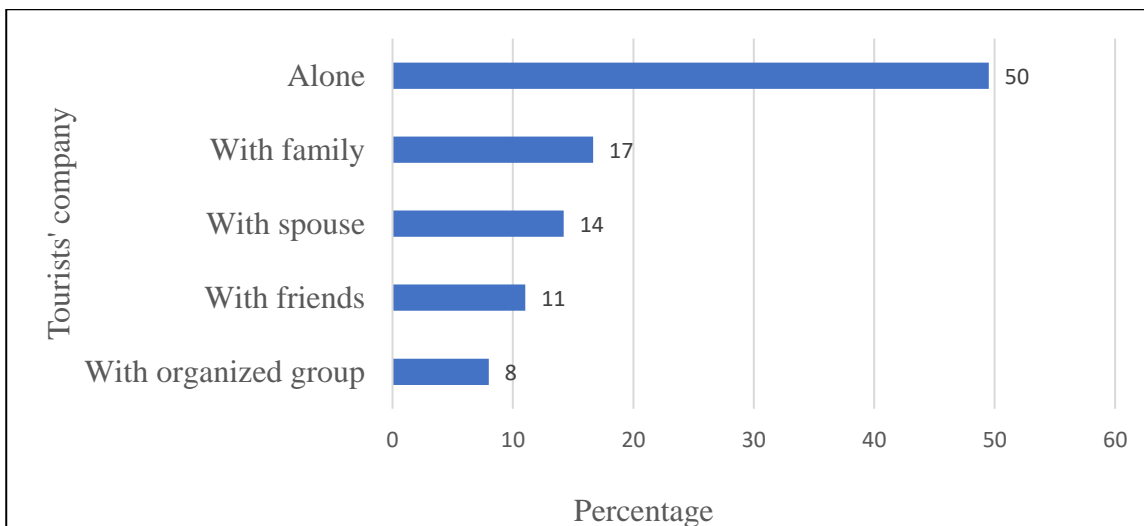


n=408

Source: Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 5.3 Tourism activities engaged in by respondents in Plateau State

Half of the respondents toured alone (Figure 5.4). A likely reason is that the pandemic changed the communal way we tour with solo activities prevailing due to hesitancy about making trips and taking vacations during this period (Davies et al., 2020; Kock et al., 2020; Su, Tang & Nawijn, 2021). However, 42% of the respondents did travel in the company of others (family, spouses and friends). COVID-19 clearly affected the incidence of organized tours. Figures 5.5 and 5.6 illustrate tourists who did not travel alone photographed on tour by the researcher with the subjects' permission.



Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 5.4 Companions of tourists engaged in tourism activities during the COVID-19 pandemic



Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 5.5 Tourists on a motorbike road trip stopping at Solomon Lar amusement park for a sleepover



Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 5.6 Proximate tourist surveyed at the National Museum Jos complex

The respondents were asked to give reasons why they chose to engage in tourism activities in the manner they did. Table 5.8 shows that half of the respondents were weary of getting infected by others while engaging in any tourism activity. Only about four per cent felt it was not safe then to engage in tourism activities because of the COVID-19 pandemic and the prevalent fear of transmitting or

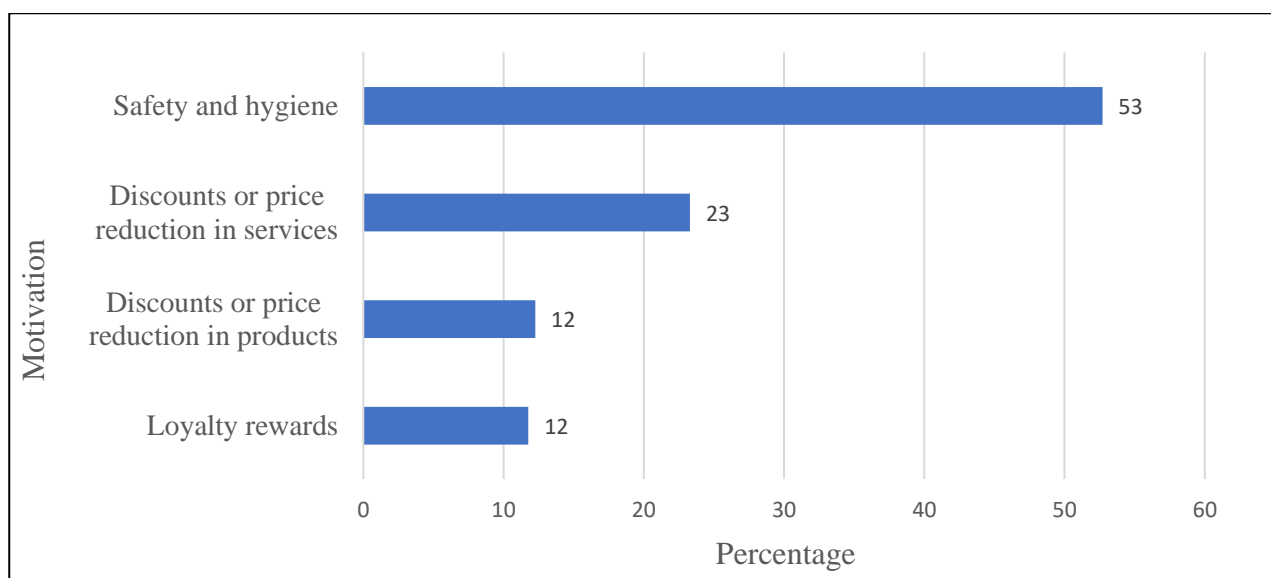
catching the virus (Choi & Bum, 2020). Confidence in being accompanied by family and friends also featured prominently.

Table 5.8 Reason for the manner of companionship in tourism activity

<b>Statement</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
To avoid getting infected by others	205	50.2
I am confident travelling with family	113	27.7
I enjoy adventure	50	12.3
Cost of travelling is too high	25	6.1
It is not yet safe for mass travel	15	3.7
Total	408	100

Source: Field survey, 2021

Motivation is the driving force to engage in tourism activities or make travel decisions. The various factors that can motivate a tourist to get involved in a variety of tourism activities are characterized as *push* or *pull* factors (UKEssays, 2018). The push factors are those perceived to increase the desire to leave a place. The pull factors are those perceived that attract tourists to destinations and tourism businesses (Yousaf, Amin & Santos, 2018). The nature, extent and significance of push and pull factors vary according to tourism context, business and offerings. Respondents were asked to select from the listed options for the reasons why they engaged in tourism activities during the eased phases of lockdown during the pandemic. Figure 5.7 confirms that safety and hygiene was a major pull factor in patronizing tourism business during the pandemic, regardless of loyalty rewards and discounts offered. This is a clear indication that the COVID-19 pandemic altered tourists' preferences and states of mind, as affirmed by recent research (Rogerson & Baum, 2020; Assaf, Kock & Tsionas, 2021; Cao & Nguyen, 2021; Kock et al., 2020; Kwok & Koh, 2021). This is overwhelming confirmation that tourists are greatly concerned about their health, well-being and safety (Veiga, Santos, Aguas & Santos, 2017).



Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 5.7 Tourists' motivations for engaging in tourism activities

Despite enjoying the visited tourist sites, the pandemic impacted on the travel plans of respondents in 2020-21 as affirmed in Table 5.9. When asked how, many (67%) respondents' travel plans were disrupted either due to general lockdown or by fear of contracting the COVID-19 while travelling. Others did not have any plans to travel. In contrast, almost a third travelled despite the COVID-19 pandemic, which is an indication that sensationalists and crisis-resistant tourists will follow their travel plans despite unexpected events (Hajibaba, Gretzel, Leisch, & Dolnicar, 2015; Sigala, 2020).

Table 5.9 Disruption of travel plans in 2020-21 due to COVID-19

Responses on travel plans	n	%
Travel got disrupted due to general lockdown	212	52.0
I travelled despite the COVID-19	130	31.9
Travel got disrupted due to fear of contracting COVID-19 while travelling	63	15.4
Others	3	0.7
Total	408	100

Source: Field survey, 2021

Some seven per cent of the respondents further revealed that they would not have visited PS if there was no COVID-19 during 2020-21, whereas the majority (92%) agreed that they would have visited

PS despite the COVID-19 pandemic. The COVID-19 pandemic changed tourism activities due to tourists' avoidance of tourist sites where keeping in line with the physical and social distancing protocols was mandatory. This led to a decline in patronage and low tourism receipts for the tourism industry in the state. This avoidance may be attributed to the new trend of conscious tourists who have a sense of judgment of others infecting them with the coronavirus resulting in a significant fall in tourist movements (Im, Kim & Choeh, 2021; Yang, Luo & Yao, 2022). The vast numbers of ill people and deaths associated with the pandemic heightened fears that consequently increased the fear of the pandemic spreading among individuals, hence the need for individual protective behaviour. The next subsection explores the protective behaviour of tourists during the pandemic.

### 5.4.3 Tourists' protective behaviour

Chaos theory provides a relevant theoretical foundation for understanding tourist behaviour during a pandemic. Findings about the application of the chaos theory in the tourism context imply that the *self-organization* component is important in understanding tourists' protective behaviour during a crisis. Industry practices and tourism research highlight that protective behaviour is a precondition for safe travel. Bhati et al. (2020) suggest that the complex nature of the tourism industry influences tourists' behaviour concerning the health risks, safety and security of travellers. In this regard "the spread of COVID-19 is closely related to human contact and that social distancing is a viable measure against the spread will have an impact on post-COVID travel behavior" (Miao et al., 2021: 6).

Tourists' perceptions and protective behaviour influence the nature of their satisfaction with the safety measures at destinations during the pandemic. Forty-four per cent of this study's participants had a perception that COVID-19 is a health crisis or pandemic, an act of God (12%), a natural phenomenon (16%), man-made (17%) while 11% did not know what to attribute it to. Thirty-six per cent and 7% felt that there is a likely and extreme likelihood of them contracting COVID-19 at any tourism business location, hence their taking precautionary measures to protect themselves (93% affirmed this). Studies in China have confirmed that the pandemic has triggered the self-organization of tourists to yielding to conscious and precautionary behaviour to protect themselves while travelling rather than avoiding travel (Zheng, Luo & Ritchie, 2021).

Compulsory wearing of face mask, physical or social distancing has become a protective strategy that eliminates the possibility of contracting COVID-19 (Im, Kim & Choeh, 2021). This strategy was resorted to by one third of the surveyed respondents as a way of mitigating the risk of infection. This is confirmation that tourists can self-organize during the pandemic to keep the tourist system afloat. This implies that "there is, surprisingly, a certain degree of order within a chaotic system. This

paradox derives from the fact that the systems displaying chaotic characteristics are operating somewhere between stability and instability and within certain boundaries” (Edgar & Nisbet, 1996: 7).

Related to the COVID-19 pandemic, the tourism industry increased awareness on co-creation behaviour to protect oneself and others (Min, Yang & Kim, 2021). Jeuring & Becken, (2013: 194) argue that “tourism safety depends not only on top-down measures of the tourism industry or local governments but also on pro-active behaviour of tourists themselves.” This introduces a new perspective for destinations to improve on their safety and precautionary measures, particularly destinations where tourists must take measures to protect themselves. To effectively protect themselves while at any tourism business location, some 62% of this study’s respondents took precautionary measures, such as the compulsory wearing of a face mask, standing or seating at least two metres away from other tourists and washing of hands with soap and water and/or using hand sanitizer.

These safety protocols and guidelines along with the daily myriads of jingles and advertorials (communication) on the pandemic in the popular local languages (Ibo, Yoruba and Hausa) enabled the free flow of information which, in a way, guided tourists’ protective action. The formation of the PS COVID-19 emergency response task force, chaired by the governor, enabled the swift dissemination of information about the pandemic and created an opportunity for the flow of information between academic experts in the field, regulatory practitioners, interest groups and the public.

The governor asserted a tweet that the response team became necessary to carry everyone along in the fight against the disease. He further stressed that “we are dealing with an abnormal situation and so we need to take drastic measures to protect the lives of the citizens” (Lalong, 2020: no page). Other drastic measures include the opening of a COVID-19 trust fund, the inauguration of the COVID-19 mobile court, recommendations by the PS economic team of a reduction in the 2020 budget by 40% and reduction in non-essential expenditure by the PSG.

Regarding respondents’ confidence in the efficacy of the precautionary measures, they reported the measures to be effective (60%) or even extremely effective (18%). Six per cent reported the measures not effective or even not effective at all (3%) while 11% were neutral in their responses. The high confidence in the efficacy of the precautionary measures is chiefly attributable to the strict penalties attached to non-compliance and non-adherence to the COVID-19 safety protocols and guidelines (Asadu, 2021; Africanews, 2021). Following the national strategy, the PSG inaugurated a COVID-19 pandemic protocol and guidelines non-compliance mobile court to prosecute defaulters (Africanews, 2021). These defaulters faced penalties which included fines of ₦10 000 (USD25) (or



more depending on the verdict of the judge), prison terms and in some instances both. Only two percent of the survey participants reported the measures to be not effective at all. The efficacy of these measures during the pandemic changed the lifestyles of tourists who feared infection (Yan, Tang & Xiao, 2018; Augustine & Viswanathan, 2021; Chen et al., 2021; Gupta et al., 2021; Yang, Luo & Yao, 2022). Understanding the influence of behaviour changes during the pandemic can be vital to the recovery of tourism businesses. These changes in tourists' behaviour regarding tourism businesses are discussed next.

#### **5.4.4 Tourist behaviour towards tourism businesses**

Globally, the pandemic has changed tourists' behaviour and their decisions to engage in tourism activities (Rogerson & Baum, 2020; Assaf, Kock & Tsionas, 2021; Cao & Nguyen, 2021; Kwok & Koh, 2021). The pandemic has further amplified human anxieties, thinking, feelings and behaviour (Kock et al., 2020). There have been diverse consequences of the pandemic for tourist behaviour. Scholars argue that reductions in disposable income may not be the main reason for changes in tourist behaviour, rather the fear of catching the virus (Balińska, & Olejniczak, 2021; Rasoolimanesh, Seyfi, Rastegar & Hall, 2021; Zenker, Braun & Gyimothy, 2021). This fear is not unconnected to the pandemic that is renowned for being one of the most impactful events of the current and past centuries (Cetin, 2020; Zenker et al., 2021). It is widely accepted that the pandemic has altered tourist behaviour and will "create deep marks in the tourist's thinking and feeling and change how tourists travel" (Zenker & Kock, 2020: 2). Kock et al. (2020: 1) further maintain that the pandemic "will reshuffle taken-for-granted determinants of tourism as we know it" causing a critical alteration in the tourist psyche that can lead to evolving but sustainable tourist behaviour (Vogler, 2022; Zhu et al., 2022).

This study has established that more than half of the respondents did not feel comfortable or not comfortable at all (combined, 56%) using public transportation as it poses a great risk for COVID-19 spread (see Table 5.10). This finding echoes the contention by other researchers (Gupta & Sajjani, 2019; Giddy & Rogerson, 2020; Balińska, & Olejniczak, 2021; Cao & Nguyen, 2021; Zenker et al., 2021) that public mass transportation experienced a downturn during this pandemic era. With an overall mean score of 51%, respondents felt comfortable patronizing all the eight of the listed tourism business types. However, the 19% neutral in their responses indicate a sense of uncertainty about patronizing businesses at this time. Sixty-six per cent of the respondents felt comfortable or extremely comfortable with patronizing zoos and gardens. Most of the respondents felt comfortable, even extremely comfortable (combined, 54%) patronizing tourism accommodation, probably due to the establishments' safety precautions and cleaning standards. The respondents also expressed an easiness with patronizing amusement parks. The mean score of 57% expresses an overall feeling of comfort with patronizing tourism businesses. The mean scores also indicate that one quarter of the

respondents were not comfortable or not comfortable at all with patronizing all the tourism business types.

Table 5.10 How tourists feel about patronizing tourism businesses during the COVID-19 pandemic

<b>Comfort with patronizing tourism businesses</b>					
<b>Businesses or activity</b>	<b>Not comfortable at all %</b>	<b>Not comfortable %</b>	<b>Neutral %</b>	<b>Comfortable %</b>	<b>Extremely comfortable %</b>
Dining at a restaurant	11.3	12.0	17.6	56.6	2.7
Staying at a tourism accommodation (hotels and guest houses)	9.6	16.0	19.9	44.6	9.7
Using public transportation	21.8	34.0	16.2	26.2	1.5
Visiting wildlife parks	7.1	14.0	18.4	56.1	4.7
Visiting amusement parks	5.6	13.0	21.1	53.4	7.2
Visiting resorts	5.1	13.0	19.1	57.6	5.7
Visiting museums	6.4	12.0	18.6	57.1	6.4
Visiting zoos and gardens	5.1	10.0	18.6	59.6	6.4
Mean score	9.0	15.5	18.7	51.4	5.5

Source: Field survey, 2021

Most (mean of nearly 40%) of the decisions about patronizing tourism business related to the safety and cleaning protocols applied at tourism businesses (see Table 5.11). This is consistent with findings by Cao & Nguyen (2021) that safety and hygiene at tourist sites were rated highly. This suggests that more attention be given to sanitary conditions of these places. The present study further revealed that respondents were concerned (20%) about the presence of facilities at tourist attractions, quite likely because facilities at tourist sites make visits pleasurable and contribute to high levels of patronage (Khadaroo & Seetana, 2007). Loyalty rewards, promotions and discounts did not matter much to tourists compared to the fear of contracting the coronavirus and the price of products and services.

One quarter of the respondents confirmed that the fear of contracting the virus when using public transportation influenced their decision to patronize public mass transportation (Table 5.11). This concern has also been pointed out by Balińska, & Olejniczak (2021) who found that about one third of their respondents had cancelled their travel plans because they did not feel safe in public spaces due to their fear of COVID-19 infection. Those respondents were concerned about the hygiene (safety and cleaning) of tourism businesses. This is related to “consumers’ expectations towards service providers and the physical environment in which a service takes place” (Balińska, & Olejniczak, 2021: 8). In this study, safety and hygiene were rated highly (mean score of 40%) as an influencing

factor to patronize a tourism business. This is consistent with findings by Cao & Nguyen (2021) that safety and hygiene at tourist sites were rated highly during the pandemic. This suggests that more attention be given to sanitary conditions of these places. The present study further revealed that respondents were concerned (mean score 10%) about the presence of facilities at tourist attractions, quite likely because facilities at tourist sites make visits pleasurable and contribute to high levels of patronage (Khadaroo & Seetanah, 2007). Loyalty rewards, promotions and discounts did not matter much to tourists compared to the fear of contracting the coronavirus and the price of products and services.

Table 5.11 Factors influencing tourists' decisions to patronize tourism businesses

<b>Influencing factors</b>						
<b>Businesses</b>	<b>Price of products and services %</b>	<b>Promotion or discounts %</b>	<b>Safety and cleaning protocols %</b>	<b>Loyalty rewards %</b>	<b>Facilities %</b>	<b>Fear of virus %</b>
Restaurants	21.3	7.1	37.3	8.1	15.9	10.3
Tourism accommodation (hotels/guest houses)	13.0	4.7	44.4	4.2	20.8	12.9
Public transportation	19.4	4.4	32.8	4.4	13.7	25.3
Wildlife parks	23.1	10.2	35.2	7.0	8.7	15.8
Amusement parks	22.8	4.8	40.1	5.2	6.4	20.7
Resorts	22.5	8.7	38.7	8.8	4.3	17.0
Museums	12.4	5.5	45.4	9.8	7.1	19.8
Zoos and gardens	10.4	7.5	44.6	6.4	5.8	25.3
Mean score	18.1	6.6	40.0	6.7	10.3	18.4

Source: Field survey, 2021

Concerning the presence of protective measures at the places they visited one in three (35%) of the respondents reported that they had seen advertorials about COVID-19 safety and protective measures (Table 5.12). These advertorials along with fliers and posters on compulsory wearing of face masks, standing or seating at least 2 metres away from others and compulsory washing of hands with soap and water or using hand sanitizer were also displayed at other places visited. Scholars argue that compliance to protective measures will continue to increase in importance even after the pandemic ends (Jiang & Wen, 2020; Wyman, 2020; Kourgiantakis, Apostolakis & Dimou, 2021).

Table 5.12 Advertorials on COVID-19 safety and prevention

<b>Business</b>	<b>%</b>
Tourism accommodation (hotels and guest houses)	35.0
Zoos/Gardens	19.6
Wildlife parks	18.9
Amusement parks	17.6
Resorts	16.9
Museums	16.9
Public transportation	15.9
Restaurants	15.0
Mean	19.5

Source: Source: Field survey, 2021

Note 3: percentage for advertorials on COVID-19 do not sum to 100 because they were multiple responses.

Satisfaction is the precursor of behaviour (Kim, Suh & Eves, 2010). Table 5.13 gives a breakdown of the level of satisfaction of tourists with the protective measures at the various tourism businesses they patronized. The majority (mean of 55%) of the tourists were satisfied or extremely satisfied with the various protective measures put in place at the tourism businesses they visited. The combined mean of 45% of the respondents who were not satisfied at all or just not satisfied with the protective measures used by the transportation industry is quite likely due to lack of strict adherence to social distancing in the various modes of transport. The near 25% average registered neutral stance (with a small SD of 1.3) may probably be because of the reluctance by respondents to voice out their negative feelings associated with their satisfaction with the protective measures at tourism businesses.

An earlier study has shown that “tourism and transportation are naturally linked. On the one hand, tourists are obliged to travel to and from their destination, so transportation is part of the tourism experience” (Barros, 2012: 520). However, in the wake of the pandemic, public and mass transportation would have suffered setbacks given that the dangers of contracting COVID-19 at crowded places cause people to avoid such places (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021). It has been reported repeatedly in the literature (Giddy & Rogerson, 2020; Cao & Nguyen, 2021; Mirzaei, Sadin & Pedram, 2021; Park, Kim, Kim, Lee & Giroux, 2021) that due to the higher perceived risks and exposure to the pandemic, public transportation will experience a decline as there will be an increase in favour of private mode of transport.

Table 5.13 Tourist's satisfaction with protective measures at tourism businesses

<b>Degree of satisfaction</b>					
<b>Businesses</b>	<b>Not satisfied at all %</b>	<b>Not satisfied %</b>	<b>Neutral %</b>	<b>Satisfied %</b>	<b>Extremely satisfied %</b>
Restaurants	6.9	10.0	22.5	56.9	3.4
Tourism accommodation (hotels/guest houses)	6.4	12.0	24.5	44.6	13.0
Public transportation	22.8	22.0	24.2	28.9	2.0
Wildlife parks	5.4	9.1	25.7	58.3	1.5
Amusement parks	4.9	9.8	26.0	56.9	2.4
Resorts	5.6	8.8	24.5	57.4	3.7
Museums	4.9	9.1	24.0	57.8	4.2
Zoos/Gardens	4.9	10.0	22.5	59.4	2.9
Mean	7.7	11.4	24.2	52.5	2.9
Standard deviation (SD)	6.1	4.4	1.3	10.6	0.9

Source: Field survey, 2021

The standard COVID-19 regulations and protocols listed in the literature (Dayour, Adongo, Amuquando & Adam, 2020) were also identified by respondents in this study as being imposed by the PSG. Sixty-four per cent of the respondents agreed that the regulations, namely total lockdown, interstate travel ban, intra-local government travel restriction, ban on social gatherings, night curfew, and limits on the number of persons in all confined spaces, imposed by the PSG helped in curbing the fast spread of the coronavirus in the state. Other regulations imposed by the state government were a ban on hugging and handshaking, a ban on all forms of religious activities, fumigation of environments and closure of non-essential businesses. Sixty-one per cent of the respondents effectively observed the total lockdown during Phase 1.

Respondents were asked to name the ways in which the regulations were helpful. Table 5.14 indicates that one fifth of the respondents opined that the movement restriction orders (MROs) helped in reducing the rapid spread of the virus. Despite the reduction in the spread of the virus, the regulations intensified hunger situation through the sit-at-home order (22%). Even though essential services including farming were exempted from the sit at home order, but due to lack of full awareness on both the populace and security agents enforcing the sit at home order, many did not fully know about the exemption.

Table 5.14 Helpfulness of COVID-19 regulations

<b>Helpfulness of regulation</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
Regulations escalated hunger due to sit-at-home order that hindered farming activities.	89	21.8
Movement restriction orders helped in reducing the rapid spread of the virus.	86	21.1
Public enlightenment reduced the risk of contracting COVID-19 at public and crowded places.	71	17.4
Plateau State recorded low deaths due to observing regulations by citizens and visitors and proper management by the health sector.	71	17.3
Broke the chain of local transmission.	39	9.6
Low positive cases compared to other states that did not enforce the lockdown early.	29	7.1
Increased personal hygiene and safety	13	3.2
Community support centres provided great enlightenment for rural communities.	10	2.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>408</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field survey, 2021

Similarly, hunger was aggravated by the close down of markets, disrupting the food supply chain. The sit-at-home order also helped killer herdsmen and armed bandit groups to regroup in major hideouts, such as the forests of Kaduna, Katsina, Niger, Plateau and Zamfara States for abducting students and unleashing mayhem on hapless rural communities (Mailafiya, 2020). This restricted farming activities so that hunger was further exacerbated by insecurity and insurgency (Adegboye, 2020; Folarin 2020; Mailafiya, 2020; Piwuna, 2020).

It is reported in the literature that the experiences of tourists at crowded destinations affect their emotions, behaviour and attitudes, their sense of destination attractiveness, activity safety and festival experience (Li et al., 2017; Liu & Ma 2019). The public enlightenment campaign instituted by the PSG reduced the risk of contracting COVID-19 at public and crowded places and helped in guiding the behaviour of citizens. The low number of cases and low death rate recorded in PS can be attributed to the strict observation of the regulations by citizens and visitors, along with proper management by the health sector. This broke the chain of fast local transmission compared to other states that did not enforce the lockdown early enough. Increased personal hygiene and community support provided awareness for rural communities thereby keeping local transmissions at very minimal levels. Aside from causing insecurity threats, the pandemic changed tourism activities and tourist behaviour in PS. Table 5.15 lists six changes the respondents named when asked.

