



**UNIVERSITY OF
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**TOURISM DISASTERS, CRISES AND THE RISK-FEAR NEXUS:
TOURISTS' PERCEPTIONS OF DURBAN AS A TOURISM
DESTINATION**

BY

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**A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (PHD) IN
CULTURAL AND HERITAGE TOURISM**

**COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES
SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL**

06 May 2019


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Acknowledgements

I would like to thank the following for the unwavering support and roles during my research:

Praise be unto God who bestowed His everlasting grace on me during my study – the strength, courage and good health would forever be treasured.

Professor Joram Ndlovu, my supervisor, for his relentless support and guidance throughout my research. He never got tired of encouraging me to work hard up to the end.

My family and siblings who supported me through thick and thin. You encouraged me to toil till the end of my study. Thank you heartily for your love, support and prayers. I could not ask for more as you made me feel abundantly loved and special.

The National Department of Tourism (NDT) in Pretoria – the financial support you gave me added more impetus to the progress of my study.

Lastly but not least, the University of KwaZulu-Natal's Capacity Development Programme (UCDP) for financial support to expedite data collection, editing of my thesis, and conference attendance.

Dedication

I, posthumously, dedicate this achievement to my late parents, Ramatlapeng Petrus and Bokholane Dina Phoofolo. You will forever be entrenched in my heart, and fondly remembered.

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ABSTRACT

Tourism is an important economic sector in many countries worldwide. Many governments are placing a higher priority on tourism development because it leads to increased foreign exchange income and creates employment opportunities. However, the tourism sector is prone to both natural (floods, drought, diseases) and man-made (crime, unemployment, poverty, war, terrorism) disasters, crises and risks which invariably affect not only the tourists but the functionality, sustainability and competitiveness of a destination. The cumulative impact of disasters, crises and risks can result in the death of people, destruction of fauna and flora, displacement and suffering of people. Other effects include, the destruction of human settlements, physical infrastructure such as roads, railway lines and habitats of animals. The prevalence of disasters, crises and the risk can affect tourists' travelling patterns and destination choices. Thus, rendering some places unsafe and unattractive.

The aim of the study was to examine stakeholders' perceptions regarding crises, risk responses and other factors that accentuate the vulnerability of tourists and destinations to a myriad of problems. The study sought to analyse the tourists' perceptions on the relationship between tourism disasters and risk-fear nexus in Durban. The main objectives were to assess the potential disasters, crises and risks which tourists are exposed to while in Durban, the subsequent impacts of such disasters, and the possible disaster mitigation measures. In this study, the mobility, disaster, risk-perception theories and the model of international tourism decision-making process were used to interrogate the disaster-risk discourse. The study utilized a mixed method approach which enabled the researcher to unpack disasters, crises and risks 'through the eyes' of tourists and key informants in order to gain a thorough understanding of the dynamics concerned. Interviews were conducted with 399 tourists who visited Phezulu Cultural Village, Cabana Beach Resort and Botanical Gardens in Durban.

The results were then analyzed SPSS. The results revealed that natural disasters such as floods, drought, and diseases pose a serious threat to the tourists and the tourism sector in the country. Consequently, that has an impact on the image and sustainability of the destination. The results show that man-made disasters, crises and risks like xenophobia, political instability, unemployment and poverty were the most prevalent. Therefore a concerted effort must be taken to prepare for crises and resort to recovery and reduction as some measures to mitigate them. Furthermore, the dynamic nature of disasters, crises and risks require a holistic approach which views the situation from "a wide sweep of contexts, from temporal and spatial, historical, political, economic, cultural, to social and personal. Finally, the study recommends engendering community resilience as a key measure in managing disaster. Further systematic research must be conducted to analyse the factors which increase the vulnerability of tourists to disasters, crises and risks, and to explore various ways of enhancing mitigation measures.

Key words: disasters, crises, risks, destination image, destination sustainability, destination competitiveness.