Table 5.15 Ways the COVID-19 pandemic changed tourism activities in Plateau State

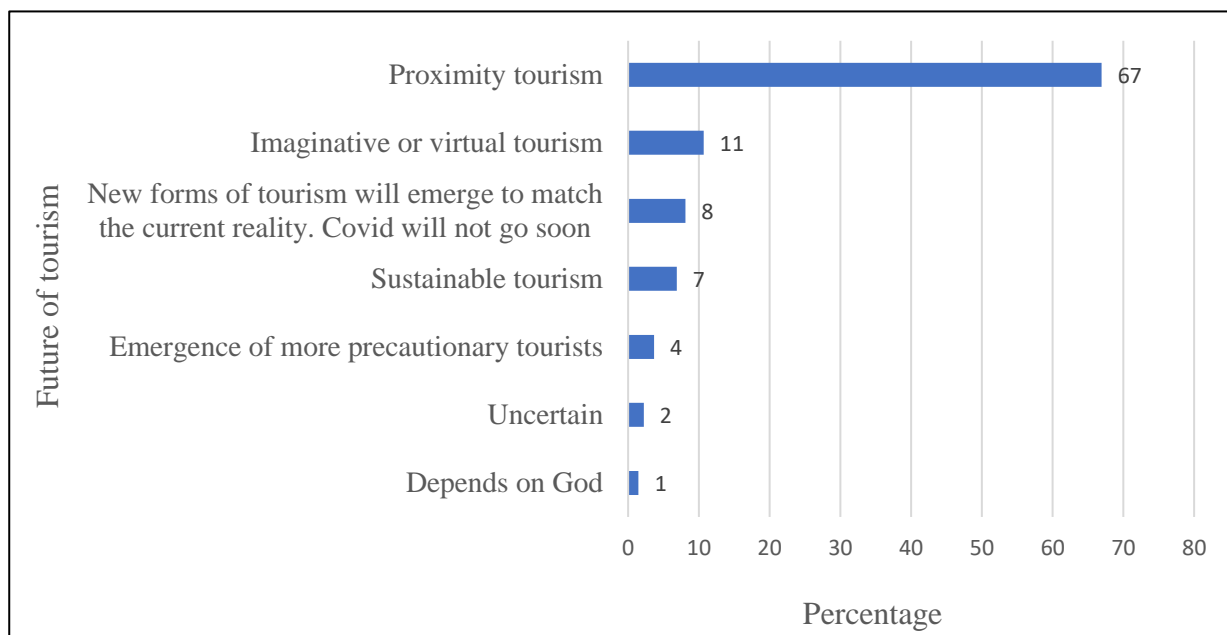
Ways the pandemic changed tourism activities	Number	%
Low patronage due to avoidance of tourist sites and businesses	124	30.6
Reduced influx of tourists and declines in revenue generation due to the slowing down of business and economic activities	92	22.5
Loss of interest in social activities and tourism leading to low patronage	77	18.8
Crippled businesses and brought tourism activities to a standstill	58	14.2
Cancellation of major festivities and tourism events	36	8.8
Fear of contracting the COVID-19 made tourists avoid tourist attractions	21	5.1
Total	408	100

Source: Field survey, 2021

About one third of the respondents observed that tourism businesses experienced low patronage due to avoidance of tourist sites. This inevitably led to a decline in revenue for businesses which, in turn, negatively impacted the internally generated revenue (IGR) of PS (Jugu et al., 2021). This is consistent with the pre-COVID assertion by Laws & Prideaux (2017) that crisis-hit nations or regions will suffer a decline in tourism numbers and tourism revenue due to destination substitution. The reduction in the influx of tourists into PS was mentioned by nearly 25% of the respondents as slowing down business and economic activities. Respondents also reported the cancellation of major festivals and tourism events, the avoidance of tourist attractions due to fear of contracting COVID-19 at the sites, loss of interest in social activities and the bringing of tourism activities to a standstill due to tourism businesses being put out of business. This is consistent with Dube et al.'s (2020) finding that the pandemic has crippled the hospitality industry.

Tourists are self-organizing to patronize destinations at their proximities and “in the context of growing insecurity and uncertainty, nearby destinations could be considered ‘less risky’ by many potential tourists who, having been noticeably affected by the economic crisis arising from the health crisis, have seen their purchasing power reduced” (Romagosa, 2020: 692). Respondents were asked to name new dimensions they thought tourism would take in PS post-COVID-19, in other words, what is the future of tourism in the state? They agreed that this will largely depend on domestic tourists wishing to explore destinations closer to them (also known as ‘staycation’ or proximity tourism) and the emergence of more precautionary tourists (Figure 5.8). Giddy & Rogerson (2020)

and Bolchinova (2021) have suggested that tourists are beginning to appreciate and explore the domestic market as highlighted here by two thirds of the respondents opining that the sustenance of the tourism industry will be proximate tourists. This global trend is likely to continue into 2022 as claimed by Bolchinova, 2021. Although imaginative or virtual tourism feature with sustainable tourism as future forms of tourism, it is noteworthy that some (8%) of the respondents opined that other new forms of tourism will emerge to match the current reality. Respondents' uncertainty about the future and hope in Godly intervention are notable.



Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 5.8 Future dimensions of tourism in Plateau State

In light of the new forms of tourism (future dimensions), when asked about the sustainability of the tourism industry the respondents agreed (29%) or strongly agreed (50%) that domestic and proximate tourists will sustain the tourism industry of PS. The sustenance of the tourism industry by domestic and proximate tourists is in line with Romagosa's (2020) finding that domestic tourism will thrive despite the uncertainty surrounding the recovery of the tourism sector. Furthermore, a combined total of 80% agreed or strongly agreed that domestic and proximate tourists should patronize tourism businesses in PS as this will secure jobs for the tourism industry. Although the COVID-19 pandemic has led to the emergence of more precautionary tourists, sustainable tourism, smart (imaginative or virtual) tourism and proximity tourism are likely to be explored as alternatives.



The experiences of tourists during this pandemic are wide ranging. This study found that safety and cleaning protocols, facilities, price and fear were the major influencing factors in tourists' decisions to patronize tourism businesses. The impact of the pandemic on tourist' protective behaviour as reported by Kock et al. (2021) will continue to play a role in tourists' behaviour (psyche) during and after the pandemic. Other non-survey impacts of the pandemic were observed during fieldwork and these are reported in the next section.

## 5.5 NON-SURVEY IMPACTS OBSERVED

During the survey period, it was observed that general insecurity, increased insurgent activity, abductions and kidnappings of schoolchildren and students are responsible for the growing number of children out of school in Nigeria (Day Light, 2022). This resulted in "over 12 million children being traumatized and afraid to go to school as their concentration and attention for learning waned as asserted by President Muhammadu Buhari" (Idoko, 2021: 1). Dealing with these security challenges and their effects has been tough as the impact on education has been devastating and children have been deprived of the right to education. The President lamented that:

It is no longer news that at will, bandits, kidnappers, and terrorists invade our educational facilities to abduct the learners in large numbers. Permit me to share with you a report released by S.B. Morgan which revealed that a total of 1462 learners and education personnel were abducted between 1st December 2019 and September 2021 in school-related abductions of learners and teachers. The highest number of abductions in a single kidnap (327 learners) was recorded in Zamfara while Kaduna has experienced the greatest number of incidences of attack on education. Out of the 19 educational institutions attacked, 12 representing 63%, were secondary schools while five which represented 26% were within the tertiary education system. School closures due to abductions and security issues have impacted schooling and the wider implication of the foregoing is that of a generation of negativity on our education system. There are more than 12 million children currently traumatized and afraid of going to school especially the girl child. The Nigerian government is highly committed to prioritizing safety in schools to protect investments in the education sector which would validate the endorsement of the safe school's declaration (Buhari, cited in Idoko, 2021: no page number).

Nigeria's large swathes of ungoverned spaces without government or security presence have become readily available for bandits who now occupy these spaces as their operational bases, so putting learners and residents at the mercy of these groups. The ICG (International Crisis Group, 2021) agrees that the lack of state leadership has played a key role in allowing violence to escalate and spread. Rural and predominantly farming communities constitute the major targets of bandit attacks and

villages have been attacked severely by these groups who kill, rape and abduct villagers for ransom (Ololade, 2021).

Ololade (2021) asserted that in a series of interviews with several boys from the communities where bandits attacked and abducted villagers, the boys rued the attacks that cost them their peace, education and homes but they extolled the notoriety and courage of their favourite bandit leaders. One of the boys argued that “I don’t need to go to school. What will I be if I go to school? A teacher? Doctor? Engineer? Fighters make the big money. They have all the power. Politicians fear them. Government fears them. See, my father was a politician. He promised to make me a councillor. He is dead now. Bandits killed him and my stepbrothers. Then they took my stepmother away to be their forest wife. Bandits have all the power today. I will become a bandit leader, make big money and retire very young” (Ololade, 2021: no page).

Banditry has become a big business in Nigeria (*bandipreneurship*, as coined by the researcher) where very young boys are profiting from the insecurity in the country. Ololade (2020) affirms that the country’s kidnap economy has become lucrative. Ololade’s (2021: 1) interview with one of the bandits recorded that the bandit held that he “would like to be a bandit. I will be rich. I will make money and live in Dubai. I will keep one family there and one family in Nigeria. When I am away, my boys will work for me and collect.” This is grim confirmation that banditry is a lucrative business in Nigeria as the sum of ₦10 billion (USD20 million) was demanded as ransom for 2371 persons kidnapped in Nigeria in the first half of 2021 (SBM Intelligence, 2021).

The ICG (2020) reports that deadly conflicts in north-west Nigeria have killed more than 8000 people and displaced over 200 000 since 2011, some to the neighbouring Republic of Niger. The government has been making concerted efforts to rebuild the confidence of citizens and visitors but, “in spite of their commitments to disarm, many herder-allied and other armed groups bear arms openly, intimidating residents, sometimes extorting cash, cattle, and food, and engaging in sexual violence” (ICG, 2020: 26).

Due to the chronic insecurity, the activist and revolutionary group CORE (Coalition for Revolution) announced plans to hold a nationwide protest in Nigeria on 1 October 2021 which was Nigeria’s Independence Day (Sahara Reporters, 2021). The group argued that the administration of President Muhammadu Buhari has taken “the incompetence of the country’s ruling class to the height of infamy” (CORE, cited in Sahara Reporters, 2021: 1). CORE (cited in Sahara Reporters, 2021: 1) “also lamented that tens of thousands of workers had been laid off, while many more suffered wage cuts. Farmers did not have access to seedlings and other agricultural inputs. Traders and other informal economy workers did not have access to credit facilities.” The cost of living continued to rise at an astronomic rate. Many families could not eat properly as food inflation pushed a further seven million

people into poverty after the country had already become the poverty capital of the world (CORE, cited in Sahara Reporters, 2021). The group further argued that:

The country's public health and education facilities are in terrible states. Doctors are on strike; other health workers are warning up for a strike. University teachers are also likely to go on strike soon. All these are because the regime refuses to respect collective agreements reached with their unions. We condemn the spate of killings and kidnappings by bandits in the country, as well as brutality and violation of human rights. Even our lives are now a jeopardy. Physical insecurity has also become the order of the day. More than 4000 people have been killed and at least 3100 kidnapped this year alone. Several families have become bankrupt as they sold all they had to pay kidnappers. Yet bandits continue to roam freely. The regime cannot apprehend them, but it is always quick to flex its repressive muscles against unarmed Nigerians. Peaceful demonstrations have regularly been brutally dispersed. Many people have also been illegally locked up for speaking out on social media (CORE, cited in Sahara Reporters, 2021: 1).

There have been abysmal failures in bringing bandits and killers to justice in Nigeria (Adeyemi, 2022). With physical insecurity looming and the effectiveness of banditry getting more extensive, this further threatens the security crisis in the nation. Banditry in Nigeria was perpetuated by the prevailing economic realities (poverty and unemployment), fostered by weak government and a limited security apparatus in large, infested areas (Akinyetun, 2021). Forced migration, food insecurity, cattle rustling, property destruction, health problems and deaths have all increased due to insecurity (ICG, 2020). The consequences of insecurity have left tourists and tourism businesses struggling to survive the reflections of the dysfunctional social conditions and institutions in Nigeria. Given the spate of unabated and continued conflicts with violent attacks by bandits amidst the COVID-19 pandemic in Nigeria, it is pertinent that tourism businesses as a matter of exigency need help to thrive.

## **5.6 CONCLUSION**

This chapter addressed the experiences of tourists in Plateau State during the COVID-19 pandemic. The study highlighted tourists' experiences during the pandemic and its impact on the tourism industry. This research has shown that tourist behaviour is an important indicator of the future sustainability of tourism businesses. This is important and needs to be understood by the tourism industry and business owners. Tourist behaviour towards tourism businesses has been devastated by the pandemic which has severely affected the overall functioning and operations of tourism businesses during the pandemic. The relevance of chaos theory for understanding tourist behaviour during the pandemic rests on the self-organization component which explains how pandemics, health

security and safety can trigger changes in tourist behaviour leading to the avoidance of destinations. Safety, cleanliness, caution and precaution will become important aspects of the tourism industry owing to the implementation of non-pharmaceutical safety protocols by the government. This research confirms a view that travelling is a basic human need as some respondents travelled despite the pandemic.

The above-reported findings contribute to the ongoing research recognizing and describing how the pandemic continues to change tourist behaviour. The changes include a total resignation from travelling to engage in tourism activities due to travel restrictions, low consumer confidence, avoidance of crowded public places and the increased risk involved in travelling due to escalated insecurity in Nigeria. The pandemic has also affected consumer behaviour due to fear for one's own health and that of loved ones. The physical and mental benefits of engaging in tourism activities have been undermined by the pandemic. The fear of contracting the COVID-19 has negatively influenced tourists' decisions to patronize tourism businesses. This fear and stress of travelling, exacerbated by the pandemic and all the travel restrictions, has seen the emergence of tourists now resorting to being tourists in their town (proximate tourists) with high priority accorded to tourists' health and safety.

The outbreak of the pandemic means that tourism and tourist behaviour are no longer as before. Non-pharmaceutical interventions are reshaping tourism and tourist behaviour. The impact of the pandemic on changing tourist behaviour is seen in the heightened importance of proximity tourism, especially visiting family and friends in light of the continuing ban and restrictions on international travel. The findings of this study justify a focus on proximity tourism. Given the uncertainty of the twists of the pandemic impacting international tourism and travel, one certainty is that proximity tourism will be a significant element in the future sustenance of the country's tourism industry. In Chapter 6 the economic impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses is investigated to ascertain how these businesses fared during this period.

## CHAPTER 6

# THE ECONOMIC IMPACT OF THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC ON TOURISM BUSINESSES

### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry in Nigeria has proven strong and resilient over the years. The continued demand for travel and tourism, which contributes to employment, demonstrates the importance and value of the sector as a vehicle for economic development and job creation (Yusuff & Mukail, 2015). Tourism in Nigeria has become one of the growth engines of the economy. A report by the WTTC (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2014) indicates that tourism contributed 3.2% to Nigeria's gross domestic product (GDP) with another 2.7% to the total employment in 2013. In 2019 and 2020 tourism's contribution to Nigeria's GDP increased to 4.4% but then decreased to 2.8% (due to the COVID-19 pandemic) but it did generate USD11 billion in 2020 (Statista, 2021). The National Bureau of Statistics asserted in 2017 that tourism provided 20% employment and accounted for 3.4 million jobs in Nigeria (NBSN, 2017).

Although the Plateau State (PS) has tremendous tourism potential, tourism in the state follows the national trends mentioned above. The state government is developing the state's tourism potential in recognition of its capacity as a major source of employment or export earnings "with the enormous propensity to contribute to the State's GDP" (Lalong, 2019: 2). The government is optimistic that the level of investment in the sector will rise significantly and revenue receipts from tourism would play dominant roles in businesses, livelihoods and the state's economy to reduce overdependence on federal allocations from oil revenues (PSG, 2021). Given the growing fear about dwindling oil revenues as well as the diminishing relevance of oil and gas (IISS, 2020; Dushime & Osele, 2021), the foci of the state government are shifting toward economic diversification and alternative revenue streams.

The global tourism industry continues to suffer losses and damage due to unexpected events, such as natural disasters, epidemic crises and man-made hazards (Burkle, 2006). When these events occur, tourism businesses suffer direct and indirect losses that affect the whole economic system (Polyzos, Samitas & Spyridou, 2021). Two major contributors to the severe suffering of the world economy and world tourism market were the severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) outbreak and the COVID-19 pandemic (Ying et al., 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic has been described as an unprecedented crisis in recent history that has shaken the world and created long-term impacts on all types of businesses, more specifically those that are the subject of this chapter, namely tourism

businesses (Bapuji et al., 2020; Cetin, 2020). Due to the pandemic, countries around the world are grappling with stifled receipts from the tourism industry, even a global recession threatens one of the biggest contributors to economic growth and development as travellers from affected areas continue to face restrictions (Yang, Zhang & Chen, 2020; Polyzos et al., 2021).

There has been an ongoing underestimation of the impact of the pandemic since the start of the crisis in China “with little empirical insights to date, on the direction and magnitude of impact resulting from this unprecedented shock” (Lim & To, 2021: 2). However, Yang, Zhang & Chen (2020) highlight the implications associated with the risks in resolving this global crisis with the aid of their dynamic stochastic general equilibrium model for predicting the effects of the pandemic on tourism and other sectors of a closed economy. Although the direct and indirect impacts of the pandemic on the tourism industry cannot be measured easily (Polyzos et al., 2021), COVID-19 has impacted the value and the volume of tourist flows which in turn have affected tourism businesses. Gossling et al. (2020), Ying et al. (2020) and Polyzos et al. (2021) have examined the effects of the pandemic using the available preliminary data. In light of this ongoing global debate and research, this chapter addresses the third research objective of this study and thus, examines the economic impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses in PS, Nigeria.

## **6.2 TYPES OF TOURISM BUSINESSES SURVEYED**

Inarguably, PS is one of the foremost tourist termini in Nigeria where it is immensely endowed with both natural and man-made attractions that remain mostly untapped. These attractions, especially the gigantic rock formations, hillsides, attractive waterfalls, peculiar wildlife and appealing weather have been compelling attractions to tourists, including Europeans, in the early 20th century. The state’s tourism industry has been growing slowly and this is chiefly attributed to meagre allocations by the state government, ethnoreligious crises and insecurity (Krause, 2011; Enyiaka, 2019; Nnabuihe & Onwuzuruigbo, 2021), despite a vast domestic travel market. Government agencies have a highly bureaucratic attitude towards the private sector and unilaterally plan tourism development without consideration of the views of the private sector (Li, Kim, & Lee, 2021). This, sadly, is the case in PS.

There are many types of businesses that comprise the tourism industry. For this study, the developed, properly managed, popular and viable tourism businesses in the study area were selected from three groups of tourism business types, namely restaurants (30%), hotels and guest houses (65%) and tourist attractions (5%). Ten tourist attractions were selected for study by questionnaire survey of their managers (see Figure 5.2 for the location of the tourist attractions). A total of 62 restaurants and 137 accommodation establishments were sampled and their managers surveyed (along with the

managers of the 10 tourist attractions) (see Appendix K for names and coordinates of all 209 sampled businesses). The locations of surveyed restaurants and tourism accommodation establishments are indicated in Figures 6.1 and 6.2 respectively. Except for a few businesses owned by the government (5%), all the others are private enterprises.

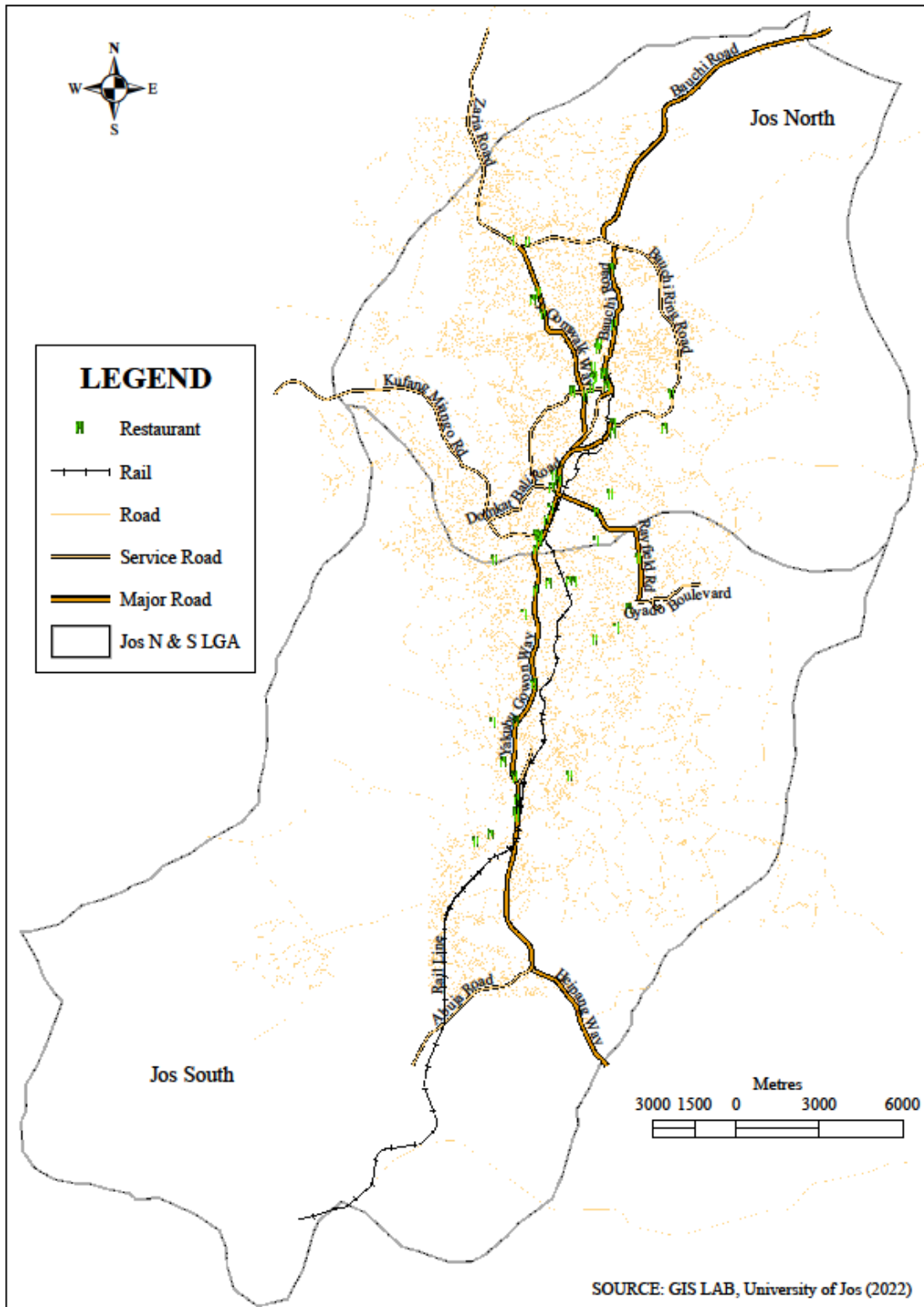


Figure 6.1 Location of surveyed restaurants

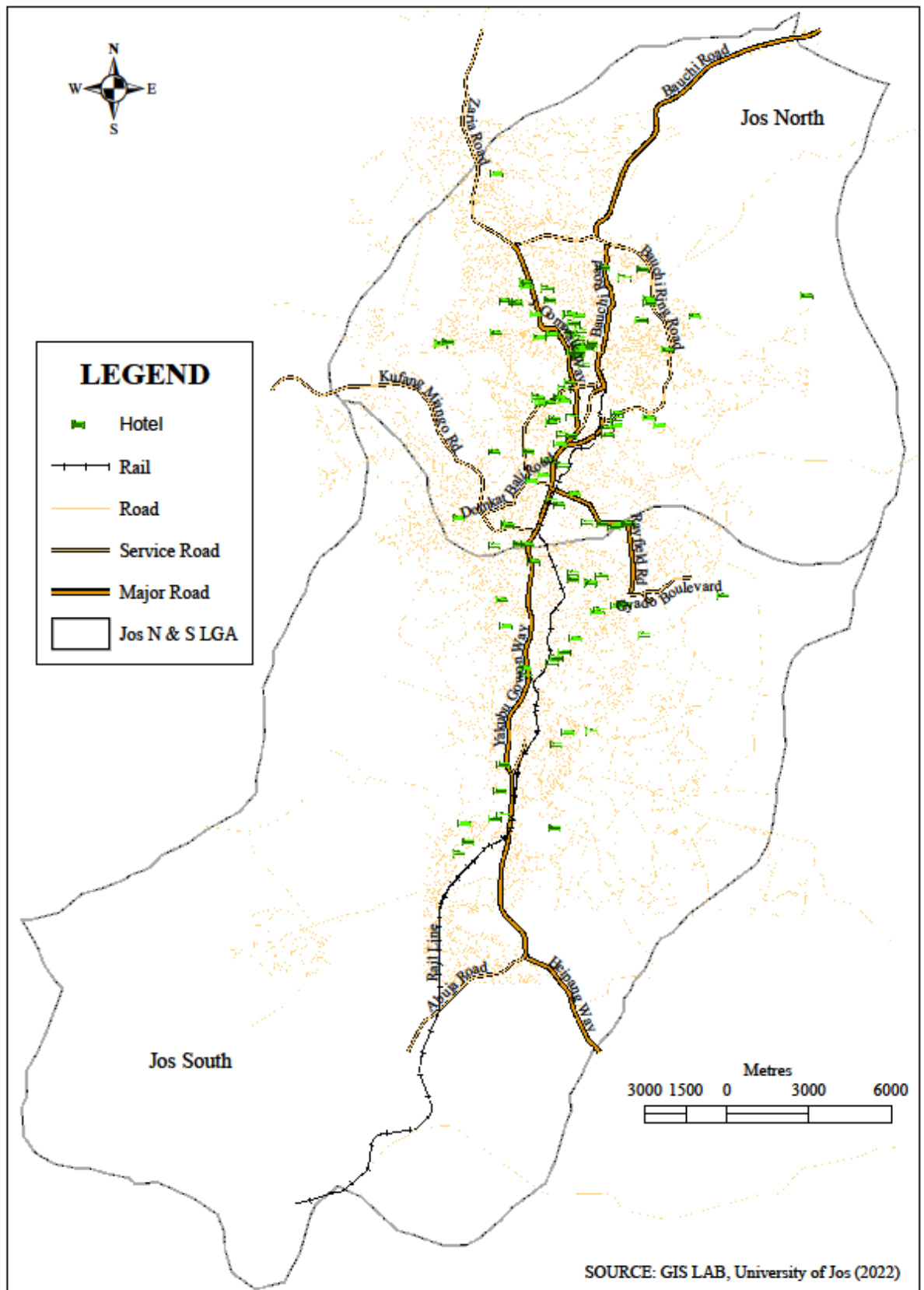


Figure 6.2 Location of surveyed tourism accommodation establishments



The arrangement and apportionment of the various tourism businesses (see Figures 5.2, 6.1 and 6.2) in the study area showed that tourism accommodation establishments had higher concentration followed by restaurants then tourist attractions. The distribution pattern of tourism accommodation is randomly clumped with very close proximity to other hotels or guest houses whereas tourist attractions and restaurants were equally spaced apart more or less (uniform distribution). Figure 6.2 showed that tourism accommodation establishments had a combination of linear and clustered spatial patterns with majority of the hotels and guest houses located along the main road transport. This implies that accessing the tourism accommodation establishments in the study area would be with ease as the patterns and distribution show easy accessibility. Tourist attractions and restaurants (see Figures 5.2 and 6.1) showed dispersed patterns with these businesses scattered over the study area. These patterns and distributions with COVID-19 can perhaps determine how tourism businesses fared economically during the pandemic. The economic impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses is presented in the next section.

### **6.3 ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF THE PANDEMIC ON TOURISM BUSINESSES**

The world has witnessed a global economic meltdown due to the COVID-19 pandemic which is continuing to affect businesses and the well-being of families and communities and cause a drastic fall in overall economic activities (Cetin, 2020; Islam et al., 2020). This contraction of economies has been exacerbated by the decline in the travel and tourism sector due to travel restrictions and lockdowns. The economic impact of the pandemic continues to garner global attention since the pandemic's spread to countries affects other countries through disrupted trade and global linkages (butterfly effect). The future economic outlook is tilting towards possible recession and economic depression with emerging evidence from China, Europe and the United States of America (USA) (Barua, 2020; Polyakova, Kocks, Udalova, & Finkelstein, 2020).

In the USA, for example, the tourism industry contributed almost 10% of the workforce of the non-financial economy related to tourism in 2016 (Williams & Kayaoglu, 2020). The mass shutdown of tourism-related jobs such as hotel accommodation and food services which accounted for 19% and 58% respectively of jobs in the USA, created an extraordinary socioeconomic impact on the industry (Williams & Kayaoglu, 2020). The decline of 26% in outdoor recreation trips in the USA signifies the reduced demand for outdoor recreation amid the pandemic, contrary to the predicted record increase of annual visits anticipated by National Park managers for 2020 (Landry, Bergstrom, Salazar & Turner, 2021). Most tourism businesses in the USA plunged into liquidity crises and possible permanent closures as the pandemic persisted (Cetin, 2020; Dube et al., 2020; Landry et al., 2021).

The negative impact on the USA economy and the tourism industry is unprecedented “due to lower operation capacity, most fine dining and family restaurants had either laid off staff or furloughed above 80% of their staff as a cost-containment measure” (Dube et al., 2020: 1488).

In the United Kingdom (UK), the Bank of England (BoE) cut interest rates to a record low of 0.1% as an emergency measure to ease the economic impact of the pandemic. A £20 billion stimulus package followed and the launch of £330 billion “loans to help UK businesses through the coronavirus crisis” (De Vita, 2020: 1). These measures helped employees’ businesses as workplaces remained closed without demand. However, companies could “claim 80% of their employees’ wages from the UK government, up to a maximum of £2500 per employee per month. The self-employed taxpayer subsidy was also made available by the government for 80% of their trading profits up to a maximum of £2500 per month, along with the deferral of payment of direct and indirect taxes owed” (De Vita, 2020: 1). This model worked in the UK and has been adopted across Europe to cushion the impacts of the pandemic on businesses and employees.

Australia is facing similar situations of closed businesses, job and income losses in the industry that keeps losing billions of dollars each month as the pandemic persists (Pham, Dwyer, Su & Ngo, 2021). There have been calls on the Australian government to support the tourism industry to mitigate the impacts of the pandemic both for present and future businesses (Pham et al., 2021). According to Colston (2020: 1) “the tourism industry is losing almost A\$ 9bn every month that the global pandemic continues and is forecasting job losses of well over 300 000 so we are calling on the government to recognize the urgency of providing these employers with sector-specific financial assistance. We acknowledge all of the steps taken by the Federal and State and Territory Governments are entirely necessary to ensure the health and well-being of Australians, but we are now at a point where our industry and its people are in the fight for survival.”

Acikgoz & Gunay (2020: 521) have stressed that “China is a crucial country as a source of both demand and supply and a focus for financial markets for the rest of the world.” Although China is the world’s second biggest economy with a GDP of USD14.7 trillion (World Bank, 2020c), the economy in the first quarter of 2020 began to suffer devastation due to the pandemic. Despite receiving almost 6.5 billion tourists at the various grades of tourist attractions in 2019, in early 2020 the pandemic led to a complete closure of all tourist attractions in China (Wang et al., 2021) with offline consumption dropping by 32% and China losing 1.2% of the country’s 2019 GDP (Chen, Qian & Wen, 2021). The butterfly effect of this economic devastation from China (Wu et al., 2021) triggered a global macroeconomic rippling effect that affected tourism businesses all over the world (Chen et al., 2021), PS, Nigeria included. The focus now turns to the economic impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses in PS.

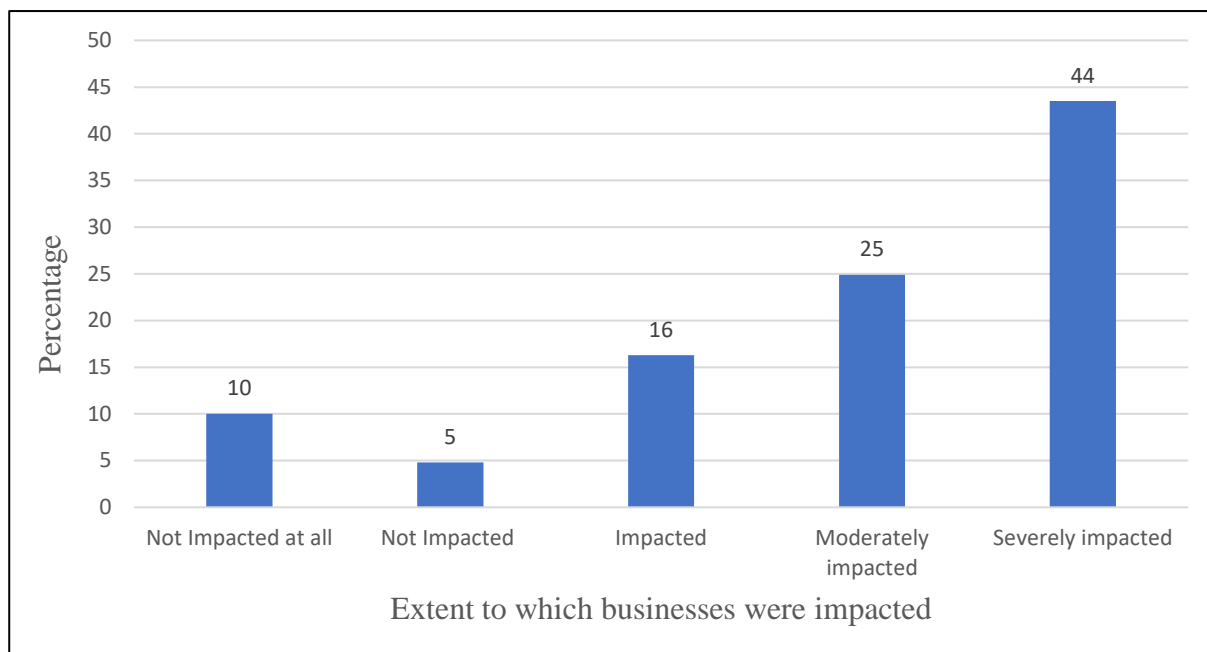
The overall impact of the pandemic on businesses and workers in most service industries was found to be negative (Cetin, 2020; Hall et al., 2020; Williams & Kayaoglu, 2020; Wu et al., 2021). Pham et al. (2021: 4), for example, has described the pandemic as an “economic wrecking ball for the tourism sector”. Regarding the nature of the impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses, respondents to this study were asked to characterize the impact on their business on a simple three-point scale (Table 6.1). As might be expected, the majority (four out of five respondents) reported an overall negative impact of the pandemic on their business.

Table 6.1 Nature of the COVID-19 pandemic impact on businesses

<b>Impact</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
Positive impact	11	5.3
Negative impact	166	79.4
Mixed impact	32	15.3
Total	209	100

Source: Field survey, 2021

In a follow-up question, respondents were asked to scale their views on the extent of the pandemic’s impact on their business (Figure 6.3). Eighty-five per cent of the respondents’ businesses were impacted. Only 15% reported that their businesses were not impacted by the pandemic. The huge percentage of businesses impacted by the pandemic is a clear indication that tourism businesses in PS were severely impacted by the pandemic. The majority of the clientele base of most tourism businesses in the study area is the domestic market with a handful from the international market. This trend could perhaps be due to the massive booking cancellation and disappearance of the few international and domestic tourists at sight due to the travel bans and the national lockdowns. During the pandemic, there was also a surge in insurgency, terrorism and armed banditry which has led to a drying up of international visitors and has kept most domestic tourists in their homes for fear of being kidnapped for ransom (Okoli, 2019; Munshi 2021). Kidnapping for ransom has been described as “the most virulent form of banditry in Nigeria. It has become the most pervasive and intractable violent crime in the country” Okoli (2019: 1) and this has further intensified the pressure and impact on businesses.



Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 6.3 Scale of the extent of the COVID-19 impacts on tourism businesses

Respondents were asked to describe how the pandemic impacted the general array of business principles either positively or negatively (Table 6.2).

Table 6.2 Respondents' descriptions of how the COVID-19 pandemic impacted their businesses

Positive effects	Number	%	Negative effects	Number	%
Increased cash	9	4.3	Increased cost of running the business	51	24.4
Increased demand	9	4.3	Increased debt	89	42.6
Increased number of staff	13	6.2	Reduced number of staff	90	43.1
Increased revenue	12	5.7	Cutbacks in staff wages	93	44.5
Increment in staff wages	10	4.8	Loss of revenue	116	55.5
Reduced debt	10	4.8	Reduced demand	125	59.8
Reduced cost of running the business	42	20.1	Cash shortage	142	67.9
Others	6	3.0			

Source: Field survey, 2021

Note 4: Frequency and percentage for the positive and negative effects of the pandemic on businesses do not total 209 and 100 because they were multiple responses. The percentage for each answer is expressed as a percentage of the sample size (209).

Most of the business managers marked the negative effects like cash shortages (68%), reduced demand (60%), revenue loss (56%), cutbacks in staff wages (45%), increased debt (43%) that led to

reduced numbers of staff (43%) and increased cost of running the business (24%). Some increased the price of products due to hikes in food prices, some maintained the number of workers by not laying off workers and some maintained staff salary levels in light of the reductions in the number of workers. Clearly, tourism businesses strategized to lower costs in order to sustain their enterprises. Some businesses did not record cash shortages or declines in revenue as they profited from the pandemic by offering essential services to clients. This corroborates findings by Alshamsi, (2020), Huang et al. (2020), Muhammad, Long & Salman (2020), Shakir, Shaikh & Aggarwal (2020), Beirman (2021) and Zhang et al. (2021) that disasters and the COVID-19 pandemic can be a “blessing in disguise” as “every crisis has its winners” (Beirman, 2021: 1).

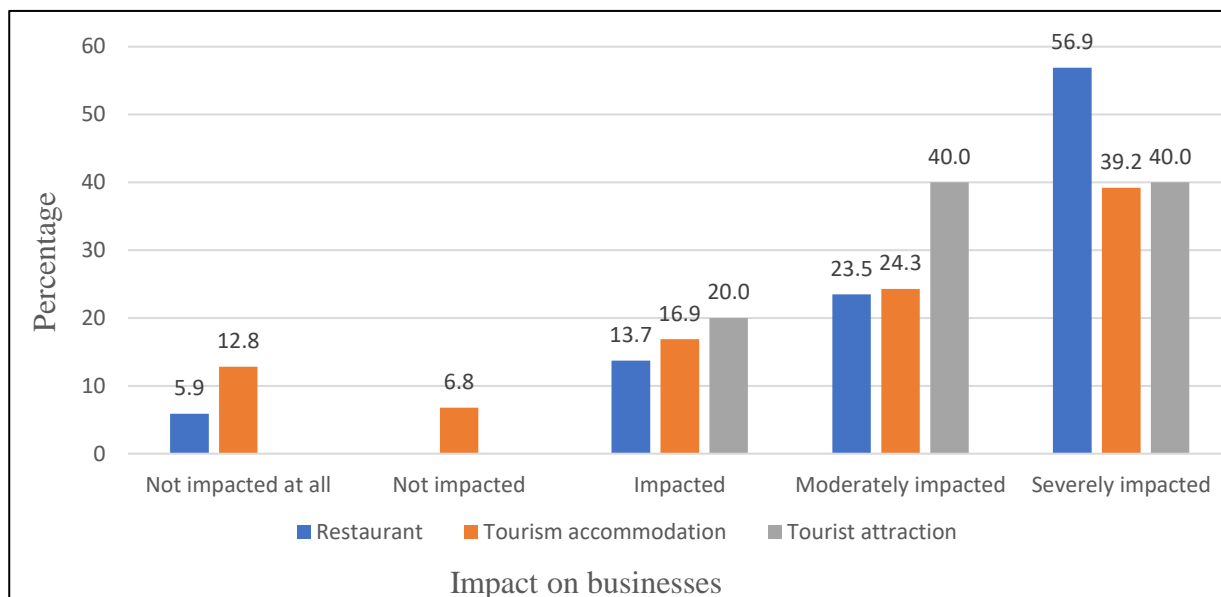
The shocking realities of the financial impact of the pandemic on the businesses are evidenced in Table 6.3 with less than 6% showing a profit in 2020 and less than one third of the businesses managing to break even. Most striking is that less than 10% lost money in 2019 but by 2021 this had increased markedly to two thirds of the businesses. Equally reflective of the negative impact is the decrease in profitable operations from nearly 90% in 2020 to nigh 6% in 2021.

Table 6.3 Financial position of tourism businesses in 2019 and 2020

<b>Business financial position</b>	<b>2019</b>		<b>2020</b>	
	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
Profitable	143	68.4	12	5.7
Breaking even (no net loss or gain)	47	22.5	59	28.2
Losing money	19	9.1	138	66
Total	209	100	209	100

Source: Field survey, 2021

A graphic comparison of business types and the extent of the pandemic’s impact on the performance of restaurants, accommodation establishments and tourism attractions is given in Figure 6.4. Restaurants were the most severely (57%) impacted by the pandemic with 80% being impacted severely or moderately. Similarly, 80% of tourism attractions were severely or moderately impacted. Only 39% of tourism accommodation (hotels and guest houses) were severely impacted although severe and moderate effects totalled nearly 64%. The low percentage of tourism accommodation (20%) and restaurants (6%) that were not impacted by the pandemic is a clear indication that tourism businesses in PS were severely impacted by the pandemic.



Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 6.4 Extent of the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on three types of tourism business

These findings are consistent with existing research (Dube et al., 2020; Gssling et al., 2020) confirming that the restaurant industry has been hardest hit by the pandemic because of the almost total disappearance of clients. The impacts are the result of the global non-pharmaceutical interventions (NPIs) (social distancing, movement restrictions and lockdowns leading to business closures) instituted by countries as the pandemic persisted. The extent of the pandemic does not only reflect on the performance of tourism businesses, but it also reflected in their business operations and strategies. This is reported in the next section.

#### 6.4 EFFECTS OF THE COVID-19 ON BUSINESS OPERATIONS AND STRATEGIES

The tourism industry has weathered diverse disruptive crises in the recent past, but the pandemic has been described as one of the most devastating events of the past two centuries that has crippled the tourism industry and business operations (Cetin, 2020; Gössling, et al., 2020; Zenker & Kock, 2020). Business managers were asked to name the operational status of their businesses in the various phases of lockdown and to give the percentage of clients who were patronizing their business in each phase. Their responses are summarized in Table 6.4.

Regarding operational status it was found that 54% of the businesses were closed during all three phases of lockdown. More than half of those surveyed indicated that they partially operated their businesses during Phase 3 of eased lockdown but started operating businesses as usual towards the

later part of Phase 3. Patronage by clients increased from 28% in Phase 2 of eased lockdown to 50% in Phase 3 of eased lockdown which does not exemplify full recovery. Patronage began to decline in Phase 1 of the lockdown as only 29% of businesses were closed due to the announcement of partial lockdown by the state government. The partial closure of business was the result of standard operating procedures set out by the PSG for all sectors, including business operating hours which were limited to three days per week (Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays) between 07:00 and 16:00.

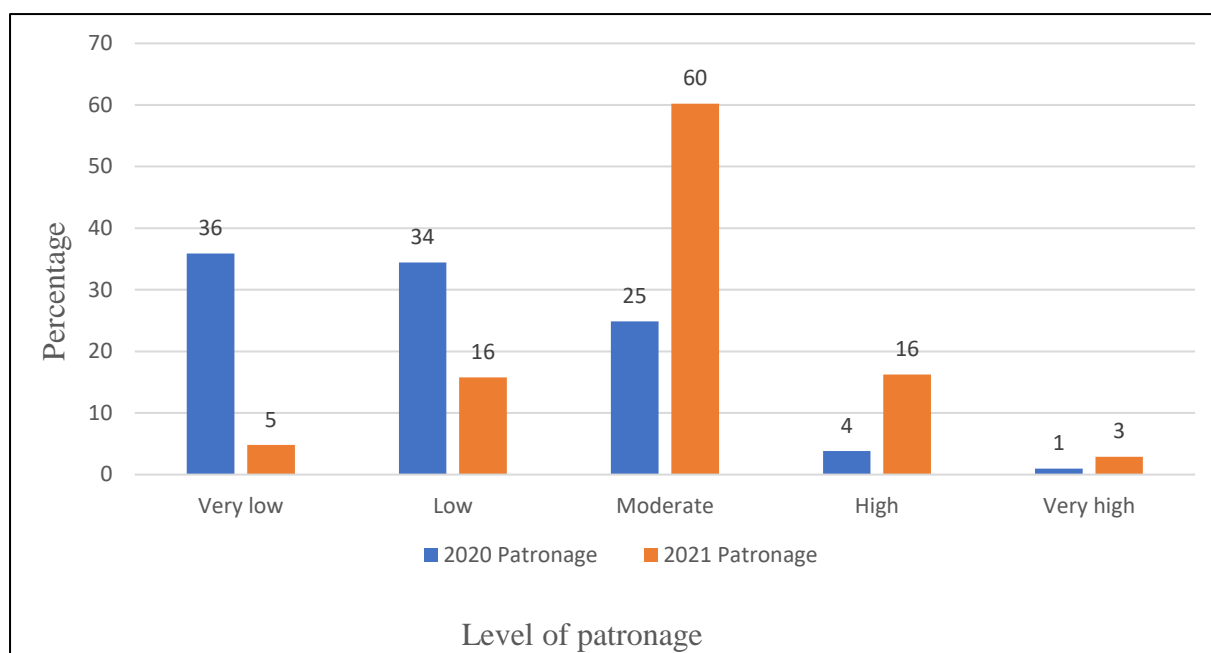
Table 6.4 Tourism businesses operational status before the COVID-19 pandemic and during the phases of lockdown

<b>Operational status and phases</b>	<b>Frequency and (percentage)</b>	<b>Percentage of patronage</b>
<b>Before the COVID-19 pandemic</b>		
Fully operational	201 (96.2)	89.9
Partially operational	8 (3.8)	
<b>Phase 1 (4 May to 1 June 2020)</b>		
Fully operational	20 (9.6)	34.5
Partially operational	127 (60.8)	
Closed	61 (29.2)	
Isolation facility	1 (0.5)	
<b>Phase 2 (2 June to 3 September 2020)</b>		
Fully operational	3 (1.4)	28.1
Partially operational	166 (79.4)	
Closed	36 (17.2)	
Isolation facility	4 (1.9)	
<b>Phase 3 (4 September 2020- 10 May 2021)</b>		
Fully operational	74 (35.4)	49.8
Partially operational	115 (55.0)	
Closed	16 (7.7)	
Isolation facility	4 (1.9)	

Source: Field survey, 2021

Note 5: Percentages of patronage do not total to 100 because they were multiple responses and are expressed as average percentages of patronage at the various phases of lockdown. The number of respondents is 209.

Pre-pandemic patronage (90%) was very high. The levels of patronage during 2020 and 2021 (at the time of the survey) are shown in Figure 6.5. Most striking is the 35% increases in moderate patronage between 2020 and 2021 compared to the decreases in very low and low patronage in the same period.



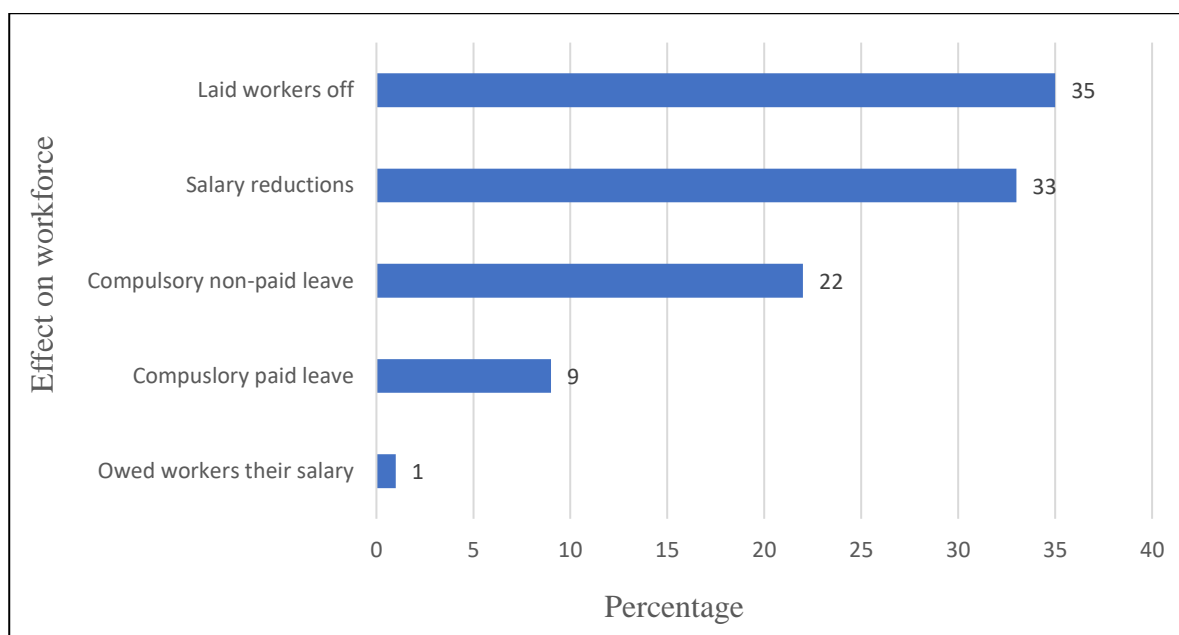
Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 6.5 Comparison of 2020 and 2021 levels of patronage of tourism businesses

Respondents were asked what operations and strategies they put in place to resuscitate their businesses after the easing of lockdown regulations. It was found that half of the tourism businesses offered discounts on rates or prices to lure clients. One quarter engaged in promotional campaigns, 15% gave clients the opportunity to cancel their reservations, while 9% had a window period for clients to ask for refunds. Other strategies of *strange attractors* introduced by tourism businesses included free use of the party hall for clients lodging in the hotel (6%), one-night free room offers for customers who visited the hotel twice within a month (9%), e-reservations (18%), improved marketing and social media advertisement (8%), introduction of new products and services (6%), online order and delivery services (5%), discounts on various food ordered online (9%), the introduction of special offers (4%), advertisements (5%) and complimentary breakfasts (6%). The remaining 24% did not introduce any other strange attractors.

Respondents were asked to list the effects the pandemic had on their workforce, such as businesses around the world continuing to lay off employees (Benjamin, Dillette & Alderman, 2020; Cetin, 2020; Ozili & Arun, 2020; UNWTO, 2020a). Figure 6.6 illustrates the results. Slightly more than one third laid workers off, one third reduced their employees' salaries, 22% took compulsory non-paid leave, while 9% took compulsory paid leave. Another effect was that workers were owed their salary.





Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 6.6 Effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses' workforce

The global trend of employees in the tourism industry being laid off (Benjamin, Dillette & Alderman, Cetin, 2020; Ozili & Arun, 2020; UNWTO, 2020a) is evident in the case study. Before the pandemic a total of 4189 workers were employed at the various tourism businesses in the study area, but by the time of collecting the data (January-August 2021), 820 workers (20%) had been laid off, of whom males accounted for 57% and females 43%.

The literature confirms that the pandemic has worsened the employment situations (Gössling & Schweiggart, 2022). The relationships between revenue loss and the effects on the tourism business workforce are evident in Table 6.5 with some 56% of the total workforce of the surveyed tourism businesses being affected by the decline in revenue. The impact of the pandemic was severe on the workforce as more than 50% of employees suffered being laid off or having to go on compulsory non-paid leave. Another 43% experienced salary reductions and taking of compulsory paid leave. Apart from losing sources of income, unemployment and layoffs may lead to the unemployed experiencing “a range of stress-related consequences such as depression, anxiety and physical ailments” (Wanberg, 2012: 370). Therefore, to stop these job losses from turning into a social crisis, the effect of the pandemic on the workforce should not be ignored as this may lead to increased poverty, harm to individuals' mental well-being and physical health and the widening of inequalities (Wanberg, 2012).

Table 6.5 Effects of revenue loss on business workforce

Revenue loss	Effect on workforce					n=209 Total
	Compulsory paid leave	Compulsory non-paid leave	Workers laid off	Salary reductions	Others	
	Frequency and (%)	Frequency and (%)	Frequency and (%)	Frequency and (%)	Frequency and (%)	
Yes	14 (12.1)	22 (18.9)	44 (38.0)	36 (31.0)	0 (0.0)	116 (55.5)
No	5 (5.3)	24 (25.8)	29 (31.3)	33 (35.4)	2 (2.2)	93 (44.5)

Source: Field survey, 2021

The ILO (International Labour Organization, 2021a: 9) proposes a four-pillar policy framework in response to the pandemic, namely protecting workers at work, “stimulating the economy and employment, supporting jobs and income, and relying on social dialogue for solutions.” Unfortunately, these are not strictly adhered to by employers and governments due to insufficient policing or lack of funds (ILO, 2021b). Workers in tourism businesses who were not laid off in PS suffered salary cuts. This study found that of 67% of surveyed business managers reduced workers’ salaries by approximately 18%.

During the pandemic the majority (71%) of the surveyed tourism businesses were not involved in any corporate social responsibility (CSR) with only a few (29%) engaging in CSR, such as free use of hotel premises for training and seminars for health workers, providing free hand sanitizers and facemasks to the immediate communities “as a palliative to cushion the spread of the virus”, and converting the restaurants to a “free soup kitchen for selected homeless and orphanage homes.” Thirty-one per cent of the businesses that were not involved in CSR ascribed their lack of engagement to a “lack of synergy, collaboration and partnership with other businesses”, whereas others attributed it to “lack of funds to get involved in CSR as businesses suffered huge losses due to the lockdown” which impacted negatively on businesses. Given the wide-ranging and devastating impacts of the pandemic, the issue of the prospects for the recovery of tourism businesses from the pandemic’s impacts deserves closer attention. This is done in the next section.

## 6.5 RECOVERY OF TOURISM BUSINESSES

Although the tourism industry is a dynamic, complex and multifaceted industry of both demand and supply, it is prone to internal and external shocks. Due to the vulnerable and sensitive nature of the tourism market, tourism literature reporting on the tourism system’s mitigation and recovery from

adverse events has experienced massive proliferation (Faulkner 2001; PATA, 2003; Ritchie, 2004; Santana, 2004; Laws & Prideaux, 2005). This suggests that after a crisis event the resilience of the tourism industry will recover naturally despite the disruptions (Santana, 2004). However, EMA (Emergency Management Australia, 2003) has stressed that recovery is a complex, dynamic and protracted interactive process embedded in much decision making centred on the sustainability of the industry.

Respondents were asked which of seven listed strategies they applied to manage the economic effects the COVID-19 pandemic had on their businesses. Tourism businesses reached the edge of chaos as managers delved into various means to keep businesses afloat (Table 6.6). To keep their businesses up and running, more than one third of the respondents asked for financial support from family and friends. Only 5% received the government bailout fund injected into the businesses to resuscitate them chiefly through remuneration of employees (mostly government-owned businesses and few private ones).