List of Abbreviations

AIDS – Acquired Immuno-Deficiency Syndrome

FR– French

SP – Spanish

PORT – Portuguese

SARS – Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome

USA – United States of America

UNISDR – United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Risk Reduction

SMME – Small medium and micro enterprises

PI – Political instability

W.T.O. – World Tourism Organisation

WHO – World Health Organisation

H5N1 – Influenza A Virus Subtype H5N1

DMO – Destination Management Officers

ITT – Information Integration Theory

PMT – Protection Motivation Theory

GDP – Gross Domestic Product

TDM – Tourism Destination Managers

UDI – Unilateral Declaration of Independence

FIFA – Federation of International Football Association

IIHF – International Ice Hockey Federation

GM – Genetically Modified

TLC – Technologically Less Developed Country

IPCC – Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change

KRTA – Katherine Regional Tourism Association

CBD – Central Business District

TRICON – Tourism Related Industry Conference

OAS – Organisation of American States

GEF – Global Environment Facility

O & M – Operations and Maintenance

TIPS – Trade & Industrial Policy Strategies

IMO – International Maritime Organisation

SADC – Southern African Development Countries

IFRC – The International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies

CSA – Cyber Security Awareness

ATM – Automatic Teller Machine

NCSP – National Cyber Security Policy

CSIR – Council for Scientific & Industrial Research

RTMC – Road Traffic Management Corporation

CSVR – Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation

SAPS – South African Police Services

ESCOM – Electricity Supply Commission

NIP – National Infrastructure Plan

CCB – Civil Cooperation Bureau

SANDF – South African National Defence Force

PAC – Pan Africanist Congress

ANC – African National Congress

FDI – Foreign Direct Investment

AMCU – Association of Mineworkers and Construction Union

DA – Democratic Alliance

NUMSA – National Union of Metal Workers South Africa

COSATU – Congress of South African Trade Unions

ICT – Inter Communication Technology

ACST – African Centre for the Study and Research on Terrorism

AU – African Union

CFT – Combating of the Financing of Terror

FIU – Financial Intelligence Unions

INTERPOL – International Criminal Police Organisation

WEF – World Economic Forum

PFMA – Public Finance Management Act

MFMA – Municipal Finance Management Act

NDP – National Development Plan

NEHAWU – National Education and Health Allied Workers Union

MSA – Municipal Systems Act

IFP – Inkatha Freedom Party

EFF – Economic Freedom Fighters

DENEL – South African State-Owned Aerospace and Defence Technology Conglomerate

PRASA – Public Rail Agency of South Africa

SAA – South African Airways

SOE – State Owned Enterprise

SABC – South African Broadcasting Corporation

SAT – South African Tourism

ITT – Information Integration Theory

PMT – Protection Motivation Theory

SARS – Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome

SPSS – Statistical Packages for Social Sciences

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the topic and gives a detailed explanation of the research problem, defining and explaining tourism disasters, crises, and the risk-fear nexus, in the context of how tourists perceive Durban as a tourism destination. It clarifies the interconnectedness between the concepts, and how they reflect the relationship between nature and society. Furthermore, the chapter provides the rationale for the study, the limitations of the previous studies in relation to disaster discourse, tourists' perceptions, and outlines the current study's own contribution to the existing body of knowledge. It reveals the objectives that anchor this study, and delineate the structure of the research as presented in subsequent chapters. Finally, new definitions and concepts related to the study are also introduced so as to enhance easy understanding of the subject under consideration.

1.2 Background

Tourism is an important economic sector in many countries worldwide. Many governments are placing a higher priority on tourism development, because it leads to increased foreign exchange income, and creates employment opportunities (Croucamp and Hind, 2013). Tourism development has a direct effect on gross domestic product (GDP), and advances economic growth (Lee and Chang, 2008). The World Tourism Organisation (1998) stresses the fact that international travel will increase from 760 million trips per annum to 1,5 billion trips between 2004 and 2020. The 2020 total will be 15 billion trips per annum, if domestic trips are included. This organisation maintains that globally, tourism is a \$625-billion sector, and the single largest non-government economic sector in the world (World Tourism Organisation, 2005). The

tourism industry has become increasingly globalised, and this has led to a fast expansion of tourism businesses on a global scale, as market share and profitability expand (Madininos-Vassiliadis, 2008). Pforr (2006) attributes the enormous tourism growth to technological advancement in sectors such as transportation, where the internet has added all the more impetus.