Table 6.6 Strategies for managing the edge of chaos of the tourism businesses

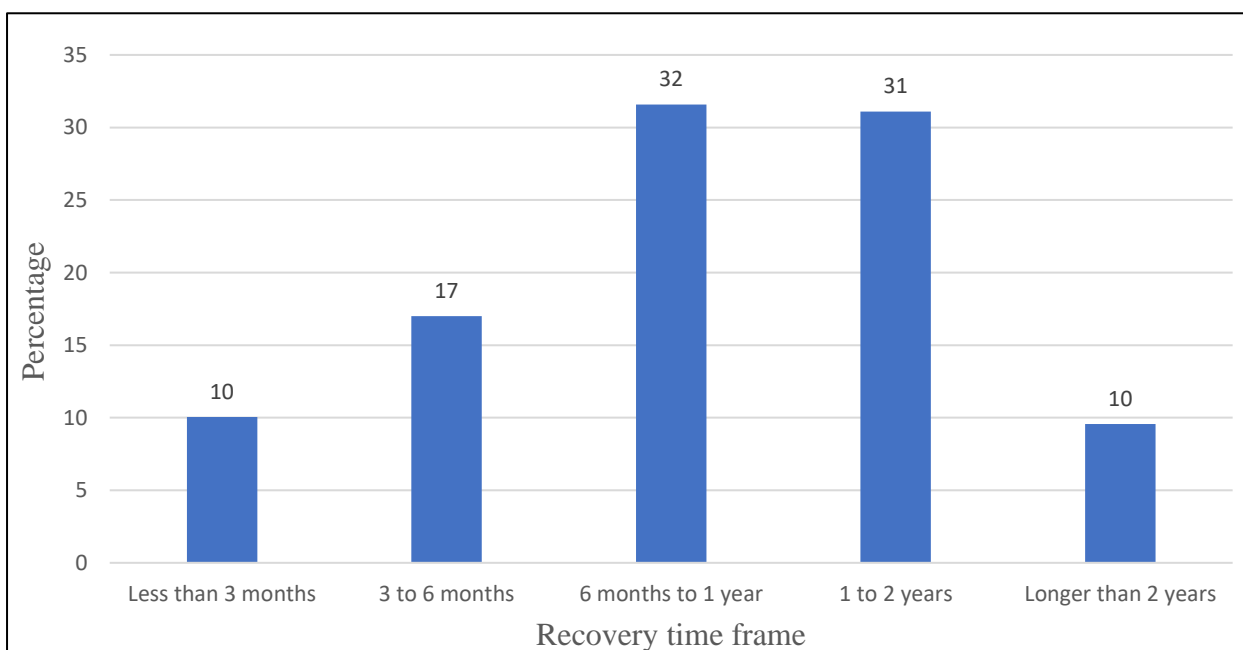
<b>Strategy</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
Asked for financial support from family and friends.	73	34.9
Took a business loan from the bank.	39	18.7
Could not operate the business due to lack of funds.	36	17.2
Applied to the government for a tax waiver.	21	10.1
The government injected business recovery funds to resuscitate the business.	10	4.8
Put up business for sale.	7	3.3
Did not affect revenue generation at all	6	2.9
Others	17	8.1
Total	209	100

Source: Field survey, 2021

Although almost one fifth of the respondents stated that they took a business loan from the bank, 17% could not operate their businesses due to lack of funds. Ten per cent applied to the government for a tax waiver, three per cent put their businesses up for sale despite there being no buyers because of the financial meltdown in Nigeria, whereas only 3% noted that the pandemic did not have any effect on revenue generation. The 8% who used other means to manage the edge of chaos mentioned that they cut down operational costs and used personal savings and finances from other businesses to fund their tourism businesses. Clearly, various responses to the situation emerged, but the crucial response needed is business financial support to moderate the impact of the pandemic. Tourism businesses

need to integrate and collaborate to enhance struggling local tourism businesses (Aryawiguna, 2021; Perkins, Khoo-Lattimore & Arcodia, 2021). This is because prolonged declines in the number of domestic and international tourists can be catastrophic for businesses (Laws & Prideaux, 2005). Hence, the need for collaboration between and among tourism businesses to harness domestic and local (proximate) tourists.

Consistent with the Faulkner (2001) and Ritchie (2004) models, the recovery period is an inter-crisis period in which the immediate and short-term recovery response can be managed in the short term. Respondents were asked how long it would take or how long it would have taken for their businesses to return to normal within the first year and eight months (when the survey was undertaken), a small group of 10% were very optimistic about returning to normal in less than three months, and another almost 20% estimated three to six months (see Figure 6.7). However, 73% of the respondents were more cautious and mentioned longer recovery time frames of between six months to longer than two years. This is consistent with the recovery time for tourism reported in the literature (OECD, 2020; Orindaru et al., 2021; Jones, 2022; Vu et al., 2022) likely being two years or longer. Although the respondents' priorities differed, the recovery of tourism businesses was paramount in their view.



Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 6.7 Time taken for business to return to normal

Respondents were asked if they had developed any sustainability or continuity (*self-organization*) plans for their businesses after the pandemic. The survey revealed that 83% of the business managers

had developed self-organization plans for their businesses and 17% had not. Respondents were then asked to mark in a list those they had taken. The seven strange attractors aiding the self-organization process, consideration of a new business plans (46%) and having multiple business financing options (40%) are the most favoured. The less favoured options, the introduction of e-transaction services where none existed, the introduction of new products and services, and the reduction in prices of services and increasing price of services drew one third or fewer (see Table 6.7). Others are making of room for bargaining prices with clients and the introduction of delivery services or withdrawing from the market and discontinuing business. Asked why some had not developed any sustainability or continuity plans, the respondents contended that they “do not need such plans as we are yet to recover from the losses due to the pandemic” or that “sustainability plans are not needed now” as they believed that “businesses will get back to normal naturally.”

Table 6.7 Measures taken for the future sustainability of businesses (self-organization)

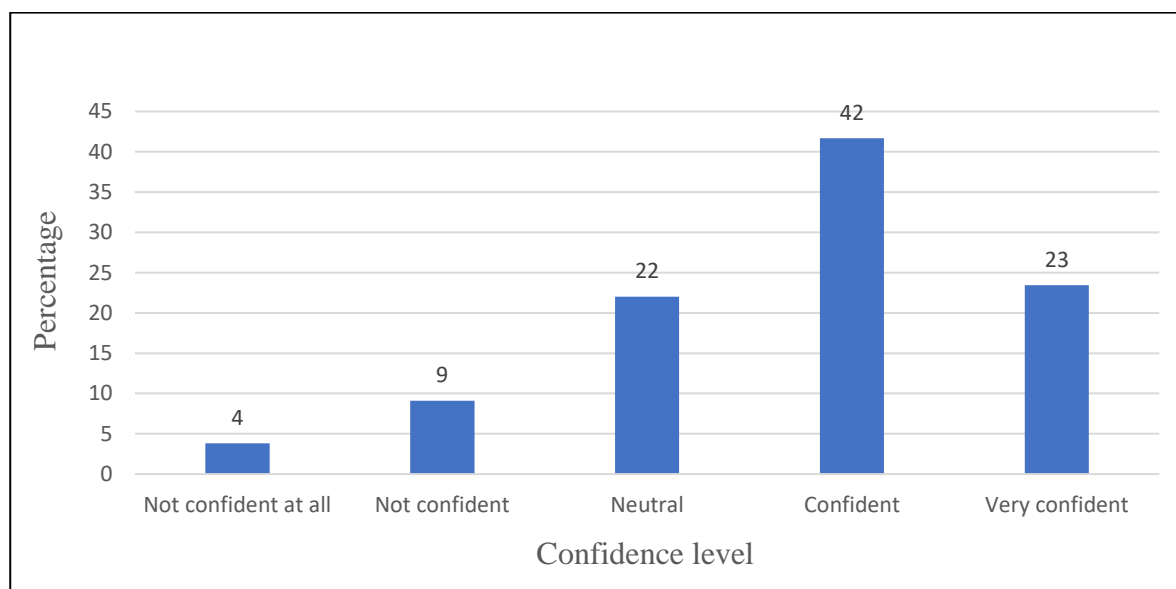
<b>Sustainability measures</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
Consideration of new business plan	96	45.9
Multiple business financing options	83	39.7
Introduction of e-transaction	55	26.3
Introduction of new products and services	69	33.0
Reduction in prices of services	40	19.1
Increase in prices of services	35	16.7
Withdraw from the market and discontinue business	3	1.4
Others	3	1.4

Source: Field survey, 2021

Note 6: Frequencies and percentages do not sum 209 and 100 respectively because they are multiple responses. The percentage for each response is expressed as a percentage of the sample size (209).

There is merit when investigating chaos theory to consider tourism businesses’ *bifurcation* (capacity to adapt, adopt, cope, survive or break down) regarding the pandemic. When given few ways in which businesses can show resilience during the pandemic (bifurcation impacts on tourism businesses), the respondents indicated that their businesses survived the impacts of the pandemic (22%), 47% adapted, 21% coped with the impacts and only 8% collapsed. Despite the bifurcation impacts, the business managers reported to having a confident outlook about the future of their businesses surviving the COVID-19 crisis. Although the majority (65%) of the respondents were confident to very confident that their businesses would (re)set and (re)start strongly after the COVID-19 era (see Figure 6.8), 13% lacked confidence and a significant 22% remained neutral. The neutrality of more than 20% of the respondents in this study indicates indecision towards the confidence levels of their businesses

surviving the pandemic probably because of the uncertainty surrounding the pandemic. This is consistent with Presser & Schuman's 1980 view (cited in Sauro, 2011) that between 10 to 20% respondents tend to choose the neutral option when provided in a survey and that the "neutral option provides an easy way out for respondents who are less inclined to express their opinion" compared to a similar survey without the option (Sauro, 2011: 1).

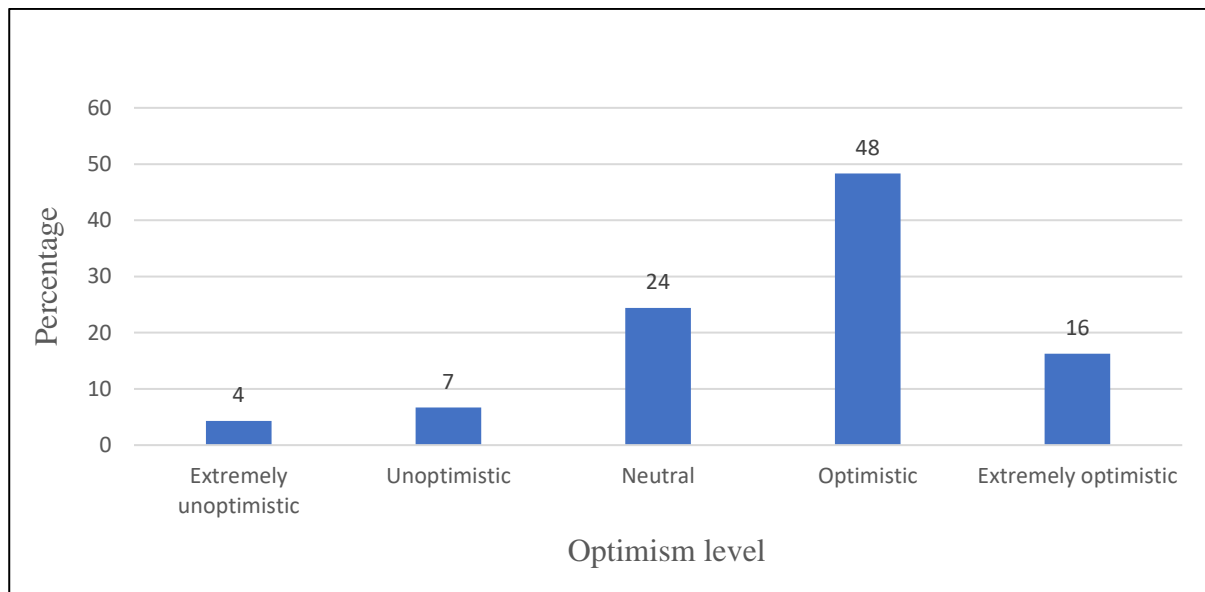


Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 6.8 Levels of confidence about tourism businesses surviving the COVID-19 pandemic

In conjunction with querying of respondents' confidence about surviving, they were asked about their 'businesses bouncing back' after the pandemic. About half of the respondents were optimistic about their businesses returning to 'business as usual' and 64% were optimistic to extremely optimistic (see Figure 6.9). In explaining the sentiments of optimism, the extremely unoptimistic and unoptimistic respondents (11%) stated that insecurity, uncertainty and the negative impacts of the pandemic left them with a bleak view of the future of tourism businesses. Contrarily, when asked to explain their levels of optimism the optimistic and extremely optimistic respondents explained that a bright future for tourism businesses depended on "leveraging on e-transaction, zero contacts (contactless payment) and delivery services." They also held that "there is no room for negativity towards businesses." They explained further that "with dedicated employees and loyal clients, businesses will bounce back", and that they are self-confident that their "resilience, maintaining good customer services and sustainable business plans will increase their income as they have zero doubt about businesses returning to normal." Respondents who were neutral about their confidence about businesses bouncing back

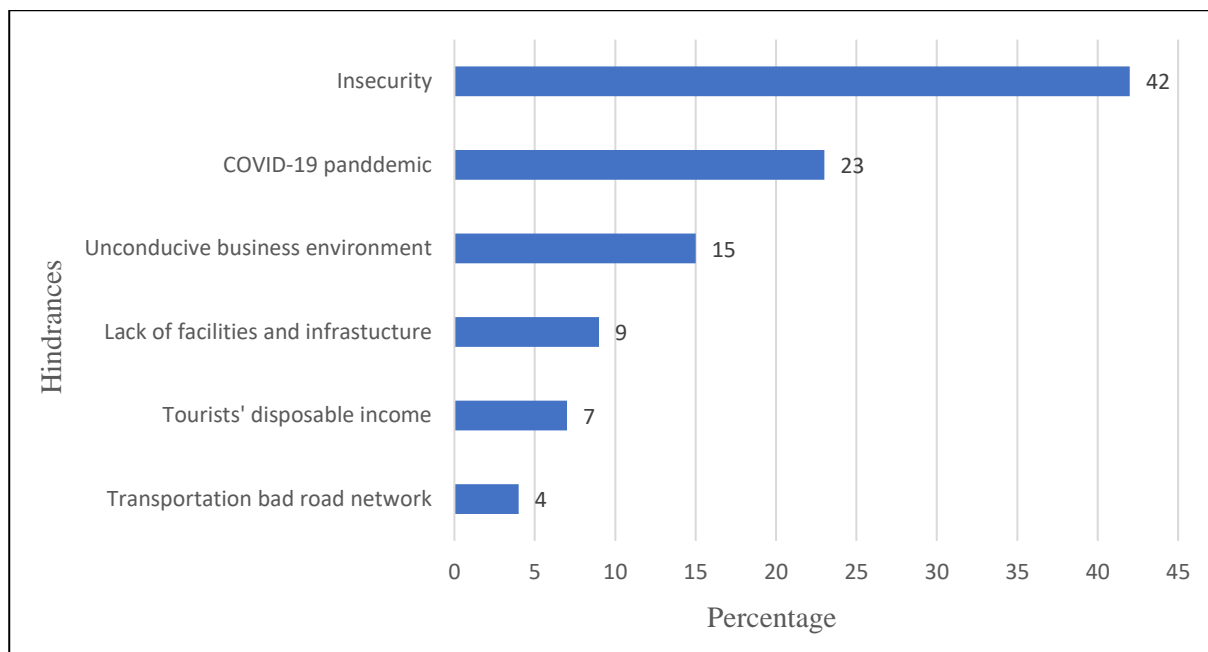
explained that “only God knows tomorrow”, “only time will tell” and that they have “no knowledge about the future.”



Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 6.9 Tourism business managers' optimism about their businesses returning to normal

Despite their degree of optimism, respondents agreed with some listed pointers to the future hindrances to tourism business growth and development which invariably affect involvement in corporate social responsibility (CSR). Almost half of the respondents identified insecurity as a major threat to tourism growth in PS, followed by one quarter identifying the pandemic itself. Less serious hindrances to tourism growth and development in the state appeared to be an uncondusive business environment, inadequate facilities and infrastructure, poor access roads and tourists' disposable income to engage in tourism activities (see Figure 6.10).



Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 6.10 Hindrances to tourism growth in Plateau State

The recovery of tourism businesses is strategically based on tackling insecurity in PS and in Nigeria. The deep-rooted insecurity in Nigeria has become so worrisome that the pandemic is not the principal factor holding back businesses from returning to normal. Lack of finances and interventions play a role, but insecurity is crucially keeping people in their houses (and therefore tourists are not visiting tourist sites) for fear of being kidnapped (Okoli, 2019; Munshi 2021). By developing initiatives and government incentives to stimulate domestic tourism, tourists will be attracted (especially domestic tourists). These measures include adequate security at tourist attractions, cheap fares and affordable room rates to encourage individuals and government officials vacation in Nigeria during the holiday period. Experts see a “growing demand for outdoor and nature-based tourism activities, with domestic tourism gaining increasing interest” (UNWTO, 2021b: 1). The tourism industry has been renowned for its resilience during past crises and it is hoped that just as the industry recovered from previous epidemics and downturns, the industry will rebound this time.

## 6.6 CONCLUSION

The chapter focused on the economic impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State using chaos theory. The study established that travel and tourism industry contribute significantly to socio-economic development worldwide and plays a crucial role as a strategic pillar of an economy's GDP. Although vulnerable to external shocks, this industry fulfils a vital function



in the economic activities and customer satisfaction of tourists by making substantial contributions to business operations and ultimately contributing to the worldwide economy. The outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic has been unprecedented. Although the impacts of the associated crises on the tourism industry are considerable and significant, the direction of impact can be positive or negative depending on the location and type of tourism business. The study revealed that the shared shock of the pandemic has impacted severely and negatively on about 80% of tourism businesses in the Plateau State of Nigeria. The chapter further highlighted that despite the pandemic's negative effects on the tourism industry, it was concluded that the pandemic has been a 'blessing in disguise' for the 10% of businesses that experienced an increase in cash and revenue during the study period (2020-2021).

Unlike past crises, the study further revealed that the COVID-19 pandemic adversely affected tourism businesses in PS due to city and countrywide lockdowns, a phenomenon that was unseen and unheard of in past crises. Although the lockdown actions protect and save lives with all countries across the world working coherently for massive quarantining and vaccination drives to stop the spread, the making of the world standstill could cost many jobs, particularly those of city dwellers who rely on tourism as their main source of income (Lim & To, 2021). Because the world is a digital village, tourism business managers need to think globally, especially in light of information technology. Digital transformation can significantly alter how businesses are operated in delivering value to customers (Lim & To, 2021). The study revealed that managers and business owners need to reorientate and reorganize their business models to change the status quo. One of the ways is through business management practices and strategies. Chapter 7 reports the business management practices and the risk management strategies employed by tourism business managers in PS to ensure the sustenance of their businesses during the pandemic.

## **CHAPTER 7**

# **BUSINESS MANAGEMENT PRACTICES AND RISK MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY TOURISM BUSINESSES DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC**

### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

As established in the previous chapter, the COVID-19 pandemic has witnessed many industries and businesses being pushed to the edge of chaos and bifurcation, especially the travel and tourism industry (Gossling et al., 2020; Zenker & Kock 2020). The crippling effects of numerous restrictions on businesses, resulting in far-reaching impacts on hotels, restaurants, tourist attractions and other hospitality businesses have been unprecedented (Alonso et al., 2020; Dube et al., 2020; Gossling et al., 2020). Although much of the research on the impacts of the pandemic is currently ongoing or conceptual (Gossling et al., 2020; Zenker & Kock, 2020), the experiences of the pandemic (crisis) can lead entrepreneurs to become more rational and to be guided by planned behaviour in making decisions that will affect the operations of their businesses (McCarthy, 2003). This chapter examines the business management practices employed by tourism businesses in Plateau State (PS) during the COVID-19 pandemic and the risk management strategies designed for hotels, restaurants and tourist attractions to promote tourism activities following the post-pandemic reopening of tourism businesses in PS.

### **7.2 PROFILES OF THE RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS**

In the wake of the pandemic, business decision makers, who often are managers or owners, are burdened with the responsibility of devising plans “to support the sector and enhance the multiplier effect from the industry” (Kaushal & Srivastava, 2021: 3). In these times of uncertainty “the ongoing struggle and the need to keep the business running while facing the uphill task of meeting expenses on regular basis” can be daunting and overwhelming (Kaushal & Srivastava, 2021: 7). However, the experiences and perspectives of tourism business managers are useful sources of the practical business management practices and risk management strategies employed during a pandemic. These are invaluable guides for responding to such an exceptional situation in the future (Alonso et al., 2020).

Kaushal & Srivastava (2021) argue that managers’ experiences and skills help to identify evolving practices that are expected to become the norm in the tourism industry. In this chapter, the practices for businesses to deal with a crisis are based on a literature review and on the results of in-depth

interviews with practitioners. The semi-structured interview questions were generated and pretested by three senior executives of three categories of tourism businesses in PS which led to minor amendments to the questions and their sequence. The corrected version of the interview protocol and questions were used for the interviews (see Appendix G). Twenty-four tourism business managers agreed to participate in the study, 18 being interviewed in person and six telephonically. A summary of the participants' profiles is presented in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1 Interview participants' profile

<b>Participant</b>	<b>Participant's position in the business</b>	<b>Category of tourism business</b>	<b>Years in this business</b>	<b>Experience in current position (years)</b>
P1	Manager	Hotel/Guest house	14	9
P2	General Manager	Hotel/Guest house	9	4
P3	Manager	Hotel/Guest house	9	4
P4	Manager	Hotel/Guest house	6	1
P5	Personnel Manager	Hotel/Guest house	8	4
P6	Manager	Hotel/Guest house	12	3
P7	Manager	Hotel/Guest house	11	3
P8	Manager	Hotel/Guest house	7	4
P9	Manager	Hotel/Guest house	7	5
P10	General Manager	Hotel/Guest house	13	9
P11	Manager	Hotel/Guest house	30	10
P12	Manager	Hotel/Guest house	15	12
P13	Manager	Hotel/Guest house	13	10
P14	Managing Director	Restaurant	21	15
P15	Supervisor	Restaurant	17	12
P16	Manager	Restaurant	14	8
P17	Owner/Manager	Restaurant	2	2
P18	Manager	Restaurant	5	2
P19	Manager	Tourist attraction	20	13
P20	Manager	Tourist attraction	7	1
P21	Manager	Tourist attraction	15	2
P22	Manager	Tourist attraction	19	9
P23	Facility Manager	Tourist attraction	4	3
P24	Manager	Tourist attraction	20	7

Source: Field survey, 2021

Fifty-eight per cent of the participants had working experience working in the tourism industry of between 10 and 30 years, while one quarter had been in their current position for 10 or more years at the time of the survey. The wealth of experience explains the managers' decisions to diversify and shift to alternative business management practices in order to continue operating and sustaining their businesses. Some of the business management practices that were introduced are strange attractors, self-organization, government interventions, lock-in effects and maintenance practices. How their varied experiences were used to effect in the crisis can be discussed conveniently in terms of two broad categories, business management practices and risk management strategies. The former are reported in the next section.

### **7.3 BUSINESS MANAGEMENT PRACTICES**

The business management practices put in place to manage a business during a natural disaster, terrorism, conflicts, non-natural events or a financial crisis (McKercher & Chon, 2004; Au et al., 2005; Cooper, 2005; Higgins, 2005; Rodway-Dyer & Shaw, 2005; Cheung & Law, 2006; Armstrong & Ritchie, 2008; Calgaro & Lloyd, 2008; Carlino et al., 2008; Su et al., 2012; Yang, Ryan & Zhang, 2013; Ye et al., 2013; Malikhao, 2017; Tsaour et al., 2018; Gray & Mishtal, 2019; Maphanga & Henama, 2019) play vital roles in the continuity of a business. Crises and disasters affect the current and future performance of most tourism businesses. Cook (2015) found that 75% of businesses without sustainability or continuity plans fail within three years after a crisis or disaster. Aside from the lack of sustainability plans, factors like loss of income due to absence of workers and declines in cash reserves continue to impact businesses due to the COVID-19 pandemic (Fabeil, Pazim & Langgat, 2020a). Business management practices work well with a business survival strategy. This position is supported by Quarantelli, Lagadec & Boin (2007, cited in Fabeil, Pazim & Langgat, (2020b) who call attention to the importance of a survival strategy for organizations during a crisis.

Figure 7.1 is a word cloud of themes that emerged during the interviews with participants about the business management practices employed by businesses during the pandemic. The word cloud was generated from <https://www.wordclouds.com/>



Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 7.1 Word cloud of the major business management practices identified during interviews with tourism business managers

The interviews revealed that many business managers began to diversify and shift to alternative business management practices to continue operating and sustaining their businesses. Five of the nine cited business management practices identified in the word cloud are especially noteworthy, namely strange attractors, self-organization, government interventions, lock-in effect and maintenance practices. These practices are described in turn in the following five subsections. To preserve the anonymity of the participants in the descriptions, they are referred to by the participant numbers given in Table 7.1, for example P6, P21 and P8.

### 7.3.1 Strange attractors

The concept of the strange attractor in chaos theory points to techniques that can be used during a crisis to encourage order from chaos (Speakman & Sharpley, 2012). The use of various strange attractors by tourism business managers is an indication that stability can be brought to a chaotic situation by facilitating methods that will help the tourism industry work in unison towards achieving its common goals (Zahra & Ryan, 2007). Various marketing and promotion strategies were introduced. While some managers reduced their promotional costs, others saw the crisis as an opportunity to explore new segments. A participant described it as an opportunity “to market tourism products and services to domestic tourists with a major focus on the specific attributes of the location

such as the beautiful scenery, unique weather of Jos, the waterfalls, hills and mountains” (P6). Another participant said that the pandemic expanded “our thinking faculty to play around with new products and food menu. We introduced specials such as the naman ridi, fresh palm wine and dry fish pepper soup. This has become a big bait for the surge in our big clients from the government reserved area [GRA]. We even receive orders for the naman ridi and the fresh palm wine from clients outside Jos” (P21).

The promotion of price drops on special offers and a reduction in list prices enhanced patronage as attested to by most of the respondents: “We lowered prices to compensate for the reduction in demand during the COVID-19 pandemic period, this in a way increased patronage” (P8). Promoting domestic tourism and encouraging Nigerians to travel within their own country, especially to PS, all the interviewed managers affirmed that they began aggressive marketing and promotion of new products and services to new segments. There was a surge in conference tourism by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and the corporate industries because the pandemic was not as great a threat in PS as in Lagos State where most of the conferences were cancelled and rescheduled to be hosted in Jos.

One of the respondents affirmed that “we saw an explosion in the number of conferences that were moved from Lagos, Port Harcourt, Abuja and Warri to Jos. Plateau State in this period has become the centre of conference tourism” (P2). Confirming this, another respondent stated that “there was a sudden surge in our bookings and reservations for rooms and conference halls” (P4). Other strange attractors introduced are discounts, social media promotion of products, deliveries, airport pick-up shuttle services for clients arriving from outside Jos, and the adoption of cash on delivery (COD) which hitherto was not available to clients. These stimulated the domestic market with offers that exploited the lock-in effect.

### **7.3.2 Self-organization**

A major component of chaos theory is the ability of tourism businesses that have gone through a chaotic event to self-organize into “communicative structures and relationships, understandings and procedure” (Sellnow et al., 2002: 274). PS is known as the *Home of peace and tourism* that houses diverse and complex tourism sectors. The study found that most of the tourism businesses have survived the pandemic with businesses gradually ‘bouncing back’ thanks to human resources and the overhauling of business operations. This did, however, involve workers being laid off to reduce the size of the labour force, using unpaid leave, rotating workers per week, reducing salaries (salary cuts) and reducing the number of workdays per week. Confirming this, a respondent stated that “we had to

reduce overhead costs, put all investment on hold, reduce workers by 70% and reduce salaries by 50% as our monthly income drastically fell from ₦20 million to ₦2 million” (P12).

The PSTC (Plateau State Tourism Corporation) initiated a ‘tourism rescue plan’ “which acted as a strange attractor in a way and as a means of harnessing a common vision, sense of meaning, strategy, or value system that drives people to achieve a common goal” (Zahra & Ryan, 2007: 855). In a bid to keep businesses and workspaces safe for employers and employees during the pandemic, the Plateau State government (PSG) also organized risk management training for tourism business managers. Forty-five per cent of the interviewed managers attended the course while the remaining managers did not attend. Those who had not attended and all those who had attended confirmed their eagerness to attend any future training seminars and workshops on the COVID-19 health crisis and its impacts on tourism businesses. Eighty-three per cent businesses that did not have any plans for contactless transactions and payment options were considering the option to keep in line with the physical and social distancing prescriptions to minimize human contacts.

Self-organization is vital in addressing an extremely disorderly occurrence like the pandemic which affects the dynamism and complexities in the tourism system where activities are inextricably linked (Sellnow et al., 2002). Tourism managers create and implement specific contingency plans with protocols for the entire organization as effective crisis management practices to salvage their businesses. Studies have shown that in crisis management practices employees can also self-organize to handle any crises impacting tourism businesses (Israeli et al., 2011; Hao et al., 2020). This study identified certain human resources measures that were put in place by tourism business managers, namely training programmes to ensure employees’ and clients’ safety and security; improved communication channels; and an emergency communication network that was open for employees to stay informed during the pandemic. This is consistent with other research findings (Hao et al., 2020; Garrido-Moreno, Garcia-Morales & Marin-Rojas, 2021) and they offer managers a framework to react appropriately to crises (Speakman & Sharpley, 2012).

### **7.3.3 Government interventions**

Despite the enormous potential of the tourism industry in developing countries, the sector can suffer internal and external shocks and governments can wade in to salvage the industry. For example, De Sausmarez (2004: 168) suggests that government measures during a crisis may include “incentives to stimulate foreign investment, tax relief and extended credit to tourism businesses, increased funding to national tourism organizations, and the stimulation of domestic tourism in the absence of international visitors.”

Three out of four interviewees reported having asked the government for a grace period on tax payment, tax holidays or cancellation of taxes during the lockdown period as there was no steady income as usual. The remaining 25% did not ask for grace periods on tax payments because their businesses were not affected as they offered essential services during this period. Four out of five respondents requested a grace period on local government tax payments. Only nine (37%) managers or owners had benefited from the government intervention fund. The application procedure to apply for the recovery funding was available online on a designated federal government website where basic credentials of the business had to be inputted, including bank details of the business and contact telephone number. Although the respondents complained about the prolonged delays in receiving funds, the few tourism business managers who received the funds injected these back into their businesses, principally to pay workers' salaries. In April 2021 a respondent (P21) pointed out the low rate of government intervention through the fund:

There was a sort of government intervention and funding tagged 'COVID-19 relief fund' for businesses. I can confirm that it is not all tourism businesses that were helped but only selected businesses received the funds. I have called my fellow managers that I know asking them if they received the fund. So far, all the responses have been negative.

Although the Nigerian government rolled out a COVID-19 intervention programme, it was adjudged by most of the respondents to be lopsided in favour of government-owned businesses. This contrasted with the situation in other parts of the world as reported in the literature where private businesses received bailout funds. According to respondent P7:

The government acknowledged that businesses needed interventions and asked managers to compile a list of 10 workers to receive palliative (salary or wage) from the government. The selection of beneficiaries was done selectively and haphazardly. Up till today, none of the staff here received anything after submitting their information online on the government portal.

The answers given by most (58%) of the interviewees confirmed that the Nigerian government's intervention was for selected households, while 42% confirmed that the intervention mainly entailed a wage subsidy for selected businesses for their employees. This is consistent with the verdict by Edokwe (2021) that the move was aimed to enrich a few and curry favour going into the 2023 election year. Respondent P23 argued in June 2021 that:

We have not received any government assistance during this COVID-19 pandemic. Of all the names and bank information of 10 employees the government asked us to send, up till today I am having this conversation with you, not even one person has received any cash transfer or alert. This government can make fake promises. This ₦5000 monthly cash transfer I heard they said they are doing, is far less than



the current poverty line of ₦11 450 (USD28) per month, which is not even enough to ensure a decent standard of living anywhere in Nigeria. They just do not care about the masses, raising our hopes in this difficult time. This is far from what is happening in other parts of the world.

According to respondent P24:

I do not know where Nigeria is heading to. There are a lot of injustices in the system. There are no rights to common food which we are producing. There is even no right to life as insecurity has gone over the roof. There is no adequate standard of living. The cost of living and doing business in Nigeria is so high. Compared to 2015, the inflation rate was 9%, this year 2021 it is 18.12%. The unemployment rate was 8.19% in 2015, in 2021 it is 33.28% while the GDP growth rate was 2.79% in 2015, in 2021 it is 0.51%. I am a businessman I follow the trends and these key indicators to help me plan (Interview in May 2021).

The continued echoing of the threats to life and security by the respondents in the tourism industry in PS in particular but also in Nigeria generally, amplify the already dire situation in which the tourism industry is languishing.

#### **7.3.4 Lock-in effect (brand loyalty)**

Lock-in effects are activated by the strange attractors that bring and retain customers as a driving force for competition. “Repeat purchases or recommendations to other people are mostly referred to as consumer loyalty” (Yoon & Uysal, 2005: 48). Brand loyalty is characterized by behavioural or attitudinal loyalty with a sequence of customers’ repeat purchases, the proportion of patronage or the probability of purchase with a form of commitment or statement of preference (Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Pike et al., 2021; Stavrianea & Kamenidou, 2021). This commitment is enhanced by “developing a mutually beneficial relationship between the businesses and customers” (Chen & Gursory, 2001: 80).

Confirming Chen & Gursory’s (2001) statement, interviewee P4 stated that their businesses were laid on quality and mutual benefit. Another manager (P11) asserted that they treated customers importantly and therefore have very loyal customers with positive attitudes towards their businesses who will always patronize them despite the circumstances. Corroborating good manager-customer mutual relationships, respondent P8 stated that “our customer services and relational experiences keep bringing back our customers for revisits, not just the facilities alone.”

Return visits, enhanced by quality offerings, increase patronage as “quality is a determining factor for brand loyalty” (P17). In order not to miss the quality they received from the business, some managers revealed that their loyal customers were the ones who gave them the option of product delivery. Consequently, some of the interviewed managers at restaurants started food delivery during lockdown. The study found that a way of appreciating loyal customers and sustaining brand loyalty

was for managers to gather information about the preferences of their loyal customers and then use the information to win customers' loyalty by rendering tailored products and services. This is consistent with research findings by Chen & Gursory (2001), Kusdiby (2021), Li, Liu & Soutar (2021) and Pike et al. (2021).

To maintain business appeal, customers were given 'loyalty rewards' of one-night free hotel accommodation to customers on their next visit (this varied among respondents as some made it a two-night giveaway); free entrance tickets at tourist sites were made available to customers who presented receipts for at least three past visits within the month; and free meals were offered at restaurants to customers who had eat-ins or take-aways or deliveries five times within a specified period.

Such offers encouraged the habit of keeping receipts where most customers were tended to discard their receipts after the purchase of products and services. The introduction of these strange attractors and the lock-in effect impacted the patronage by customers positively as attested to by respondent P4:

We witnessed a surge in bookings due to these loyalty rewards the management introduced. You know, a lot of people like freebies especially now that many Nigerians are suffering a reduction in cash flow and purchasing power. The clients are happy with the development and they feel valued for rewarding their loyalty. This way, we are sure that our clients will remain indebted to us (Interview in June 2021).

The lock-in effect introduced in the form of brand loyalty for customers during the pandemic is emphasized in the literature regarding that which brings and retains customers in the tourism business, especially during a pandemic. This is also consistent with the global trend as a means of sustenance for businesses.

### **7.3.5 Maintenance**

Facilities are integral parts of the tourism industry that promote tourism development by increasing the attractiveness and competitiveness of tourism businesses (Mandi, Mrnjavac & Kordi, 2018). These facilities are amenities that help make tourism products enjoyable, reliable and sustainable (Khadaroo & Seetanah, 2007). The maintenance of these tourism facilities and infrastructures is important for businesses to thrive and compete because maintenance is a key to business prosperity and economic growth. Maintenance does not connote just maintaining production as it also requires minimizing maintenance costs and ensuring a safe environment (Khadaroo & Seetanah, 2007).

Consistent maintenance is vital to preserve the functionality of infrastructures and facilities and to ensure that they remain high-value assets for businesses (Abdullah, Razak & Jaafar, 2014). The lack

of maintenance, on the other hand, can lead to deterioration or damage of facilities. Abdullah et al. (2014) point out that inadequate maintenance can cause premature deterioration of facilities. However, the interviews revealed that because of the economic impacts of the pandemic, most of the respondents did not continue with their 100% maintenance schemes but developed maintenance plans for strategic cost reductions. These included cost cuts by limiting services such as shortening the hours of using generators during load shedding and power outages, postponement of the physical maintenance of business buildings and postponing maintenance of the engineering systems of the businesses. According to respondent P1 this was “necessitated to cushion the financial burden and constraints on business operations” because “financial resource is a great constraint to effective maintenance of business facilities” as claimed by respondent P15.

Despite the reduction in maintenance due to financial constraints, respondent P11 contended that “there should be a revival of maintenance culture. Once business facilities are maintained regularly as at when due, then those facilities will be sustained. We should stop paying eye and lip services and singing ‘maintenance culture’ like a mantra, we need to mean it and act it.” Tourism businesses have resorted to cutting extra costs on maintenance expenses to save money due to the uncertainty surrounding future lockdowns. Table 7.2 gives a summary of the crisis management practices identified in the study.

Since crises are inevitable and unpredictable, and business organizations not immune to potential crisis, businesses should expect the unexpected. All businesses are susceptible to a crisis, therefore crisis preparedness and decisions made during a crisis are crucially important to avoid what could be an irreparable downfall. Although decisions about business management practices during a crisis are described as complex because they are made quickly, the components of chaos theory can be infused into this complex decision-making process of what managers can do during a crisis. Through the application of strange attractors, tourism businesses quickly self-organized, became creative and searched for new brand stories to retain, market and attract new customers.

Table 7.2 Crisis management practices instituted by tourism business managers

<b>Theme</b>	<b>Practices</b>
Strange attractors (Marketing and promotions)	Reduced promotional costs Marketing to domestic tourists with a focus on specific attributes of the location Promotion of price drops on special offers Reducing list prices Marketing and promotion of new products and services Marketing to new segments Discounts Social media promotion of products Deliveries Adoption of cash on delivery
Self-organization (Overhaul of human resources and business operations)	Laid-off workers to reduce labour force Using unpaid leave Rotating workers per week Reducing the number of workdays per week Reducing salaries (salary cuts) Contactless transactions and payment options
Government roles	Grace periods on tax payment Request for tax holiday or cancellation of taxes Grace period on payment of local government taxes Government announcement of COVID-19 business recovery intervention and funds
Lock-in effect (Loyalty)	Loyalty rewards of one-night free accommodation, free entrance tickets at tourist sites, and free meals at restaurants to loyal customers only
Maintenance	Cuts in costs by limiting services Postponement of the physical maintenance of business buildings Postponing maintenance of the engineering systems of the business electrical facilities

Source: Field survey, 2021

The government's role in mitigating the impacts of a crisis is vital in the business recovery process. The foregoing findings shed light on the business and crisis management practices instituted by tourism business managers and owners in PS. These practices were put in place to increase long-term operational efficiency and competitiveness through innovative thinking aimed at business survival by ensuring safety and maintaining profitability during the pandemic. Concomitant with these practices, various risk management strategies were employed. These are discussed next.

## 7.4 RISK MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Tourism has never been immune to crises, disasters or pandemics (Huang et al., 2020). Ritchie (2004) argued that with the growth in global tourism, tourists and tourism destinations are facing greater risks. Risk management and strategic management have been a primary focus of researchers who propose that strategy can be ‘purely deliberate’ involving devising and implementing according to plan or ‘purely emergent’ where strategies emerge without any form of planning (Mintzberg & Waters, 1985; Gstaettner, Dodger & Lee, 2017; Mikulić et al., 2018; Liu, Cheng & OuYang, 2019; Dvorsky et al., 2021; Zhong et al., 2021). In the context of the COVID-19 pandemic and tourism businesses, ‘purely deliberate’ risk management strategies had to be put in place as a strategy for improving businesses’ reputations (Coombs, 2007).

Li et al. (2022) recently pointed out that these strategies have been proposed in the crisis management literature to prevent, manage and mitigate the adverse effects of a crisis. For example, risk management strategies related to the insecurity and risk mitigation behaviours of tourists who patronize tourism businesses have been studied (Kim, Kim & Wang, 2021). The pandemic has brought fears, enormous risks and uncertainty about safety at tourist attractions. This urgently required crisis management strategies to maintain the confidence of tourists, travellers and the tourism industry and to minimize the impact of the COVID-19 crisis on tourism businesses. Although there is literature on health-related crises that uses different theories, research designs and empirical settings (Novelli et al., 2018), the complexity of the pandemic warrants a revisit and rethink of crisis response strategies for the tourism industry (Li et al, 2022). The overall aim of section 7.3 is to explore the risk management strategies resorted to by the tourism business managers in PS.

A word cloud of all the prominent words that became the themes to emerge during the interviews on the risk management strategies employed by businesses during the pandemic is shown in Figure 7.2. The word cloud was generated from <https://www.wordclouds.com/>



Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 7.2 Word cloud of the major risk management strategies identified during interviews with tourism business managers

Consistent with the findings of scholars (Ural, 2015; Fakhrudin et al., 2020; Kim & Lim, 2020; Fasth, Elliot & Styhre, 2021), the themes highlighted in the word cloud relate to perspectives of risk management strategies by mediating tools of interaction, such as risk management plans, risk management teams, evaluation of plans, dissemination of information, government policies and communication. These strategies are described in turn in the following six subsections.

#### 7.4.1 Risk management plans

The purpose of risk management is to minimize loss and involves applying management policies, procedures and practices to the tasks of identifying, analyzing, evaluating, monitoring and reviewing risk (EMA (Emergency Management Australia), 2003). Due to “a series of catastrophic incidents in the past, which have raised public consciousness of the risks associated with activities and sectors within the industry” (Santana, 2004: 300), tourists are now safety cautious even though crises appear to be unexpected and provide limited warning (PATA, 2003). Any actual or perceived threat to the health, safety or security of tourists is likely to influence their decision to visit tourism businesses (Sönmez, 1998; Arbulú et al., 2021a). Any “occurrence such as a crisis, natural disaster or terrorist attack may not only damage a destination’s infrastructure but may also jeopardize its image as a safe

place to visit and so have a devastating effect on tourism demand and consumer confidence” (De Sausmarez, 2004: 158). Reflection on the frequency and consequences of the crises that keep bedevilling the tourism industry calls for an emphasis on reducing the risks at tourist destinations and businesses. Ninety-two per cent of the interviewed managers agreed that they had developed a COVID-19 risk management plan for the safety of their workers and customers.

The plans included written, audio and/or safety and risk management plans and guidelines for the business that are strictly in line with the state government’s protocols and guidelines for reopening tourism businesses. Complying with all health guidelines and in line with international organizations such as WHO and CDC (centres for disease control and prevention), these plans are evaluated daily by the risk management team and discrepancies in plans are shared with the management and workers. This implies that “compliance with protocols in a tangible way for tourists to observe has a significant role in selecting a destination and tourism service providers in the destination” (Mirzaei et al., 2021: 8). Hygiene, disinfection and fumigation, as well as compliance with social distancing rules, were clearly visible in most plans as measures to maintain a safe distance to avoid transmission of the virus.

There has been ample documentation in the tourism literature about hygiene as a crucial component of the tourism industry (Jauhari 2010; Tripathi, Choudhary & Agrawal, 2010; Cetin, 2020; Sigala, 2020; Mirzaei et al., 2021; Naumov, Varadzhakova & Naydenov, 2021). Health safety, hygiene and sanitation are too serious concerns to be overlooked during this era of the COVID-19 pandemic so that they remained highly visible in the risk management plans. Hygiene is clearly an essential component of the tourism industry. Some of the plans “we introduced included contingency plans, especially for hygiene, safety training and COVID-19 awareness” (P17). The concern for hygiene and sanitation has grown during the COVID-19 outbreak and tourism businesses are employing aggressive disinfection and fumigation plans as stipulated by the state government to enhance tourists’ willingness to patronize a tourism business.

#### **7.4.2 Risk management teams**

Risk management requires the identifying and confronting of risks and crises, as well as the ability to manage them as they arise. A salient “key to effective risk and crisis management is a structured and continuous learning process designed to equip key managers with the capabilities, flexibility and confidence to deal with sudden and unexpected problems/events or shifts in public perception of any such problems/events” (Robert & Lajtha, 2002: 181). Having attended risk management training sessions and workshops, an impressive 88% of the interviewed managers reported that they had a designated COVID-19 risk management team headed by the manager. The team produced a health

check form for contact tracing that had to be filled in daily by workers and customers. The information was evaluated daily by the risk management team and the findings were shared with the management and workers. Due to the low incidence of COVID-19 cases in PS, this was later reduced to a weekly evaluation. The process worked well in most businesses as none of their workers or customers showed up with any COVID-19 symptoms. None of the managers reported temporary closure of business facilities as they complied strictly with the COVID-19 government-approved protocols.

The risk management teams have developed a number of measures to contribute to the well-being of workers and customers and to minimize the risk and vulnerability of contracting COVID-19. Some of the measures reported in the literature have been adapted by the PSG in line with the measures stipulated by the Presidential Steering Committee (PSC) on the pandemic. The teams were saddled with the responsibility of planning in conjunction with other workers and communicating with them to keep the process open to suggestions for improvement. The major reason why the COVID-19 risk management teams were instituted was “basically to prevent and minimize potential harm to the workers and our customers” (P1). To reduce the likelihood of ‘super spreaders’, “we do daily temperature checks for our workers, introduced protective barriers and risk education during our staff meetings as a way of promoting a COVID-19 prevention culture” (P13). Change is inevitable at this crucial point as businesses resorted to contingency risk management plans to ensure that all the COVID-19 protocols were observed to minimize the risk of infection at workplaces.

### **7.4.3 Evaluation of risk management plans**

As situations began to change over time, the risk management plans were evaluated. This was done to “reflect, monitor, review, or (re)develop the COVID-19 risk management plan as the COVID-19 trajectory and information from NCDC was monitored by the risk management team” (P4). Consistent with the aim “of protecting workers, customers and the business, daily COVID-19 information disseminated on the government-approved website was constantly evaluated in line with the progress of our business” (P7). The situation reports “offered valuable information that guided our decisions on what measures to put in place for the sustainability of our business” (P23). Evaluations of “risk management plans guided our response and safety measures which kept losses at a minimum for our business” (P17). The global situation reports and “the situation reports from NCDC helped us to re-channel our priorities as a business” (P15). This is described in chaos theory as self-organization which is useful in evaluating risk management plans as affirmed by respondent



P15. Risk management plans, as a way of evaluating “business sustainability must include strategies for business regeneration plans for viable social and economic activities” (P10).

These interview responses are a clear indication that risk management plans are important. They helped the risk management teams to identify the extent of the potential threats of the pandemic to their workers and clients. These enabled the communication of mitigation measures through the risk management plans that yielded better outcomes, including financial outcomes, by keeping losses at a minimum as affirmed by P17. The risk management plans aided managers in evaluating what was being done during the pandemic, helped managers to respond and guided how they channelled the priorities of their businesses to survive the impacts of the pandemic. This may have contributed to minimize their downtimes, increase their productivity and help in avoiding significant reputational damages.

#### **7.4.4 Information dissemination**

Social media is an essential tool for communication, advertising, marketing, brand management, service recovery, research and other management implications that businesses use in disseminating information during a crisis event to enable businesses to manage their information communication and offer updates to employees and clients as the event evolves (Mehraliyev, Choi & King, 2020; Kontis et al., 2021; Kwok, Lee & Han, 2021). The pandemic intensified rapid information dissemination in this century through social media providing the opportunity to reach a nearly unlimited audience (Chan et al., 2020; Kudchadkar & Carroll 2020; Bellini, Montserrat, Naesens, Neyens, Schneeberger & Berney, 2021; Kontis, Kourkoulou & Vlassi, 2021). A real-time and instant communication platform such as social media enhances the quick distribution of information which has become a major conduit for sharing COVID-19 pandemic-related information and experiences (Chan et al., 2020; Kudchadkar & Carroll 2020; Bellini et al., 2021; Kontis et al., 2021).

Social media has become a critical part of people’s lives (Utz, Schultz & Glocka, 2013) and provides opportunities for employees and employers to connect, especially at a time when many employees had to work from home. The interviews with participants revealed that most of the businesses used social media tools such as WhatsApp, Facebook, Instagram, emails and on-site live announcements to disseminate updated information on the safety of their businesses. This was essential because, according to a respondent P11, “everyone is an actor; everyone is a role player. Understanding, participating and sharing resources with the risk management team through any of the available social media channels is compulsory for every worker. We have to be collectively alive, for the business to stay alive.” Apart from the social media platforms, mini billboards and posters were used to

disseminate information about COVID-19 protocols prospective customers had to adhere to (see Figure 7.3).

As a constant reminder for workers and customers to always wear their face masks, the “No face mask No entry” sign was seen at every tourism business site the researcher visited during the data collection exercises. This was mandated by the PSG as one of the compulsory requirements for the reopening of tourism businesses. Only five financially buoyant businesses produced mini billboards which were mounted at the entrance to their business premises while all the remaining had COVID-19 guidelines displayed on their noticeboards. The billboards and posters reproduced in Figure 7.3 give detailed information on what to do to stay safe at a tourism business site. It became easy to remind clients not to touch ‘MEN’ rather to follow ‘WOMEN’. This became a slogan many citizens began to chant.



Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 7.3 Selected COVID-19 protocol awareness billboards and posters

At a time the world needs answers to mounting questions, uncertainty and anxiety, information dissemination, especially from true and verifiable sources, is paramount. This will support the exchange of information in an understandable, timely, transparent and coordinated manner. Information dissemination from managers, business owners and the government to employees and the public should be carefully designed to successfully influence health-protective behaviour in very simple and clear terms. Government policies can guide this process.

#### **7.4.5 Government policies**

Government strategies and plans are needed now more than ever before to sustain tourism businesses. The interviewees reiterated governments' roles through plans (46%) and strategies (54%) to cushion the impact of the pandemic and to sustain businesses. Interviewed in July 2021, respondent P11 noted that:

Some governments in some places have been able to support some businesses by giving tax waivers, I expect the same should be done for hospitality businesses. To my greatest surprise, after the reopening of lockdown to government activities and businesses, the agencies in charge immediately swung into tax collection. From what was brought to our hotel, I noticed that tax has been increased. It is when you have customers patronizing you, then you will be able to generate income to pay taxes. So, I think the government should consider a tax waiver or tax holiday for a period.

An effective decision by policymakers and stakeholders on mitigation plans and strategies is urgently needed to deal with the consequences of the impact of the pandemic on businesses to prevent the closure of businesses. Recovery funds should be made available to all businesses (not selectively as has been the case) to protect the tourism industry already in a negative orbit due to the state of emergency. Multiple taxations and erratic load shedding are the bane of tourism businesses, as lamented by respondent P6 in July 2021:

Despite the irregular power supply and insecurity which has kept most customers at home, the government keeps bringing all manner of taxes for us. The local government is coming with tax, the state government is bringing theirs, and the federal government is not left out. Where do they expect us to get money to pay since we have been out of business for a long time? The taxes are too much. A consideration in harmonizing all the taxes will help businesses and the government as well.

In dealing with the pandemic bifurcation, respondents urged the government for a tax grace over the local government taxation fee charged on tourist accommodation, restaurants and tourist attractions for at least six months of the hard lockdown year (2020). Interviewee P22 proposed the introduction

of a social tourism plan for domestic or proximate tourists as international tourists were nowhere to be seen. According to the respondent:

Even if more international tourists get to be in sight, the lack of synergy between government and tourism practitioners further sends the industry into a comatose aside the economic impact of the COVID-19 pandemic. This is not healthy for the industry (Interview in May 2021).

Tourism policymaking should encompass all the relevant actors and stakeholders. This “tourism policy should motivate stakeholders to reach an agreement through negotiating trade-offs for the efficient sharing of tourism benefits that will satisfy environmental, social and economic concerns, thereby leading to sustainability” (Boukas & Ziakas, 2014: 205). When interviewed in May 2021, respondent P1 who was more concerned about the government’s policies in developing tourism than about tax reductions, stated that:

We need tax reduction to help struggling businesses (the taxes are too numerous) because people were not coming into the state due to the interstate travel ban. The government also needs to partner with hoteliers and other entities that make up tourism in the state. The Nigerian Festival of Arts (NAFEST) was held in 2020 in Jos. Participants came from all the 36 states of the federation. Plateau State government took all the participants to their arranged places instead of sharing all the different state participants to lodge in the various hotels to increase patronage.

Additionally, tourism business owners and managers must be open-minded and willing to work with the government when opportunities arise. Transparency, the removal of bureaucratic bottlenecks and a strong communication plan (McKercher, 1999) are required to bring order to a chaotic situation and turn stakeholders into strange attractors (Speakman & Sharpley, 2012) to save the PS tourism industry. Beside the COVID-19 pandemic “the escalation of hunger has exposed the huge gaps in Nigeria so that the federal and state governments must expand social protection, create new initiatives and fulfil the right to social security to the people of Nigeria” (P11). The implementation and clear communication of these measures will help build the trust and confidence of the people in the government. The frequent communication of updates, responses of governments, individuals and business managers or owners during a crisis is crucial and this is taken up next.

#### **7.4.6 Communication and media engagement during a crisis**

Communication plays a critical role in educating and sharing information during a crisis so that people adopt appropriate protective behaviours during the COVID-19 public health pandemic (Edwards et al., 2020). Communication entails understanding the crisis and then designing strategies to cope with the crisis. In an effort to understand the crisis, Seeger, Sellnow & Ulmer (1998: 233, cited in Edwards

et al., 2020) describes a crisis as a specific, unexpected, and non-routine organization-based event or series of events that create a high level of uncertainty and threat or perceived threat to an organization's high-priority goals. The pandemic matches all that Seeger, Sellnow & Ulmer (1998) raise as it constitutes a threat, a surprise and a short response time. The tourism industry, though not immune to the crisis, continues to face the threat of the pandemic along with misinformation ('infodemic') accelerated by increased access to social media and the Internet (Larson, 2020; Zarocostas, 2020; NCDC, 2021c; Patwa et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021; Byrd et al., 2022). "Media reports have the potential to have a devastating impact on crisis-hit travel destination and they have the potential to be detrimental to the marketability of any tourist destination, particularly if it is dramatized and distorted through rumors and the media" (Young & Montgomery, 1997: 4).