According to Jessop (1999), processes such as globalisation are chaotic and complex, and have led to a situation whereby businesses, including the tourism sector, are opened up to a wide set of global disasters, risks and crises. Tourism is often described as a fragile industry, in the sense that demand for travel is highly susceptible to disasters, crises and risks, such as wars, outbreaks of deadly contagious diseases, currency instability, energy crises, natural disasters (floods and cyclones), bomb explosions, train crashes, ship wreckages, plane crashes, and crime (Goodrich, 2002; Blake and Sinclair, 2003; Esner, 2003, Cornellsen, 2006, Wakeford, 2006; Maditinos-Vassiliadis, 2008). This puts increasing pressure on the tourism managers and planners to consider the impact of disasters, crises and risks on the industry, and to develop strategies to deal with their impacts with a view to protect the industry and society in general (Wakeford, 2006; Maditinos et al, 2008). Consequently, certain scholars in disaster studies (Baggio and Sainaghi, 2011) maintain that these problems have induced a paradigm shift from ‘linear thinking’ to a complex system science perspective. As the triggering events posited above impact on the system (Baggio and Sainaghi, 2011), they do not only displace it, but affect the tourists as well. Disasters, crises and risks shape tourists’ perceptions of destinations, and this renders some places either suitable or unsuitable for visitation.

Studies have shown that disasters have negative impact on the destination, where they are seen as a “disruption or rupture of the normal social order, so severe that it requires external assistance” (Nagai, 2012:7). Most researchers explain disasters in the context of vulnerability

and exposure, which an acute lack of information in communities can produce (Forsyth, 2005; Hallgate and Przyluski, 2010:2). In South Africa, there a number of these events that are concentrated in time and space, in which a community experiences severe danger and disruption of its essential functions. Usually these events are accompanied by widespread human, material or environmental losses, which often exceed the ability of the community to cope without external intervention. The concept, 'disaster' has become linked to the probability of such occurrences from the 1990's onwards, where after disaster risk was shaped as an analytical concept (Blaikie, Cannon, Davis and Wisner (1994). The probability of the occurrence of disaster is closely related to those intrinsic factors that affect society's development, in particular, to vulnerability to hazards. Disaster is a given situation, which is tangible and measurable, while disaster risk does not exist, but implies its future probability of occurrence. Disaster is concerned with the past, while risks pertain to the future, referring to that threat which is yet to unfold. Aragon-Durand (2009) argues that risk and in extension, disaster risk can only be inferred from past events and projected onto the future by considering current contextual factors such as those that are afflicting the society. The probability of disaster risk is determined by the society's vulnerability to natural, technological, or anthropogenic phenomena (Aragon-Durand, 2009).

Smith (1996) maintains that disasters are likely to accelerate changes that were underway before their actual occurrence. To this effect, Nagai (2012) adds that disasters have a possibility to reveal vulnerabilities that may well have existed in a given society for a long time preceding. The definition of disaster reveals that it is a situation in which external assistance is needed. The other main reasons will be elaborated on later in this chapter. The definition of disasters, crises, and risks is inextricably linked to vulnerabilities, and this will be discussed at length in the subsequent section, in which I present a literature review.

Brauch (2011:73) defines vulnerability as “the characteristics of a person or group in terms of their capacity to anticipate, cope with, resist, and recover from the impact of a natural hazard. It means someone’s life and livelihood is put at risk by a discrete and identifiable event in nature or society. It refers to the most vulnerable ones who find it difficult to reconstruct their livelihood following disasters”. Simply put, tourism destinations which cannot prepare well in advance for certain disasters and crises, and recover from the impact thereof such that they can resume their normal operations, efficiency, sustainability, profitability and competitiveness, are vulnerable. It is such destinations which may end up losing a noticeable share of the tourist market.

According to Nathan (2009), vulnerability has two main features, namely: exposure, and insufficient capacities. These features can further be classified into different sub-categories. For instance, insufficient capacities to prevent, prepare for, face and cope with hazards and disasters can manifest as: physical weakness, legal vulnerability, political, socio-economic, psychological, and cultural vulnerability.