Tourism business managers, along with the rest of the world, are not only fighting the COVID-19 pandemic but also the 'infodemic' "where facts and inaccurate information was [sic] spreading faster than the virus" (Pang, 2021: 100). COVID-19 is the most acute crisis of our lifetime and in order to contain the 'infodemic', leaders must provide and maintain quality communications for effective engagement (Woodward, 2020). Scholars maintain that "proper crisis management is critical to keep stakeholders informed, protected, and anticipated. Well-prepared and designed crisis communication strategies can promptly and effectively communicate with one another during a crisis that allows organizations to protect employees and customers and ensure business continuity" (Kwok, Lee & Han, 2021: 1). These can be enhanced by the actions, communications and crisis management strategies that businesses employ to minimize the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on businesses thereby re-establishing order after a crisis as suggested by chaos theory (Bundy et al., 2017).

Managers have been described as entities who perceive and interpret organizational situations and who must lead in communicating accurate information to the employees and the management to keep workers, customers and the business environment safe (Seidenschnur, 2020). Respondent P16 emphasized that "communication can limit the fast spread of this coronavirus, especially at the workplace." To take the lead in crisis communication means acknowledging the problem or issue; expressing empathy; explaining actions; providing clear, credible (factual and transparent) and consistent (communicating frequently) messages to other team players by providing updates; and making the messages meaningful (Woodward, 2020).

This implies the communication of strategies for coping with the crisis to workers and employees through instructional communication with affective (perceived value and relevance), cognitive (mutual understanding) and behavioural (performance) outcomes (Edwards et al., 2020). The interviewees revealed that communicating with employees on how to manage the risk of the spreading and contracting of the coronavirus at business places for the mutual benefit of all had become

paramount. Effective communication in no way replaces critical decisions when it comes to safeguarding people or business health, cash and operations (Woodward, 2020). Also, an improved communication scheme between those involved in the “decision-making process, especially regarding crisis management issues, could be another strange attraction” (Boukas & Ziakas, 2014: 205). Leveraging communications is a way to make crisis management real and understandable to key stakeholders, particularly employees and customers (Woodward, 2020).

There has been extensive media coverage of past epidemics, which has raised public awareness of the mobility of certain viruses, such as the outbreak of the Ebola virus in West Africa, the recurring waves of bird and swine flu in Southeast Asia and the Zika virus in the Caribbean (Rasoolimanesh et al., 2021). During crises (such as the COVID-19 pandemic), tourists are more exposed than usual to media coverage, hence misleading information or media that spread others’ reactions to the crises and their fear of them (Zheng et al., 2021). These all influence tourists’ decisions to engage in tourism activities or patronize tourism businesses (Zenker et al., 2019). Respondents also shared their views about media engagement in “building back better tourism businesses” during and after the pandemic. Without mincing words, one interviewee (P13) declared: “I laud the Plateau State media establishments and their roles in bringing awareness about the COVID-19 pandemic.” However, another respondent (P19) claimed that: “I noticed some biased reporting where anonymity was not considered. There were photos on social media of supposed person(s) who escaped from the government COVID-19 isolation facility.” This generated an uproar regarding “professionalism, carelessness, and confidentiality especially of the health workers at the facility who shared a photo of the individual that later went viral” (P7). In this era of high and improved technology, news (fake and genuine) spread faster than the media establishments could get to the true picture. However, the interviews with the managers revealed unanimity in acknowledging the media’s potential in assuaging the impact of the pandemic through positive publicity as a deterrent to ‘infodemic’. Thus, respondent P3 commented that:

Although it is financially demanding, media engagement is very instrumental in helping to build back businesses, because in this age, virtually everyone has access to the media which is a way of putting your business out to a wider audience (Interview in June 2021).

The media can enter into partnerships with tourism businesses as a way of assisting in rebuilding tourism businesses, as voiced by respondent P9 in May 2021:

The media partnership with the tourism industry is low. The advert rates and charges are high. To help businesses bounce back, the media can give waivers or discounts considering what has happened to the tourism and hospitality industry. To help bring them back on track and back in business.

Table 7.3 summarizes the risk management themes and strategies that were identified in the study.

Table 7.3 Risk management strategies identified by the interviewed business managers

<b>Theme</b>	<b>Strategy</b>
Risk management plan	A plan to help businesses mitigate the risk of contracting COVID-19 at the business place
Risk management team	Update and incorporate risk management plan across the organization
Evaluation of plan	Regularly assessing the risk of the spread of COVID-19 and updating the plan
Information dissemination	Using all available social media channels to disseminate information, such as WhatsApp, Facebook, Instagram or emails, noticeboards and on-site live announcements
Government policies	Government policies, protocols and guidelines as precautionary measures
Communication and media engagement during a crisis	Managers self-organize to communicate information to workers Media coverage and reportage

Source: Field survey, 2021

Owing to the pandemic, participants were asked if they had developed any risk management strategies. The interviews revealed that various strategies were instituted by tourism business managers and owners to mitigate the impact of the pandemic on their employees and clients. The pandemic provided an opportunity to explore workable strategies to establish the wide range differences among businesses and their management strategies among managers or owners which inherently determined the risk management strategies employed.

This study has revealed that if a comprehensive risk management strategy is to be devised it must include risk management plans, risk management teams, timely evaluation of plans, information dissemination, government policies, communication and the media. The pandemic has given tourism business managers opportunities to learn from their experiences. They were asked in the interviews to share key lessons they learned from the pandemic's impact on their businesses. The shared lessons are reported in the next subsection.

## **7.5 KEY LESSONS THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC HAS TAUGHT BUSINESS MANAGERS**

Tourism is dependent on travellers and customers and therefore requires a comprehensive crisis management plan to effectively deal with the economic impact of disaster events (Boukas & Ziakas,

2014). The COVID-19 pandemic has taught business owners and managers to focus on developing contingency plans and allowing room for flexible decision-making (Evans & Elphick, 2005). A vital lesson learnt from the pandemic is that the skills of employees will be tested as a means of job retainment. Interviewee P12 became aware that “multiskilling will eliminate redundancy. A major evolving practice will now be employee engagement in multiple job roles to help job retainment. Going forward, I foresee this as a norm in the tourism industry.” Respondent P14 recounted a number of lessons learnt from the COVID experience:

The COVID-19 pandemic has taught me to always prepare for tomorrow. Because some uncertainties will come into view tomorrow, you do not see them, but they must come, such things are to be prepared for. Businesses must save some amount of money on their account, no matter how small the business is. I must not put everything on business because I must be prepared for a rainy day. COVID has taught us ways to live, hygiene and cleanliness (Interview on May 2021).

On the necessity of having contingency plans, respondent P2 stated that “businesses must have backup plans, especially savings because uncertainties can occur in a second and cause sudden changes which may lead to the collapse of businesses. Keep records and monitor trends.” Respondent P15 became aware of the indispensability of contingency plans:

The COVID-19 pandemic has taught me to prepare for the unexpected, to always have something saved up somewhere, no matter how small, not just living and spending all that you earn or gain every day, so that you can have something to fall back on in case of any eventuality (Interview on July 2021).

Crisis management is a crucial part of handling a crisis, and how it is done provides valuable lessons for effective crisis management in a future crisis. Respondent P17 opined that: “the Covid-19 pandemic has taught us to think ahead and have backup plans and reserves so that tourism businesses will not collapse in case of any eventuality.”

Crisis management in “the tourism system needs to be viewed through the prism and principles encapsulated by chaos theory” (Boukas & Ziakas, 2014: 193). The experiences in handling the SARS pandemic and some of the measures used played vital roles in the early stages of handling the COVID-19 pandemic. The tourism system and the system-immanent activities should be examined as a “non-linear, non-deterministic and dynamical” operating system where there is a complexity of relationships between multiple elements in a dynamic way, characterized by constant changes and stimuli (McKercher, 1999: 433).



Respondent P5 re-emphasized the points made by McKercher:

The tourism system operates chaotically, hence [it is] prone to constant changes that can be addressed with business plans. Tourism businesses must plan and assign money for future eventualities. Make room for uncertainties in your plan so that when they occur you know how to manage them. Stay healthy. A healthy person can enjoy life and then be able to manage a business (Interview in July 2021).

The tourism industry needs to stay awake, alert and ready to recognize the bifurcation phase and respond accordingly (Speakman & Sharpley, 2012). Managers and business owners must reflect on Albert Einstein's wise words to "learn from yesterday, live for today, hope for tomorrow. The important thing is not to stop questioning" (cited in Helping hands, 2018: 1). In this regard respondent P19 confirmed that "the COVID-19 pandemic has taught me that businesses ought to prepare for uncertainties because a larger force can disrupt your business other than just finance and power cuts."

The pandemic has opened avenues for businesses to view business management from different perspectives. Extravagance no longer has a place in businesses as advised by respondent P18 who encouraged business managers to be "prudent in managing their businesses. Do not abuse privileges. Always be mindful of an uncertain future. Have backup plans to sustain your business. Business owners and managers should have good record-keeping, good business plans, and a good commitment to managing their business. This will help in knowing trends.". A wise respondent (P16) stated that the pandemic had taught most business managers:

Not to put all their eggs in one basket. Mediums of transacting businesses should not be one-sided. Learn how to develop different means of getting income. It was the savings we had before the COVID-19 pandemic that we were able to run the business and kept it afloat. Always prepare for the unexpected when they come (Interview in May 2021).

The pandemic made it necessary to look for measures to help shut down the tourism system (again) and put the system back in order. Finding the quickest means of facilitating self-organization is of great importance to tourism business owners and managers by introducing strange attractors to do the miracle of bringing crippled businesses back to life (Paraskevas, 2006; Sellnow et al., 2002). A sustainable finance option for businesses is a vital domain business managers and owners should consider as exemplified by a park manager:

The COVID-19 pandemic has taught us a sustainable way of financing the park. There is a need for the park to have a private farm for feeding the animals. During the COVID-19 pandemic, there were days the markets were shut down, we could not get food for the animals. So, we are planning on having our farm within the park premises as a way of keeping the animals alive in the face of such uncertainties that befell us. Having our sustainable farm to produce food for the animals is

another means of creating employment for the unemployed youths out there (Interview with P22, June 2021).

Three crucial lessons the pandemic has taught prudent tourism business owner (P20) are: “Always prepare for uncertainty. Have a reserve for an emergency. Have multiple sources of income.”

The application of chaos theory in crisis management can play a momentous part in the recovery process of tourism businesses. Moreover, government policies, effective communication, evaluation of risk management plans and the introduction of new tourism products can all be effective in restoring tourism businesses.

A composite word cloud integration of all the appropriate words that became apparent in the interviews on all the business management practices and risk management strategies employed during the COVID-19 pandemic by managers of hotels, guest houses, restaurants and tourist attractions in the promotion of tourism activities in PS after the reopening of tourism businesses was generated. A thematic analysis was performed to identify the most popular and frequently appearing words that were then inputted on <https://www.wordclouds.com/> to generate the word cloud shown in Figure 7.4. The larger and bolder the word the more frequently it was mentioned and the more important the word is.

The most outstanding, common and popular words that emerged in the interviews became the major business management practices and risk management strategies identified in the study and were presented in this chapter (see Sections 7.3 and 7.4). Due to the manner of eliciting information (interview) to achieve the objective for this chapter, there were no limits to the number of times interviewees mentioned a particular word. They were allowed to mention the word repeatedly which increased the popularity of the word on the visual representation (see Figure 7.4). Interviewees were allowed to use individual words or short phrases and the size of each word seen in the word cloud image reflects their frequency.



Source: Field survey, 2021

Figure 7.4 Word cloud of business management practices and risk management strategies

During the COVID-19 pandemic, there are heightened concerns about the safety of employees and customers. Tourism companies are redesigning their operations and communication channels, integrating specific technologies for contactless services such as mobile apps for check-in and check-out and digital payment systems (Hao et al., 2020; Sigala, 2020). This study found that tourism businesses are minimizing human contact and avoiding the accelerated spread of COVID-19 by ramping up the application of digital contactless services. Although businesses in PS have not been able yet to explore the use of robotics and artificial intelligence, this option has been adopted in the hospitality industry in China as a response to and recovery from the pandemic (Garrido-Moreno et al., 2021).

## 7.6 CONCLUSION

This study found that the vast majority (92%) of tourism business managers have employed self-rescue practices and strategies to confront the uncertainty of the impact of COVID-19. Management practices identified are lower operating costs, closure of certain facilities, flexible staff assignment or

rotation, and halts to further investment. Tourism companies invested in marketing to attract new markets while creating a new set of weird attractors. These strange attractors were introduced by tourism business managers to keep their regular clients and to hopefully get new ones. The attractors are new products and services, loyalty and reward programmes, promotions, updated and improved channels for contacting, attracting and selling to customers, and digitized advertising and marketing media channels. These strange attractors are consistent with those reported in the literature on what is happening in the tourism sector around the world (Israeli et al., 2011; Hao et al., 2020; Heredia-Colaco & Rodrigues, 2021).

Uncertainty surrounds business continuity even though risk management strategies were instituted by the tourism industry managers and owners as guides for responding to the impact of the pandemic. Although extant literature confirms that the complex tourism industry can be dislodged by triggering events due to the butterfly effects, tourism systems have been found now to be on different paths compared to where they were before the COVID-19 pandemic. This study found that bifurcation caused tourism businesses to be on paths that led to their closure (destruction), while some gained new market segments thanks to reorganization to reach self-organization facilitated by strange attractors. Moreover, the incorporation of chaos theory in business management practices and risk management during the pandemic further confirmed that crises are complex and unpredictable as every crisis is unique and requires a dedicated approach to reach a new order and gain new stability as exemplified by the studied tourism businesses. The study also found that many (75%) tourism businesses appeared to have lacked adequate planning and preparation for a crisis. Chaos theory therefore provides a framework for identifying real-world, pertinent, and operative strategies for the sustenance of tourism businesses during a crisis, especially the COVID-19 pandemic. The next chapter concludes the report.

## CHAPTER 8

### CONCLUSION

#### 8.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this research work was to investigate the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses using a chaos-theoretical approach. Applying chaos theory to understanding crises in the tourism industry, particularly the COVID-19 pandemic, is an under-explored area in Nigeria's tourism sector. A mixed-methods approach was used to gain insights into the impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau (PS) State, Nigeria, using a chaos-theoretical approach. The study highlights the elements of chaos theory and their dynamic roles in crisis management in unpredictable, complex and chaotic systems. This concluding chapter comprises four sections. An overview of the study objectives is given in the first section. The second part summarizes the main findings. In the third part recommendations and their implications for policy and practice are proposed. The last section presents the limitations of the study and suggests areas for further research.

#### 8.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The tourism literature on crises and disaster management strategies in the tourism industry usually concentrates on linear, deterministic models and frameworks. But these frameworks do not successfully incorporate the complex and chaotic characteristics of tourism systems. Consequently, there is a gap in the literature on managing crises using a theoretical approach to complex tourism systems as the existing approaches are unidimensional and lack theoretical underpinning of crisis management models and frameworks for a complex system. This study aimed to help fill the knowledge gap through investigating the impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses using a chaos theory approach. Input from a literature review, interviews and questionnaire survey were used to achieve the research aim by pursuing five objectives.

1. Review the relevant literature on the impacts of unexpected events on tourism.
2. Investigate the experiences of tourists in Plateau State during the COVID-19 pandemic.
3. Assess the economic impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State using chaos theory.
4. Examine the business management practices employed by tourism businesses in Plateau State during the COVID-19 pandemic.
5. Ascertain the risk management strategies designed for hotels, restaurants and tourist attractions to promote tourism activities following the post-pandemic reopening of tourism businesses in Plateau State.

The approach adopted was mixed-methods drawing heavily on pragmatism and offering a framework for the collection of valid and reliable qualitative and quantitative data sets. Quantitative data were obtained from a survey of 408 tourists and 209 tourism business managers in Jos North and Jos South local government areas in PS. A set of qualitative data was obtained through interviews conducted with the tourism business managers of restaurants, hotels, guest houses and tourist attractions. The next section provides the research findings based on the research objectives.

### **8.3 MAJOR FINDINGS**

The COVID-19 pandemic which has been described as a ‘black swan’ event that was anticipated by some scholars but unexpected by most as a disruptive force on tourism activities around the world. The unexpectedness was heightened by fear, the mutation of variants, and the rapid and painful unfolding of uncertainties. This study’s analysis of the impacts of the pandemic on tourism businesses found that COVID-19 brought about job losses and reduced tourism activities. Lessons learnt from the findings highlight the possible measures that can be employed to dealing with future crises in the tourism industry.

The key findings are summarized in this section. The salient findings are reported in three subsections covering the experiences of tourists during the pandemic (Objective 2); the economic impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses (Objective 3); and the business management practices, and the risk management strategies employed by tourism businesses to promote tourism activities following the post-pandemic reopening of tourism businesses in Plateau State (Objectives 4 and 5). A graphic summary of the findings is then presented as a crisis management framework in Figure 8.1.

#### **8.3.1 Experiences of tourists during the COVID-19 pandemic**

Due to the rapid spread of the COVID-19 pandemic and the subsequent negative publicity and ‘infodemic’ this study found changes in tourist behaviour. Chaos theory was applied to investigate the factors influencing tourists’ protective behaviour and their behaviour towards tourism businesses during the pandemic. It was found that tourists sensed their vulnerability and likelihood of contracting the COVID-19 while visiting tourism destination, hence they self-organized by taking precautionary measures to protect themselves.

Tourists’ self-organization was found to be effective as 60% were confident about the efficacy of the precautionary measures. Despite the efficacy of the measures, tourists’ travel plans changed. This finding is consistent with the existing literature that tourists may change their travel destinations, change their travel behaviour, or seek additional information before visiting or travelling to a

destination where a potential risk exists. In PS the COVID-19 pandemic was the major risk that disrupted the travel plans of one half of the surveyed tourists because of the general lockdown, whereas the travel plans of 15% of tourists have reportedly been disrupted for fear of catching the virus while travelling. This suggests that travel for tourism purposes is unsafe during the COVID-19 era.

According to the literature comfortability and safety play major roles in tourist behaviour towards patronizing tourism businesses. It was found that 55% of the respondents were not comfortable with using public transportation due to the high safety and security risks of travelling with other passengers who may be ‘super spreaders’ of the virus. This discomfort accounted for the 15% cancelling their travel plans in the 2020-21 period because of the danger of contracting COVID-19. Apart from the threat of COVID19, insecurity, kidnapping and banditry also changed tourist behaviour as tourists were visibly absent at the tourism businesses included in the study area. Tourism business managers confirmed that tourists stayed at home for fear of being kidnapped for ransom and this affected the revenue and income generation of tourism businesses.

### **8.3.2 Economic impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses**

The tourism industry normally enjoys networked relationships, but these have been disrupted by a butterfly effect that has thrown the system out of its stable state by a prompting incident (COVID-19). Businesses suffered from uncertainty as radical changes had to be employed to salvage the industry. Although tourism businesses got to the edge of chaos and bifurcation, business managers reported the business to be bouncing back through coherent measures, protocols and guidelines being followed. An urgent need was exposed for stakeholders and government interventions to help salvage domestic tourism by supporting the revival of local tourism businesses.

It was found that only one in three of the surveyed tourism businesses reported operating as usual and one out of two were operating partially with either reduced staff or paying reduced wages. Two out of three tourism businesses were not able to continue paying their employees full salaries that had to be reduced by 20% due to reduced business revenue and lack of reserves. Most employees who took paid leave only received partial payments from their employers. One half of all the respondents remained optimistic of weathering the pandemic’s stormy impacts on their businesses and be able to resume profitability as their businesses ‘bounced back’. One in ten managers were not confident about their economic resilience and robustness and only two out of ten businesses managed to survive the pandemic.

The pre-COVID-19 financial situation of tourism businesses revealed that 68% of the tourism businesses were making a profit and 22% were breaking even, thus the majority of tourism businesses

were making a profit before lockdown. During the pandemic the financial situation of two out of three tourism businesses had changed to the extent that the businesses were running at a loss and only 28% were breaking even. It was clear that many tourism businesses were experiencing financial difficulties during the pandemic. It was established that the ability of tourism businesses to survive the economic crisis depends on multiple factors in which business adaptation, resilience and business sustainability play vital roles. Four out of five tourism businesses had a business sustainability plan in place. As of the first week of August 2021 two out of three of the interviewed tourism business managers affirmed that they had not received any support or intervention from the government to mitigate the impact of the COVID-19 crisis despite this being considered the most essential support needed to cope with the economic impact on tourism businesses. Although it is likely impossible to foretell when, where and how a crisis will occur, tourism business owners and manager designed business management practices and risk management strategies to aid the return of their businesses to pre-COVID-19 levels.

### **8.3.3 Business management practices and risk management strategies**

The pandemic has contributed to economic uncertainties for tourism businesses by influencing tourist behaviour that causes fluctuations in business revenues that have severe adverse knock-on effects on businesses. Stakeholders and actors (tourists, employees and tourism business managers) were found to have self-organized and be obligated to build practices and strategies that ensure minimal virus transmissions at workplaces. It was established from the interviews that new business management practices were developed by tourism business managers in the context of the pandemic reorganization practices to allay the fears of customers suffering discomfort with or a fear of being in contact with people or objects that are potential transmitters of the pandemic, especially objects used for public or shared interest

The tourism industry clearly exhibits certain characteristics that increase its vulnerability to risks both in general and to the health crisis generated by the pandemic. Therefore, crisis management is essential to cushion the impact of the pandemic on the tourism industry as business management practices and risk management strategies that can help in the reduction of transmission rates at business places. Figure 8.1 highlights chaos theory risk management strategies and methods used by businesses to prevent or overcome a risk in a crisis. These methods are risk management plans, risk management teams, evaluation of risk management plans and the communication of risk outcomes to accommodate successes or failures in the risk management plans.

A graphic summary of the findings is presented in Figure 8.1 that integrates the components of chaos theory which can guide the process of crisis management in the tourism industry through an



investigation of the impacts of a pandemic on tourism businesses. This is presented as a guide for tourism crisis management policy and practice in PS.

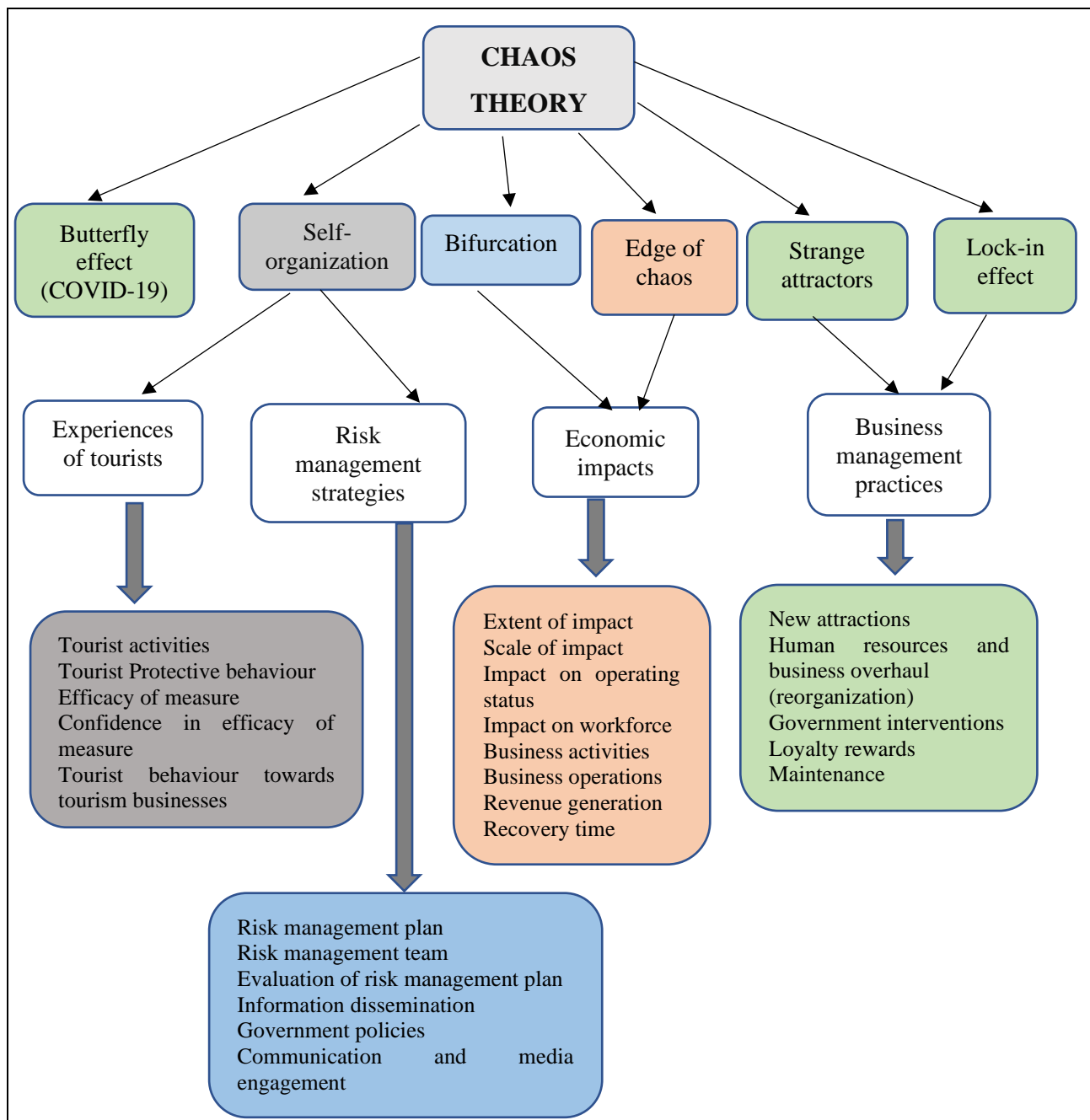


Figure 8.1 A framework for crisis management for tourism businesses

The butterfly effect (initial condition of the virus outbreak in Wuhan, China) impacted enormously on the tourism industry and climaxed to the production of a global outcome. This effect accelerated alterations in the global tourism industry in unprecedented ways. The global ripple effect was unpredictable and continues to unfold. This shows that the tourism system and its subsystems are

vulnerable to forces of stability and instability. Moreover, chaos theory is useful in guiding behaviour. Tourism business managers and tourists had to suddenly alter their behaviour by self-organizing and the so called ‘order without predictability’ was enhanced by the announcement of safety protocols by governments around the world. The world is now abuzz with the return of the tourism industry, among others, to ‘business as usual’. This is an offshoot of self-organization. It is axiomatic that once responses are channelled toward handling a crisis, the crisis enters a resolution stage and the organization returns to normal business operations. The tourism industry is gradually returning to normality as the COVID-19 crisis resolution phase is gradually waning off.

Strange attractors, the hidden patterns of order in disorder and the structures within the chaos became the live wires of many businesses. Tourism business owners and managers had to think outside the box to create order out of the chaos of the pandemic that kept clients away due to the stay-at-home order. Restaurants had to devise means of taking food to the doorsteps of their customers. This brought about increased online orders and delivery of food and groceries. The lock-in effects proved to be useful and effective experiences that were applied during past pandemics and epidemics (SARS, Ebola, Zika virus) and now found to be useful in determining the business management practices and the risk management strategies for tourism businesses.

Chaos theory emphasizes the reality that there is no standardized recipe for confronting crisis. Rather it calls attention to each crisis being unique and demanding unique responses. Chaos theory teaches us to be concerned and sceptical about long-term predictions of the recovery of the complex tourism system following the pandemic due to instability and uncertainty. The responses to and lessons learnt from the pandemic are indications that there are chances that the economic and social damages incurred in this crisis could be substantially reduced if these lessons are applied in the future. This stresses the fact that the damages involved in tourism crises can be diminished by applying chaos theory in crisis management in response to the future transformation of the tourism industry.

The result confirms that crisis management should be a continuous process and not a one-off action. The process must include a crisis management team and a crisis management plan with defined actions to be followed during and after a crisis. The security and safety of tourists, and the tourism industry itself, were pushed to the edge of chaos and bifurcation by the COVID-19 crisis. Although there was a coordinated dissemination of information by the WHO, Africa Communicable Disease Centre (Africa CDC) and other organizations, in the future any country that receives tourists must provide comprehensive information about the level of security and safety as tourist destination. This will improve cooperation, exchange of information, exchange of expertise and knowledge on effective crisis management measures. The results of this study confirm the applicability of chaos

theory in crisis management in the complex and unstable tourism industry, increasingly reminding us about what can and perhaps, more importantly, what cannot be foretold.

#### **8.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR POLICY AND PRACTICE**

The importance of crisis management models and frameworks in the tourism industry has been given attention in literature, albeit with an emphasis on employing linear and deterministic strategies. This study has revealed that crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic are unpredictable occurrences that are irregular and affect the tourism system in various ways. Tourism is a dynamic system that requires the use of a complex approach such as chaos theory to fathom it. No such application of chaos theory as a crisis management model for the tourism industry in Plateau State has hitherto been attempted. This is thus a first of its kind. This investigation transcends conventional linear crisis management frameworks and models by analyzing crisis from a chaos theory perspective. This research underlines the need for an alternative perspective on crisis management that provides insight into a complex chaotic tourism system. Against this background some proposals are made here to guide the design of policies for crisis management in the tourism sector in Plateau State (PS).

This study has spotlighted certain concepts of chaos theory, namely lock-in effect, edge of chaos, bifurcation, self-organization and strange-attractors, and set out varied elements of each one that are relevant to the understanding of and responses to tourism crisis management. Although having no order of priority, each concept offers distinctive possibilities for crisis management, irrespective of scale, duration or geographical setting. A tourism system may, for example, not necessarily go through lock-in effect, edge of chaos, bifurcation or self-organization, but only require strange attractors to return to business as usual. Given this, any policy seeking to promote crisis management strategies must recognize that tourism is complex and cannot be captured in a deterministic model. In this regard the current linear, deterministic and predictable crisis management models can be replaced with chaos theory. This measure and effort geared towards improving tourism crisis management can significantly improve tourism recovery and development in PS.

The study also focused on the different types of tourism businesses and their varied ownerships. Notwithstanding the precarious state of facilities at some of the observed tourism attractions (especially the government-owned attractions), this study recorded tourists' satisfaction ratings of the facilities at tourist sites that influence their decisions to patronize a tourism business. Any policy seeking to promote tourism in PS must therefore recognize the importance of equipping tourist attractions with modern and up-to-date facilities to improve patronage. As enablers of tourism development in the state, there must be collaboration among government, private tourism investors

and practitioners, communities and stakeholders to increase participation in tourism through multi-stakeholder cooperation of all the actors involved.

These multi-stakeholder collaborators should be ready and willing to mobilize finances and material resources to appropriately support tourism development in PS. This may involve a multi-stakeholder consensually agreed contributory scheme (amount or percentage to be set aside must be agreed by all stakeholders involved) for tourism development that will be duly used during emergencies and unexpected crises like the COVID-19 pandemic. This contributory scheme must also specify penalties for defaulters who renege on their part of the contribution. This would be a way of having sustainable tourism businesses and securing the jobs of the plethora of workers employed in the industry.

Concerning the recovery of tourism businesses, governments must develop a clear and transparent approach to financial stimuli and packages for businesses to be better equipped to support and develop business sustainability plans. Tourism corporations, authorities and business owners should in their bids to encourage domestic tourists to participate in tourism activities, self-organize and be ready to mobilize resources (financial and material) to appropriately sponsor some of the strange attractors. This might include free entry fees into programmes and activities such as the Jos Chilling annual December event, Jos peace hiking, Jos peace marathon, and the Jos peace golf and Polo tournaments. This will ensure the development of tourism activities and spur participation in tourism activities by domestic tourists to revive tourism again in PS, the *Home of Peace and Tourism*.

## **8.5 LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

The geographical scope of this study was limited to examining the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses in a single state in Nigeria. The research scope can be expanded into a comparative study to uncover similarities or differences in other states in Nigeria and countries in Africa, especially those that reported high numbers of COVID-19 cases and where tourism is a major contributor to the nations' GDP.

Physical and social distancing, insecurity, and the Jos crisis that erupted in the study area in August 2021 during the data collection phase severely limited the timeframe for data collection and limited the researchers' desire to spend more time on-site to interact with research participants and access further information.

Rather than generalize the findings, this study generated context-specific knowledge on the COVID-19 pandemic impact on tourism businesses. Hence, the analysis of the experiences and tourist behaviour towards tourism businesses and the economic impact of the pandemic on tourism

businesses was made possible using closed-ended responses from research participants. Although this design generated sufficient quantitative and qualitative data required to understand the impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses, the approach did not enable research participants to report the diverse reasons underlying tourist behaviour towards tourism businesses in PS.

This research assessed the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses using chaos theory. The above-mentioned limitations of the study pose questions for future research. The reported findings of this study of tourist behaviour towards tourism businesses are based on evidence from one state. Validation of the impact of these findings across different states that generate revenue through tourism receipts will provide a basis for their adoption into a national tourism recovery plan to address the impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses because of a decline in patronage or avoidance of these businesses by tourists for health reasons. It will be worthwhile to investigate the experiences of tourists and their behaviour towards tourism businesses in the 36 states of Nigeria in diverse contexts. This will help understand the national picture regarding the impact of the pandemic on tourist behaviour towards tourism businesses in Nigeria during the crisis.

Given the large population size of Nigeria, comparative studies could be done to explore the socio-economic impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses between states in Nigeria and other African countries. Studies could be undertaken to apply chaos theory to examine the impact of the pandemic on other tourist destinations and types of tourism businesses that provide support services to the tourism industry, such as transportation, entertainment, sports and live events. These studies should be conducted over longer periods than done in this study to capture data covering the change dynamics during the various phases of eased lockdowns in the various years. In addition, studies could be undertaken to examine how insecurity linked to issues of kidnapping and banditry has impacted the tourism industry in Plateau State and generally in Nigeria.

## **8.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS**

The aim of this study was to investigate the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State (PS) using a chaos theory approach. The study uncovered evidence that tourism businesses have been hit hard by the pandemic. The government's imposition of non-pharmaceutical interventions of international travel bans, movement restriction orders and global lockdowns caused devastating declines in the patronage of tourism businesses due to the tourists' behaviour of self-organization. Most of the surveyed tourism businesses suffered crucial revenue and employee losses leading to the edge of chaos and bifurcation of the businesses. However, the strange attractors and lock-in effect introduced by owners and managers through the overhaul of operational practices and

risk management strategies were successful in keeping businesses afloat. Tourism businesses resorted to numerous strange attractors as a coping mechanism to survive the bifurcation and difficult times.

The pandemic adversely impacted on the tourism industry as it did to other types of tourism businesses in PS. Just like every other crisis, there are gainers and losers. While many of the tourism businesses are counting their losses, it has been ‘a blessing in disguise’ for some businesses that provide essential services in the tourism industry. For example, the food and restaurant subsectors recorded increased patronage as sit-at-home orders burgeoned. Online food orders and deliveries skyrocketed, and food delivery became lucrative as more job opportunities opened for deliveries of groceries and food parcels. The use of technology in the tourism industry has become more effective during the pandemic, particularly for contactless payments, bookings, orders and reservations. This trend is likely to continue throughout the further development of the pandemic as calls for the (re)thinking and (re)imagining of tourism as transformation and changes continue in the tourism industry amid the continuation of the coronavirus.

The study found that tourism businesses resorted to various practices and strategies to survive the difficult financial constraints during the COVID-19 crisis. Businesses had to resort to self-help as little or no help was forthcoming from the government. This self-help was a little helpful during the initial outbreak of the pandemic through workers being asked to take leave with and without pay while others were encouraged to work from home. Self-help became less successful with the prolonged lockdown that began to erode deeply into the financial sustainability of tourism businesses. Domestic tourism had to be revised to become the survival engine for tourism businesses as international travel suffered more restrictions. There was consensus among the respondents about the role of domestic (proximate) tourism in becoming the pathway to the sustainability of the tourism industry as the COVID-19 crisis persists.

The main findings and contributions of this study have deepened our understanding of the complex and dynamic nature of chaotic tourism systems beset by unexpected events (crises and disasters) that prevent participation in tourism activities. The existing knowledge about crisis management in PS from a theoretical point of view was insufficient. This shortcoming was addressed by this study by incorporating several elements of chaos theory to gain a better understanding of the impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses and about which business management practices and risk management strategies to employ using the components of chaos theory. In this regard, this study has provided a more penetrating comprehension of the paradigm for crisis management in a non-linear, complex and dynamic system.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY PARTICIPANTS RECRUITMENT FORM



UNIVERSITEIT • STELLENBOSCH • UNIVERSITY  
jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner

You are humbly requested to participate in this study conducted by Mrs Tina Odinakachi Iirmdu, a PhD candidate from the **Department of Geography and Environmental Studies at Stellenbosch University, South Africa**. This study aims to investigate the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State. It is hoped that the information obtained in this process will contribute to her doctoral dissertation and be useful in analyzing the **impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State, Nigeria**. You were selected as a potential participant in this study because of your knowledge and experience in tourism activities which is very crucial to address the research objectives.

You are highly assured that the study is purely for academic purposes and all information will be treated confidentially and participants will remain anonymous as all required ethical concerns shall be put into consideration. Be assured that no one will link the data you provided to the information you supplied. Any other ethical issues related to the research are considered by the researcher and Stellenbosch University.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely.

**Tina Odinakachi Iirmdu**

**08033519981**

By signing below, you are agreeing that:

- i. You have read and understood the participant information note.
- ii. Questions about your participation in this study has been clarified, and
- iii. You are consenting to take part in this study without coercion (voluntarily).

-----  
Participant's name or Signature

-----  
Date

**APPENDIX B CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A SURVEY (TOURISTS)**

UNIVERSITEIT • STELLENBOSCH • UNIVERSITY  
jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner

You are humbly requested to participate in this study conducted by Mrs. Tina Odinakachi Iirmdu, a PhD candidate from the **Department of Geography and Environmental Studies at Stellenbosch University, South Africa**. This questionnaire aims to investigate the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on domestic tourist's behaviour towards tourism businesses and to measure the economic impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State. It is hoped that the information obtained in this process will contribute to her doctoral dissertation and be useful in analyzing the **impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State, Nigeria**. You were selected as a potential participant in this study because of your knowledge and experience in tourism activities and tourism business which is very crucial to address the research objectives. You are highly assured that the study is purely for academic purposes and all information will be treated confidentially and participants will remain anonymous. The study method will involve a self-administered questionnaire with your permission. Be assured that responses from the questionnaire will only be accessible to the researcher and her academic supervisor. Kindly note that excerpts from the questionnaire will be used for research publications, but under no circumstances will your identity be disclosed in such publications. At any point you feel uncomfortable during this research with any question, you have the right to withdraw or refuse to respond to certain questions you are not comfortable with. If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please feel free to contact Mrs. Tina Odinakachi Iirmdu on **+2348033519981**.

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights, or remedies because you are participating in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development. Dr Enoch Bako Amabu [amabuenochbako@gmail.com; +2348068047099] at the Psychology Unit, Jos University Teaching Hospital (JUTH), Nigeria, will be readily available should you require any form of emotional or psychological support while filling the questionnaire.

**DECLARATION OF CONSENT BY THE PARTICIPANT**

As the participant I confirm that:

- I have read the above information and it is written in a language that I am comfortable with.
- I have had a chance to ask questions and all my questions have been answered.

- All issues related to privacy, and the confidentiality and use of the information I provide, have been explained.

By signing below, I agree to take part in this research study, as conducted by Mrs. Tina Odinakachi Iirndu

\_\_\_\_\_

**Signature of Participant** **Date**

**DECLARATION BY THE PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR**

As the **principal investigator**, I hereby declare that the information contained in this document has been thoroughly explained to the participant. I also declare that the participant has been encouraged (and has been given ample time) to ask any questions. In addition, I would like to select the following option:

	The conversation with the participant was conducted in a language in which the participant is fluent.
	The conversation with the participant was conducted with the assistance of a translator (who has signed a non-disclosure agreement), and this “Consent Form” is available to the participant in a language in which the participant is fluent.

\_\_\_\_\_

**Signature of Principal Investigator** **Date**

## APPENDIX C EXPERIENCES OF TOURISTS DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC IN PLATEAU STATE, NIGERIA

Survey questionnaire

### Questionnaire 1 (Tourists)

**Instruction: Kindly fill in the blank, tick [√] or circle where applicable.**

#### Section A: Demographic Information

1. Are you resident, visiting/visited Plateau State anytime during 2020/2021? a. Resident [ ]  
b. Visitor [ ]
  - 1.1 If resident, how long have you been living in the State?.....
  - 1.2 If visiting/visited, when did you arrive in the State and from where are you (state your hometown/city)?.....
2. Gender: a. Male [ ] b. Female [ ]
3. Age: a. 18-25 [ ] b. 26-35 [ ] c. 36-55 [ ] d. 56-65 [ ] e. ≥ 66 [ ]
4. Employment status a. Employed [ ] b. Unemployed [ ]
5. What is your household's combined average monthly income?
  - a. ~~₦~~30,000 – ~~₦~~100,000 [ ]
  - b. ~~₦~~101,000 – ~~₦~~200,000 [ ]
  - c. ~~₦~~201,000 – ~~₦~~400,000 [ ]
  - d. ~~₦~~401,000 – ~~₦~~600,000 [ ]
  - e. ≥~~₦~~601,000 [ ]
  - f. ≤~~₦~~30,000 [ ]
6. Level of education: a. Primary [ ] b. Secondary [ ] c. Tertiary [ ] d. Informal [ ]

#### SECTION B: THE EXPERIENCES OF TOURISTS DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC IN PLATEAU STATE

##### Section B1: Tourist activities

7. Which of the following have you visited [ V ] or will you be visiting [ W ] during your stay in Jos?

**NB: Insert V for visited and W for will be visiting**

<b>Restaurants</b>	<b>Hotels/accommodation</b>	<b>Tourist attractions</b>
1. Restaurant [ ]	1. Hotel/Guest house [ ] 2. Visiting Family and Friends [ ] 3. Others [specify]	1. Jos Wildlife Park [ ] 2. Solomon Lar Amusement Park [ ] 3. Korret Hamlet Amusement Park [ ] 4. Mees Palace Amusement Park [ ] 5. Rayfield Holiday Resort [ ] 6. National Museum Jos [ ] 7. Museum of Traditional Nigerian Architecture (MOTNA) [ ] 8. Jos Zoological Garden [ ] 9. Others [specify]

8. If you have visited any of the mentioned in question 8, list the three you enjoyed most based on facilities and services rendered (1).....(2).....(3).....
9. Which of the following tourism activity have you come to engage in here in Plateau State? a. Leisure or vacation [ ] b. Sight-seeing [ ] c. Visiting family and friends [ ] d. Religious festival e. Business [ ] f. Conference [ ] g. Education [ ] h. Others (specify).....
10. In whose company did you engage in tourism activities during the eased lockdown phase of the COVID-19 pandemic? a. Alone [ ] b. With spouse [ ] c. With family [ ] d. With friends [ ] e. With organized groups [ ] f. others (specify).....
11. Select reason for your answer to question 10. a. To avoid getting infected by others [ ] b. Cost of travelling is too high [ ] c. It is not yet safe for mass travel [ ] d. I enjoy adventure [ ] e. I am confident travelling with family [ ] f. others (specify).....
12. What other reasons would motivate you to consider engaging in tourism activities during the eased phases of lockdown? a. Price reduction in services [ ] b. Safety and cleanliness [ ] c. Loyalty rewards [ ] d. Price reduction in products [ ] e. others (specify).....
13. How has the pandemic impacted your travel plans to Plateau in 2020-21? a. travel got disrupted due to general lockdown [ ] b. travel got disrupted due to fear of contracting COVID-19 while traveling [ ] c. I travelled despite the COVID-19 [ ] d. others (specify).....
14. Would you have visited here now if there were no COVID-19 during 2020-21? .....



**Section B2: Tourists’ protective behaviour**

15. What is your perception of the COVID-19 pandemic? a. act of God [ ] b. natural phenomenon [ ] c. health crisis/pandemic [ ] d. man-made [ ] e. I do not know [ ]
16. How do you feel about the likelihood of you contracting the pandemic at any tourism business location? a. extremely unlikely [ ] b. unlikely [ ] c. neutral [ ] d. likely [ ] e. extremely likely [ ]
17. Have you taken any precautionary measure to protect yourself from the pandemic (protective behaviour) while at any tourism business location? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ] (if No go to question 17.3)
- 17.1. If Yes, what precautionary measures did you take to protect yourself? a. Compulsory wearing of face mask [ ] b. physical or social distancing [ ] c. washing of hands with soap and water or using hand sanitizer [ ] d. all the above [ ] e. others [specify] .....
- 17.2. How confident are you about the efficacy of these measures in question 3.1 in protecting you against the pandemic? a. Not effective at all [ ] b. Not effective [ ] c. Neutral [ ] d. Effective [ ] e. Extremely effective [ ]
- 17.3 If No to question 18, why not? .....

**Section B3: Tourists’ behaviour towards tourism businesses**

18. In view of the COVID-19 pandemic, how comfortable do you feel patronizing the following tourism businesses in the Plateau (whether you have been there or not)?

<b>Businesses</b>	Not Comfortable at all	Not Comfortable	Neutral	Comfortable	Extremely Comfortable
Dining at a restaurant					
Staying at a tourism accommodation such as hotels/guest houses					
Using public transport					
Visiting the following types of tourist attraction:					
Wildlife Parks					
Amusement Parks					
Resorts					
Museums					
Zoos/Gardens					

19. Which of these influenced your decision during the easing of the lockdown to patronize the following businesses?

<b>Businesses</b>	<b>Price</b>	<b>Promotion or Discounts</b>	<b>Safety and hygiene</b>	<b>Loyalty rewards</b>	<b>Facilities</b>	<b>Fear</b>	<b>Others (specify)</b>
Restaurants							
Tourism accommodation such as hotels or guest houses							
Public transport							
Wildlife parks							
Amusement parks							
Resorts							
Museums							
Zoos/Gardens							

20. Which of the following protective measures did you see at the places you may have visited?

<b>Places Visited</b>	<b>Protective measure 1</b>	<b>Protective measure 2</b>	<b>Protective measure 3</b>	<b>Protective measure 4</b>
	<b>Compulsory wearing of face mask</b>	<b>Standing or seating at least 2 metres away from others</b>	<b>Washing hands with soap and water and/or using hand sanitizer</b>	<b>Advertorials on COVID-19 safety and prevention</b>
Restaurants				
Tourism accommodation such as hotels or guest houses				
Public transport				
Wildlife parks				
Amusement parks				
Resorts				
Museums				
Zoos/Gardens				

21. How satisfied are (were) you with the protective measures in the above places visited?

Places Visited	Not satisfied at all	Not satisfied	Neutral	Satisfied	Extremely satisfied
Restaurants					
Tourism accommodation such as hotel/guest houses					
Public transport					
Wildlife parks					
Amusement parks					
Resorts					
Museums					
Zoos/Gardens					

22. What regulations were imposed by the Plateau state government during the pandemic?

**Instruction: tick as appropriate**

Phases	Total Lock down	Interstate travel ban	Intra-local government travel restriction	Ban on social gatherings	Night Curfew	Limited number of persons at all confined spaces
Phase 1 (May 4 to June 1)						
Phase 2 (June 2 to September 3)						
Phase 3 (September 4 to 10 May 2021)						

23. Can you list other regulations you know that are not mentioned in question 22?.....  
 .....  
 .....

24. Which of the regulation(s) did you effectively observe and at what phase (**choose one regulation and one phase only**)?

Phases	Regulations Total Lockdown	Interstate/intra LGA travel ban and ban on social gathering	Night curfew and Limited persons in confined spaces
Phase 1 (May 4 to June 1)			
Phase 2 (June 2 to September 3)			
Phase 3 (September 4 2020 to 10 May 2021)			

25. In what ways do you think the regulation(s) was/were helpful?.....
26. In what way(s) has COVID-19 changed tourism activities in Plateau State?  
.....  
.....
27. What new dimension(s) do you think tourism will take in Plateau State after the pandemic (post- COVID-19) (**future of tourism**)? .....
28. In the light of the new form, will domestic and proximate tourists sustain the tourism industry by supporting the economy of the Plateau State tourism industry by engaging in tourism activities in Plateau State? a. Strongly disagree [ ] b. Disagree [ ] c. Neutral [ ] d. Agree [ ] e. Strongly agree [ ]
29. Domestic and proximate tourists should patronize tourism businesses in Plateau State because this will secure jobs in the Plateau State tourism industry? a. Strongly disagree [ ] b. Disagree [ ] c. Neutral [ ] d. Agree [ ] e. Strongly agree [ ]

**Thank you so much for your time in filling this questionnaire**

## APPENDIX D CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A SURVEY (TOURISM BUSINESS MANAGER)



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### Introduction

You are humbly requested to participate in this study conducted by Mrs. Tina Odinakachi Iirmdu, a PhD candidate from the **Department of Geography and Environmental Studies at Stellenbosch University, South Africa**. This questionnaire aims to investigate the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on domestic tourist's behaviour towards tourism businesses and to measure the socio-economic impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State. It is hoped that the information obtained in this process will contribute to her doctoral dissertation and be useful in analyzing the **impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State, Nigeria**. You were selected as a potential participant in this study because of your knowledge and experience in tourism activities and tourism business which is very crucial to address the research objectives. You are highly assured that the study is purely for academic purposes and all information will be treated confidentially and participants will remain anonymous. The study method will involve a self-administered questionnaire with your permission. Be assured that responses from the questionnaire will only be accessible to the researcher and her academic supervisor. Kindly note that excerpts from the questionnaire will be used for research publications, but under no circumstances will your identity be disclosed in such publications. Thank you in anticipation for your time.

Below, kindly tick as appropriate your decision to participate in this study.

Yes, I agree to participate in this study [  ]

No, I do not agree to participate in this study [  ]

**APPENDIX E ECONOMIC IMPACT OF THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC ON TOURISM  
BUSINESSES IN PLATEAU STATE, NIGERIA**

**Questionnaire 2 (tourism business manager)**



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**Instruction: Fill and Tick as appropriate.**

**Section A: Business Demographics**

1. Business Name.....
2. Business location name.....
3. Location Coordinates: Latitude ..... Longitude.....
4. Type of business: a. Restaurant [ ] b. Tourism accommodation (Hotel/guest house) [ ] c. Tourist attraction [ ]
5. Business Ownership type: a. Government [ ] b. Private/Individual [ ] c. Others (specify) .....

**Section B: Economic impact on business**

6. How would you characterize the nature of the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on your business? a. Positive [ ] b. Negative [ ] c. Mixed Impact [ ] d. None [ ]
7. To what extent did the pandemic impact on your business? a. Not impacted at all [ ] b. Not impacted [ ] Moderately impacted [ ] c. Impacted [ ] d. e. Severely impacted [ ]
8. Which of the listed impacts describes how the pandemic impacted the economy of your business?

**Instruction: Tick or circle as many that applies**

Reduced demand/sales	Cutbacks in staff wages	Increased number of staff	Loss of revenue
Increased demand/sales	Increment in staff wages	Reduced number of staff	Increased revenue
Reduced debt	The increased cost of running the business	Cash shortage	Others (specify)
Increased debt	Reduced cost of running the business	Increased cash	

9. How would you describe the financial position of your business before the pandemic (2019)? a. Profitable [ ] b. breaking even (no net loss or gain) [ ] c. losing money [ ] d. Others [specify] .....

10. How would you now describe the financial position of your business during this pandemic period (end of 2020)? a. Profitable [ ] b. breaking even (no net loss or gain) [ ] c. losing money [ ] d. Others [specify] .....

**Section C: Effect on business operations and strategy**

11. What was the operational status of your business at the various phases of lockdown and what percentage of clients patronized your business? **NB: For Business status choose any of the option that applies:**

**Fully operational; partially operational; closed; isolation facility.**

Phase	Business status	Percentage of Patronage
Before COVID-19		
Phase 1 (May 4 to June 1)		
Phase 2 (June 2 to September 3)		
Phase 3 (September 4 2020 to 10 May 2021)		

12. From your responses on the percentage of patronage in question 22, how would you describe the level of patronage of your business during 2020? a. very low [ ] b. low [ ] c. moderate [ ] d. high [ ] e. very high [ ]
13. With the easing of lockdown, how would you describe the level of patronage of your business so far in 2021? a. very low [ ] b. low [ ] c. moderate [ ] d. high [ ] e. very high [ ]
14. What operations and strategies did you put in place to resuscitate your business after the easing of lockdown (**Chaos theory strange attractors**)?

**Instruction: Tick as appropriate**

Operation / strategy	Tick if applicable
Opportunity for clients to cancel their reservations	
The window period for Clients to ask for refunds	
Offering discounts on rates/prices to lure visitors	
Promotional campaigns	

15. What other strategies (**strange attractors**) did you introduce?.....
16. What effect did the pandemic have on your workforce? a. workers took compulsory paid leave [ ] b. Workers took compulsory non-paid leave [ ] c. Laid workers off [ ] d. Salary reduction

- e. others  (specify) .....
17. Approximately, what was your organizational staff strength before the pandemic?.....
18. How many people are employed now?.....
19. If any, how many workers have you laid off due to the negative impact of the pandemic on your business (Write number in the box)? a. Male  b. Female  c. none
20. Was there any workers' salary reduction? a. Yes  b. No
21. If Yes, what percentage of reduction?.....
22. If No, why? .....
23. During the pandemic, was your business involved in any corporate social responsibility (CSR)? a. Yes  b. No  **(If the response is Yes go to question 23.1, If the response is No, go to question 23.2**
- 23.1 If Yes, to what extent has your business been involved in corporate social responsibility (CSR) during the COVID-19 pandemic? .....
- 23.2 If No, why? .....