Baker (2009) maintains that the definitions of disasters ought not to be misconstrued as mutually exclusive, and Perry (2007) argues that the definitions are important, because the way the disaster is defined affects or determines resource allocation. Baker (2009) argues that if it is seen as a social process, recovery – and by extension resources to assist those affected - may be assigned to the local authority; whereas if it is viewed as a natural event to be managed, then resources allocation refers to the competence of the state or national government. Hoffman and Oliver-Smith (1999) and Wisner (2004) indicate that disasters have the potential to affect every sphere of life – be it biological, environmental, social, economic, and material. They occur at

the intersection of natural and social phenomenon (Wisner et al., 2004). Tourism crises are worthy of being defined, and their contextual definition is provided hereunder.

They can be defined as “the potential but unprecedented outcome of management failures, which are primarily concerned with events that may unfold in future as a result of human action or inaction causing a particular event (Prideaux, Laws and Faulkner, 2003:78). The classic examples of crises include the outbreak of the foot and mouth disease in the United Kingdom (UK), the Exxon Valdez oil tanker wreck, the spread of the Acquired Immuno Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS), as well as the proliferation of terrorism and the prospect of nuclear war.

Maaiah (2014) argues that crises affect all domestic institutions, including professional workers, who have consequently become more concerned about their impact. They have the potential to economically threaten, weaken, or destroy the competitiveness of tourist destinations. Hurricanes, earthquakes, fires, droughts, storms, and landslides constitute some of the crises affecting tourists and destinations adversely (ibid.3). As crises occur, there is a significant reduction in tourists, hotel bookings, cultural activities, sports and services. Maaiah (2014) further adds that political problems and terrorism (which are anthropogenic in nature) affect the safety of tourists, and that media coverage (Cohen and Cohen, 2012; Sonmez and Graefe (1998) of crises and disasters exacerbate the negative impacts on the tourism destinations. It takes years to construct a new image for such destinations in the aftermath of a crisis. Natural crises occur in various ways, and often strike directly (Maaiah, 2014), and as such are worthy of being investigated and analysed.

The tourism sector is prone to various crises (Ritchie and Crouch, 2003), especially in those countries that are trying to exert more control over their economic sectors, such as tourism.

Today, the use of information technology and globalisation have paved the way for media, advertising and publishing agencies to produce images that could affect any tourist destination, where it is not possible to take care of tourist activities in record time in the case of crises. Sonmez, Apostolopoulos, and Tarlow (1999) add that crises and accidents occur unexpectedly, and note that this reduces tourist flows, prices of commodities and services, job opportunities and compromise service quality.

The term risk is defined is by Brauch (2011:79) as:

“(Lat.: ‘risicare’ navigate around cliffs; Fr.: ‘risque’; It.: ‘risico, risco’; Sp.: ‘riesgo’; Port.: ‘riso’; Ger.: ‘risiko’), and many synonyms are used to define it as: danger, peril, jeopardy, hazard, chance, gamble, possibility, speculation, uncertainty, venture, unpredictability, precariousness, instability, insecurity, perilousness, riskiness, probability, likelihood, threat, menace, fear, prospect”.

According to Webster’s Third International Dictionary, as cited in Brauch (2011:79), risk means:

“The possibility of loss, injury, disadvantage or destruction: contingency, danger, peril, threat...; someone or something that creates or suggests a hazard or adverse chance: a dangerous element of factor...; the chance of loss or the perils to the subject matter or insurance covered by contract; the degree of probability of such loss; amount at risk; a person or thing judged as a specified hazard to an insurer; and an insurance hazard from a cause or source (war, disaster)”. This implies that every destination is exposed to risk which emanate

from the physical environment or which is man-made. It is such risks which render some destinations ineffective, and threaten their sustainability. Consequently the tourists tend to avoid destinations which are risky and chose those which are perceived to be safer.

Khajuria and Khanna (2014:79) indicate that the word risk has its roots in the old French word ‘risque’, which, in this context, means “danger” to tourists and tourism destinations, in which there is an element of chance”. Khajuria et al. (2014) add that historically, tourism has always been affected by risk, and maintain that long ago the risks were confined to nature, physical environment, interpersonal, or social settings. But the continued growth and evolution of tourism gave rise to an increase in risks which affect the travellers in their movements (Fisser et al., 2013). According to Kovari and Zimanyi (2011) the concept risk originated in the 1950s when tourism morphed from an activity of social elite in wealthy countries, to mass tourism, which caters for the needs of the middle class tourists.