**Section D: Recovery of tourism business**

24. What strategy did you use to manage the economic effects of the pandemic on your business (**edge of chaos**)? a. Could not operate the business due to lack of funds  b. Put business up for sale  c. Applied to the government for a tax waiver  d. Asked for financial support from family and friends  e. Took a business loan from the bank  f. The government injected business recovery funds to resuscitate the business  g. It did not affect revenue generation at all  h. others (specify).....
25. How long do you think it will take/has taken your business to return to normal? a. Less than 3 months  b. 3 to 6 months  c. 6 months to 1 year  d. 1 to 2 years  e. >2 years
26. Following the COVID-19 crisis, have you developed any sustainability or continuity plan for your business? a. Yes  b. No
27. If Yes, what measure(s) have you taken for the future sustainability of your business (**self-organization**)?

**Instruction: Tick or circle as many as are appropriate**

Consideration of new business plan	Introduction of e-transaction	Reduction in prices of services	Withdraw from the market and discontinue business
Multiple business financing options	Introduction of new products and services	Increase in prices of services	Others (specify)



28. If your answer to question 26 is No, why?.....  
.....  
.....
29. In what ways has your business shown resilience during the pandemic period (**bifurcation**)?  
a. business survived [ ] b. business adapted [ ] c. business coped [ ] d. business collapsed [ ] e. others (specify).....
30. What is your confidence level about the future of your business surviving the COVID-19 crisis? a. not confident at all [ ] b. not confident [ ] c. neutral [ ] d. confident [ ] e. very confident [ ]
31. How optimistic are you about the returning of your business to “business as usual” or “business bouncing back”? a. extremely unoptimistic [ ] b. unoptimistic [ ] c. neutral [ ] d. optimistic [ ] e. extremely optimistic [ ]
32. Can you please explain your choice of optimism level to question 19? .....  
.....
33. Which of these has affected/hindered tourism growth and development in Plateau State the most? a. Unconducive business environment [ ] b. COVID-19 pandemic [ ] c. Tourists’ income [ ] d. Insecurity [ ] e. Lack of facilities and infrastructure [ ] f. Transportation and bad road network [ ] g. others [ ] (specify) .....

**Thank you so much for your time in filling this questionnaire**

## APPENDIX F SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW PARTICIPANT RECRUITMENT FORM



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### Introduction

You are humbly requested to participate in this study conducted by Mrs Tina Odinakachi Iirmdu, a PhD candidate from the **Department of Geography and Environmental Studies at Stellenbosch University, South Africa**. The interview aims to understand **business management practices and risk management strategies of tourism businesses post COVID-19 pandemic in Plateau State, Nigeria**. It is hoped that the information obtained in this process will contribute to her doctoral dissertation and be useful in analyzing **the impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State, Nigeria**. You were selected as a potential participant in this study because of your knowledge and experience in the tourism business which is very crucial to address the research objectives. You are highly assured that the study is purely for academic purposes and all information will be treated confidentially and participants will remain anonymous. The study method will involve an interview, which will be recorded only with your permission. Be assured that the tapes and transcribed text will only be accessible to the researcher and her academic supervisor. Kindly note that excerpts from the interview will be used for research publications, but under no circumstances will your identity be disclosed in such publications. **By making your phone number available to me, you agree to participate in this study**. I will contact you personally to take part in this research to make further arrangements for the interview date and time at your business premises.

Thank you.

Tina Odinakachi Iirmdu

+2348033519981

## APPENDIX G SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR MANAGERS OF RESTAURANTS, HOTELS AND TOURIST ATTRACTIONS ON BUSINESS MANAGEMENT PRACTICES AND RISK MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES OF THEIR BUSINESSES



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### Section one: Getting to know the interviewee

1. Who owns this business? Government, Private/Individual, or public (government)-private partnership (PPP)?
2. What is your position in this organization?
3. How long have you been working for this organization irrespective of your position now?
4. How long have you been working for this organization in your current position?

### Section two: Tourists behaviour towards tourism businesses during the COVID-19 pandemic

5. Have you observed any difference in tourist's behaviour towards tourism businesses during the pandemic period?
6. How would you describe tourists' behaviour towards tourism businesses during the pandemic period?
7. What do you think is the cause of the attitudinal change?

### Section three: Economic impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses

8. How did the pandemic affect the economy and revenue generation of your business (**edge of chaos**)?
9. What major challenges did your business face (losing control/collapsing) because of the impact of the pandemic (**edge of chaos and Bifurcation**)?
10. How did the business overcome these challenges (resilience, adaptation, breakdown)? Probe to know how this stage was managed (**Bifurcation**)?

### Section four: Business management practices of tourism businesses (restaurants, hotels and tourist attractions)

11. Are there government policies, interventions, or recovery plans to support and overcome the potential negative impact(s) of the pandemic on tourism businesses?
12. Did your business benefit from any of the government recovery funds?
13. Who are the recovery funds meant for?
14. How was the recovery fund application procedure?
15. What did you do with the funds?
16. Did you overhaul your human resources, business goals, and operational activities in managing your business (**self-organization**)?
17. In what ways and how did you overhaul?
18. Have you or your employees ever attended risk management training, seminars and workshops?
19. If No, probe to find out if there are plans to attend any in the future based on the recent health crisis and the impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses.

20. Based on the “new normal” and to reduce physical contacts, are their plans to use the contactless payment for your business?
21. Did you introduce or reduce your campaign(s) or promotional costs?
22. If an introduction was made, what campaign(s) or promotion(s) have been carried out to lure customers and tourists to patronize your business (**strange attractors**)?
23. If reduction in campaign(s) or promotion(s) has been made, what are the reasons for reduction?
24. How have the actions in questions 21 and 22 above impact the patronage by customers (**brand loyalty or lock-in effect**)?
25. What are your views or opinions concerning the recovery of tourism businesses after the pandemic?
26. In what way(s) has the pandemic changed tourism activities in Plateau State?
27. What new dimension(s) do you think tourism will take in Plateau State after the pandemic (Post- COVID-19)?

**Section five: Risk management strategies of tourism businesses (hotels, restaurants, and tourist attractions)**

28. Prior to the pandemic did you envisage or prepare for any crisis?
29. During the pandemic did you introduce written, audio, or video copies of safety and risk management plans or guidelines for your business?
30. If yes, probe to find out the safety and risk management plans or guidelines put in place
31. Are they in line with the State government's protocols and guidelines for reopening tourism businesses?
32. What policy changes do you expect the government to introduce to sustain tourism businesses?
33. Do you have a designated COVID-19 risk management plan and team and what mechanism(s) have you put in place to constantly evaluate your COVID-19 risk management plan?
34. What communication tools and channels do you use to disseminate updated information on the safety of your business?
35. What are your views on media engagement in “building back better tourism businesses” during and post the pandemic?
36. What key lessons have you learned from the pandemic’s impact on your business?

Are there any further remarks or contributions you would want to make?

**End of interview.**

**Thank you so much for your time**

**APPENDIX H RESEARCH RECRUITMENT AND CONFIDENTIALITY FORM  
(PSYCHOLOGIST/COUNSELLOR)**



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You are humbly requested to participate as a Psychologist/Counsellor in this study conducted by Mrs Tina Odinakachi Iirndu, a PhD candidate from the **Department of Geography and Environmental Studies at Stellenbosch University, South Africa**. This study aims to investigate the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State. It is hoped that the information obtained in the process of fieldwork will contribute to her doctoral dissertation and be useful in analyzing the **impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State, Nigeria**. You have been selected as a Psychologist/Counsellor in this study because of your knowledge and experience in providing emotional and psychological support during fieldwork which is very crucial to address the research objectives of this study. The study is purely for academic purposes and all information **MUST** be treated with utmost confidentiality protecting the identity of all research participants. Under no circumstances shall the identity of research participants be disclosed anywhere or in any discussion.

Below, kindly append your signature as a decision to participate in this study adhering strictly to the confidentiality rules.

Name of research Psychologist/Counsellor:.....

Signature and date:.....

**APPENDIX I RESEARCH RECRUITMENT AND CONFIDENTIALITY FORM  
(RESEARCH/FIELD ASSISTANTS)**



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You are humbly requested to participate as a research assistant in this study conducted by Mrs Tina Odinakachi Iirmdu, a PhD candidate from the **Department of Geography and Environmental Studies at Stellenbosch University, South Africa**. This study aims to investigate the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State. It is hoped that the information obtained in the process of fieldwork will contribute to her doctoral dissertation and be useful in analyzing the **impact of the pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State, Nigeria**. You have been selected as a research assistant in this study because of your knowledge and experience in fieldwork which is very crucial to address the research objectives of this study. The study is purely for academic purposes and all information **MUST** be treated with utmost confidentiality protecting the identity of all research participants. Under no circumstances shall the identity of research participants be disclosed anywhere or in any discussion.

Below, kindly append your signature as a decision to participate in this study adhering strictly to the confidentiality rules.

Name of research assistant : .....

Signature and date: .....

## APPENDIX J RESEARCH APPROVAL NOTICE

New application



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9 December 2020

Project number: 18978

Project Title: A chaos theory approach to understanding the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on tourism businesses in Plateau State, Nigeria

Dear Mrs Tina Iirndu

Your response to stipulations submitted on 2 December 2020 was reviewed and approved by the REC: Social, Behavioural and Education Research (REC: SBE).

Please note below expiration date of this approved submission:

### **Ethics approval period:**

**Protocol approval date (Humanities) Protocol expiration date (Humanities)** 19 November 2020 18 November 2021

### **GENERAL REC COMMENTS PERTAINING TO THIS PROJECT:**

#### **INVESTIGATOR RESPONSIBILITIES**

Please take note of the General Investigator Responsibilities attached to this letter. You may commence with your research after complying fully with these guidelines.

**If the researcher deviates in any way from the proposal approved by the REC: SBE, the researcher must notify the REC of these changes.**

Please use your SU project number (18978) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your project.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

#### **CONTINUATION OF PROJECTS AFTER REC APPROVAL PERIOD**

You are required to submit a progress report to the REC: SBE before the approval period has expired if a continuation of ethics approval is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary).

Once you have completed your research, you are required to submit a final report to the REC: SBE for review.

If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at [cgraham@sun.ac.za](mailto:cgraham@sun.ac.za).

Sincerely,

Clarissa Graham

REC Coordinator: Research Ethics Committee: Social, Behavioral and Education Research

## Principal Investigator Responsibilities Protection of Human Research Participants

As soon as Research Ethics Committee approval is confirmed by the REC, the principal investigator (PI) is responsible for the following:

**Conducting the Research:** The PI is responsible for making sure that the research is conducted according to the REC-approved research protocol. The PI is jointly responsible for the conduct of co-investigators and any research staff involved with this research.

The PI must ensure that the research is conducted according to the recognised standards of their research field/discipline and according to the principles and standards of ethical research and responsible research conduct.

**Participant Enrolment:** The PI may not recruit or enrol participants unless the protocol for recruitment is approved by the REC. Recruitment and data collection activities must cease after the expiration date of REC approval. All recruitment materials must be approved by the REC prior to their use.

**Informed Consent:** The PI is responsible for obtaining and documenting affirmative informed consent using **only** the REC-approved consent documents/process, and for ensuring that no participants are involved in research prior to obtaining their affirmative informed consent. The PI must give all participants copies of the signed informed consent documents, where required. The PI must keep the originals in a secured, REC-approved location for at least five (5) years after the research is complete.

**Continuing Review:** The REC must review and approve all REC-approved research proposals at intervals appropriate to the degree of risk but not less than once per year. There is **no grace period**. Prior to the date on which the REC approval of the research expires, **it is the PI's responsibility to submit the progress report in a timely fashion to ensure a lapse in REC approval does not occur**. Once REC approval of your research lapses, all research activities must cease, and contact must be made with the REC immediately.

**Amendments and Changes:** Any planned changes to any aspect of the research (such as research design, procedures, participant population, informed consent document, instruments, surveys or recruiting material, etc.), must be submitted to the REC for review and approval before implementation. Amendments may not be initiated without first obtaining written REC approval. The **only exception** is when it is necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to participants and the REC should be immediately informed of this necessity.

**Adverse or Unanticipated Events:** Any serious adverse events, participant complaints, and all unanticipated problems that involve risks to participants or others, as well as any research-related injuries, occurring at this institution or at other performance sites must be reported to the REC within **five (5) days** of discovery of the incident. The PI must also report any instances of serious or continuing problems, or non-compliance with the RECs requirements for protecting human research participants.

**Research Record Keeping:** The PI must keep the following research-related records, at a minimum, in a secure location for a minimum of five years: the REC approved research proposal and all amendments; all informed consent documents; recruiting materials; continuing review reports; adverse or unanticipated events; and all correspondence and approvals from the REC.

**Provision of Counselling or emergency support:** When a dedicated counsellor or a psychologist provides support to a participant without prior REC review and approval, to the extent permitted by law, such activities will not be recognised as research nor the data used in support of research. Such cases should be indicated in the progress report or final report.

**Final reports:** When the research is completed (no further participant enrolment, interactions or interventions), the PI must submit a Final Report to the REC to close the study.

**On-Site Evaluations, Inspections, or Audits:** If the researcher is notified that the research will be reviewed or audited by the sponsor or any other external agency or any internal group, the PI must inform the REC immediately of the impending audit/evaluation.



**APPENDIX K SURVEYED TOURISM BUSINESSES AND THEIR COORDINATES**

<b>S/N</b>	<b>BUSINESS NAME</b>	<b>EASTS</b>	<b>NORTH</b>	<b>Type</b>
1	Astoria	488652	1087455	Hotel or guest house
2	Avalon Suites	487543	1090530	Hotel or guest house
3	Coast To Coast Hotel	487601	1096905	Hotel or guest house
4	Coomex International Hotel Ltd	485509	1092040	Hotel or guest house
5	Crest Hotel and Gardens	487103	1091583	Hotel or guest house
6	Crispan Apartments	487722	1088328	Hotel or guest house
7	De Bridge Ville	486980	1093694	Hotel or guest house
8	Decent Ladies Hotel	488123	1090468	Hotel or guest house
9	Deluxe Green Park Hotel	487610	1096982	Hotel or guest house
10	Dimike Guest House	486308	1097400	Hotel or guest house
11	Eagle Valley Royal Hotel Ltd	487347	1096888	Hotel or guest house
12	Elim-Top Suites Jos	487727	1088343	Hotel or guest house
13	Emerald Hotel	485400	1089705	Hotel or guest house
14	Febuna Hotel	486993	1097476	Hotel or guest house
15	Fina Hotel	485373	1099156	Hotel or guest house
16	Hadassah Suite	488555	1090360	Hotel or guest house
17	Hotel De Cardamon	487213	1096595	Hotel or guest house
18	Hotel Roniicon Ltd	488729	1090457	Hotel or guest house
19	Hotel Samaritan	486739	1085777	Hotel or guest house
20	Hotel Sumiram and Green Restaurant	486566	1093393	Hotel or guest house
21	Jikrit Ultimate Suites Limited	488156	1099833	Hotel or guest house
22	Kaatman Hotel	487138	1086266	Hotel or guest house
23	Ken Palace Hotel	486552	1095073	Hotel or guest house
24	Kiswig Suites	487025	1094384	Hotel or guest house
25	Lashom Suites	485065	1089732	Hotel or guest house
26	Limiro View Guest Lodge	486932	1095632	Hotel or guest house
27	Lomay International Hotel Jos	484594	1086727	Hotel or guest house
28	Mamamia Hotel	486640	1093766	Hotel or guest house
29	Mandela Guest House	487515	1096976	Hotel or guest house
30	Maria's Lodge	487242	1096861	Hotel or guest house

31	Mope Hotel	485400	1089705	Hotel or guest house
32	Mountains Green Hotel	485404	1093119	Hotel or guest house
33	New Era Hotel	486120	1092792	Hotel or guest house
34	Novel Suites and Resort Ltd	488001	1087322	Hotel or guest house
35	Plateau Hotel	486553	1095081	Hotel or guest house
36	Popular Hotel	487626	1096997	Hotel or guest house
37	Reo-Devotion Hotel	485396	1089708	Hotel or guest house
38	Samora Hotel Jos	487190	1097426	Hotel or guest house
39	Santa Rosa Hotel	485609	1089082	Hotel or guest house
40	Semshak Hotel	488162	1099846	Hotel or guest house
41	Sharna Hotel	488155	1099848	Hotel or guest house
42	Steffan Hotel and Suites	487727	1088343	Hotel or guest house
43	Summary Hotel	487190	1097426	Hotel or guest house
44	Tende Hotel	485988	1092257	Hotel or guest house
45	Three Angels City Apartment and Suites	488103	1088570	Hotel or guest house
46	Treasures Inn	487459	1096290	Hotel or guest house
47	Valada Hotels and Resorts Ltd	486363	1094330	Hotel or guest house
48	Vanya Hotel	487252	1097016	Hotel or guest house
49	Graffiti Guest Inn	482212	1097040	Hotel or guest house
50	Foundation Guest House	482267	1097056	Hotel or guest house
51	Hotel El-Kasim	482466	1097128	Hotel or guest house
52	Char-Rah Lodge	482863	1090678	Hotel or guest house
53	Hbc Resort	482889	1078410	Hotel or guest house
54	Kwata Guest House	483079	1079502	Hotel or guest house
55	Bgk Guest Inn	483194	1078841	Hotel or guest house
56	Benbin Guest House	484162	1093099	Hotel or guest house
57	Three Hills Apartment and Hangout	484162	1089690	Hotel or guest house
58	Nigerian Defense Academy Guest Inn	484191	1079686	Hotel or guest house
59	Murna Hotel	484224	1097442	Hotel or guest house
60	El Cortez Hotel	484259	1103277	Hotel or guest house
61	Jonggrand Hotel	484383	1080703	Hotel or guest house
62	De Splendor Hotel	484454	1087680	Hotel or guest house
63	Frank Royal Palace Hotel	484489	1081665	Hotel or guest house
64	Rockland Motel	484491	1079817	Hotel or guest house

65	Zuma Lodge	484550	1098625	Hotel or guest house
66	Elephant Guest Inn	484654	1090440	Hotel or guest house
67	Embrace Guest Inn	484738	1090433	Hotel or guest house
68	Garden Palace Hotel	484939	1098596	Hotel or guest house
69	De Lapazz Guest Inn	485015	1098551	Hotel or guest house
70	Ojibay Lounge Bar	485293	1085203	Hotel or guest house
71	Ornate Pavalion	485299	1099301	Hotel or guest house
72	Citrus Hotel	485332	1084904	Hotel or guest house
73	Jos Hotel	485708	1098133	Hotel or guest house
74	Effizy Lodge	485754	1095113	Hotel or guest house
75	Upu Guest Inn	485774	1095063	Hotel or guest house
76	Kabong Guest House	485824	1097287	Hotel or guest house
77	Kayrocks Hotel	485865	1094884	Hotel or guest house
78	Hotel Lakate	485988	1094904	Hotel or guest house
79	People's Hotel	486106	1099069	Hotel or guest house
80	Gh Luxury Suites	486194	1098654	Hotel or guest house
81	De-Koms Royal Suite	486205	1094891	Hotel or guest house
82	Fajib Hotel	486253	1091335	Hotel or guest house
83	City Lodge Hotel	486271	1094173	Hotel or guest house
84	Summit Hotel	486288	1097403	Hotel or guest house
85	Valleine Lounge and Guest	486288	1085405	Hotel or guest house
86	Lamonde Hotel	486362	1079344	Hotel or guest house
87	Funk Lounge Bar	486420	1082401	Hotel or guest house
88	Global View Hotel	486454	1085565	Hotel or guest house
89	Chillers Potacabin	486529	1091171	Hotel or guest house
90	Franzy Suite And Lounge	486536	1095116	Hotel or guest house
91	Fox Hotel	486641	1092621	Hotel or guest house
92	Rail View Hotel	486679	1092625	Hotel or guest house
93	Goodlife Guest Inn	486731	1094963	Hotel or guest house
94	Hill Station Hotel	486741	1095405	Hotel or guest house
95	TCNN Guest Inn	486859	1082834	Hotel or guest house
96	Paulo Guest Inn	486879	1098107	Hotel or guest house
97	Trophy Guest Inn	486961	1098156	Hotel or guest house
98	Silk Suite	487042	1088676	Hotel or guest house

99	Singpo City Hotel	487042	1088434	Hotel or guest house
100	Tona Ville	487057	1096737	Hotel or guest house
101	Plateau Central Hotel	487080	1097806	Hotel or guest house
102	The Green Belt	487255	1096940	Hotel or guest house
103	Universal Hotel and Festival	487264	1096739	Hotel or guest house
104	Moon Shine Hotel	487272	1098083	Hotel or guest house
105	Mugambo Suites	487295	1097255	Hotel or guest house
106	Chob Guest House	487341	1097543	Hotel or guest house
107	Cryson Luxury Apartment	487668	1088288	Hotel or guest house
108	Diamond Hotel	487711	1097028	Hotel or guest house
109	Yanchi Hotel	487712	1097076	Hotel or guest house
110	Jenny's Apartment and Suit	487732	1082863	Hotel or guest house
111	Bonitas Luxury Apartment	487893	1087236	Hotel or guest house
112	Mmoi Hotel	488324	1093991	Hotel or guest house
113	Red Sea Guest House	488324	1093713	Hotel or guest house
114	Ranadanah Hotel	488646	1094310	Hotel or guest house
115	Maina Hotel	488648	1094076	Hotel or guest house
116	Mb Hotel	488661	1094507	Hotel or guest house
117	I Explore Arena	488887	1087558	Hotel or guest house
118	Eldibison Guest House	488927	1099460	Hotel or guest house
119	Golf Club Rayfield	488931	1087496	Hotel or guest house
120	Spring Valley	489052	1090495	Hotel or guest house
121	Eliel Centre	489118	1090481	Hotel or guest house
122	Melody Guest Inn	489555	1097916	Hotel or guest house
123	Unijos Staff Club	489578	1099788	Hotel or guest house
124	29 Arise Hotel	489652	1086421	Hotel or guest house
125	Eden Hotel	489830	1094343	Hotel or guest house
126	Mbarikam Lodge	489835	1098694	Hotel or guest house
127	Jerotel Hotel	489853	1098544	Hotel or guest house
128	Vonke	490212	1094076	Hotel or guest house
129	GTJ Hotel	490518	1096816	Hotel or guest house
130	Gimbiya Suites	491497	1098074	Hotel or guest house
131	Green Castle Suite	492529	1087836	Hotel or guest house
132	Awazi Hotel	495592	1098796	Hotel or guest house

133	Chil Cherry Eatery	485102	1100783	Restaurant
134	Clay City Restaurant	487458	1095878	Restaurant
135	De Groove (Genesis) Restaurant	487462	1096279	Restaurant
136	Decency Restaurant	487942	1095619	Restaurant
137	Dera Kitchen	485400	1089705	Restaurant
138	Drogba's Palace Restaurant	486056	1092365	Restaurant
139	Elysar Oriental Restaurant	486709	1095458	Restaurant
140	Food Matters Cafeteria	487593	1091054	Restaurant
141	Garden Chinese & Continental Restaurant	487410	1095564	Restaurant
142	Gwamna Cuisines	488119	1099839	Restaurant
143	Jenny Kitchen	485400	1088234	Restaurant
144	JW's Restaurant	488736	1087594	Restaurant
145	Kakakys KITCHEN	487533	1086441	Restaurant
146	Lady G Restaurant	485491	1098961	Restaurant
147	Progressive Restaurant	485782	1090776	Restaurant
148	Santi Home Of Wellness	487886	1096053	Restaurant
149	Simple Restaurant and Bar	485503	1098939	Restaurant
150	Southern Fried Chicken	487827	1096052	Restaurant
151	The New Beach Restaurant	487952	1095581	Restaurant
152	The Soup Cafe	486771	1088553	Restaurant
153	The Stop Food and Hospitality Ltd	489109	1089379	Restaurant
154	Triple H Fast Food	484520	1100819	Restaurant
155	Vicky Classic Restaurant	487648	1096973	Restaurant
156	Victory Restaurant	485658	1098181	Restaurant
157	La Nchong Restaurant and Catering Service	483240	1079139	Restaurant
158	Vai Su Shi Bar	483768	1079426	Restaurant
159	Dinah Restaurant	483845	1083482	Restaurant
160	Orange Spot Bar and Restaurant	483915	1089296	Restaurant
161	Too Nice Restaurant and Bar	484217	1082050	Restaurant
162	Computer Bar	484636	1081521	Restaurant
163	Night Shade Bar	484658	1081470	Restaurant
164	Burkingham Restaurant and Bar	484675	1083515	Restaurant
165	Claris Restaurant and Bar	484694	1080213	Restaurant
166	Petca Food and Grill	484699	1080088	Restaurant

167	Nabiss Restaurant	484708	1080193	Restaurant
168	Fire Service Restaurant	484714	1080686	Restaurant
169	Ameh's Spot Bar	484967	1087377	Restaurant
170	Madam Ify Restaurant	485288	1098702	Restaurant
171	Degreat Bar and Restaurant	485311	1084849	Restaurant
172	Estera Restaurant	485333	1084853	Restaurant
173	Abis Kitchen	485438	1090230	Restaurant
174	Tads Kitchen	485494	1090093	Restaurant
175	H And H Kitchen	485509	1090021	Restaurant
176	The Cook House	485527	1090230	Restaurant
177	Food Boss Restaurant	485854	1088501	Restaurant
178	Tasty Fingers	485932	1091197	Restaurant
179	Karibajo Restaurant and Fast Food	485959	1091938	Restaurant
180	Calabar Restaurant	486627	1081521	Restaurant
181	Avis Restaurant	486208	1092194	Restaurant
182	Barcardi Restaurant	487570	1090021	Restaurant
183	Happy Restaurant	486590	1088576	Restaurant
184	Esther Bar	486735	1095400	Restaurant
185	Plisla Kitchen and Restaurant	487199	1095261	Restaurant
186	DE-NET Café Restaurant	487505	1095930	Restaurant
187	De Billy's Food	487697	1097124	Restaurant
188	Ask Me Restaurant	488082	1091710	Restaurant
189	A1 Restaurant	488173	1093918	Restaurant
190	Fast Fries Diner and Restaurant	488182	1094260	Restaurant
191	3d Restaurant	488207	1097806	Restaurant
192	Anne Breeze Restaurant	488308	1086878	Restaurant
193	KNL Caffee	490031	1094090	Restaurant
194	Veidee Rock Garden Restaurant	490293	1095305	Restaurant
195	Elsee Garden & Tourist Centre	487648	1095495	Tourist Attraction
196	Jos National Museum	487557	1095879	Tourist Attraction
197	Jos Wildlife Park	483559	1092903	Tourist Attraction
198	Jos Zoological Garden	487483	1095952	Tourist Attraction
199	Just Relax Garden	487420	1095600	Tourist Attraction
200	Korret Hamlet Amusement Park	483805	1089687	Tourist Attraction

201	Mees Palace Amusement Park	490028	1087817	Tourist Attraction
202	Rayfield Holiday Resort	490512	1087832	Tourist Attraction
203	Solomon Lar Amusement Park	484488	1091369	Tourist Attraction
204	Thrills Mini Fun Park	484969	1088597	Tourist Attraction
205	Langfield Leisure Park	486271	1085149	Tourist Attraction
206	Jos City Park	487213	1086243	Tourist Attraction
207	Kee Garden	487420	1095252	Tourist Attraction
208	Millenium Village Garden	488141	1086952	Tourist Attraction
209	Mega Park	489297	1100391	Tourist Attraction