According to Holton (2004) risk exists objectively, and can be calculated in accordance with a known or unknown probability distribution. People’s assessment of risks depend largely on whether they are experts in a certain field or just lay people. The former (experts) can yield objective risk assessment while the latter (lay people) can generate subjective risk assessment (Liu et al, 2013). And factors such as knowledge, experience, education, gender, culture, social norms, values, beliefs and attitudes play a key role in shaping up people’s risk assessment (Floyd, Gibson, Pennington-Gray and Thapa, 2004; Lepp et al, 2003; Carr, 2001; Linddel et al, 2008). This is the reason why risk has occupied a centre stage in research in the past decades (McComas, 2006). Risks and crises such as the severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) or the 9/11 terrorist attacks in the United States of America (USA) have made tourism researchers

to pay more attention on it (risk). Disasters, crises and risk assessment and associated management are thus challenges for the tourism industry. They need to be dealt with prudently or else they render tourism destinations dangerous, and pose a threat to the travellers worldwide, thus curtailing their movements and decision-making processes to visit particular places.

Brauch (2011) lends more credence to the definitions given above, by referring to them in The Brockhaus Enzyklopädie (1992, XVIII: 440-444). Brauch (2011) argue that the term ‘risk’ has historically developed to include concepts such as ‘risk measures’, ‘risk assessment’, ‘risk factors’ and ‘risk indicators’, ‘risk society’, ‘risk capital’, risk policy and management’ and ‘risk premiums’. The scholar indicates that Brockhaus differentiates among these meanings of risk as: a possibility that an action or activity causes damage or loss of material or persons; and risk is used when consequences are uncertain.

Liu et al. (2013) frames their contribution to literature dealing with risk by suggesting that it is generally classified into two ways, namely ‘real risk and ‘perceived risk’. They further state that ‘real risk’ can be measured by conducting a series of technological risk assessments, which includes identification, quantification, and characterisation. However, the fact that risk is “inherently subjective” renders such a procedure ineffective (Slovic et al., 2005:5) and interpretation and response to risk vary from one person to the other, including their varied social and cultural orientation. Slovic et al. (2002) argue that an understanding of risk perceptions is important, because people have invented it as a tool to help them understand and cope with dangers and uncertainties of life. Sjoberg et al. (2004) acknowledge the fact that risk perceptions determine people’s decision-making process and future behaviour. Brauch (2011) adds that it has always been constitutive of the “condition humana” general character or key

attributes of people to deal with risk. The risks have changed, are eco-centric (i.e. they are linked to environmental problems) and are global in nature. Climate change and increasing usage of high technology are classic examples of modern risks (Brauch, 2011), which warrant attention if the tourism industry is to flourish (own emphasis).

Ungar (2001) argues that the economic gains that accrue from the use of science and technology are overshadowed by the risks. Risks are an inevitable consequence of industrialisation, and produce impacts that are: very complex in terms of causal factors; unpredictable and latent; not limited by time, space, or social class (i.e. globalised); not detectable by our physical sense; and are the result of human decisions.

Toohy et al. (2008) have noted that risk is not a static phenomenon, and it refers to dangers that must be effectively identified, confronted, and controlled for tourism destinations to remain as viable entities. The above scholars further argue that the global dimensions of fear and associated risk are of recent origin. According to Frosdic (1999) the concept of 'risk' can be traced to the 17th century, where with the passage of time, risk assessments were done in maritime studies, and in the 19th century, were incorporated into the study of economics. Toohy et al. (2008) argue that in the 20th century, this concept assumed pessimistic connotations, and was mainly associated with how to avoid genuine or perceived hazards. Risk is now used as a litigious concept, has political connotations and affect the way in which both daily life and the future are perceived. Durodie (2004:14) concurs that:

“In recent times, the concept of risk itself has gradually altered from one that captured possibility and engagement in the active sense of taking risk; to one that increasingly reflects a growing sense of doom and distance from events, as

evidenced in growing reference to the passive phrase of being at risk. Risk used to be a verb. Now it has become a noun. Risks have also become more global.” This effectively implies that risks can occur at any given time, and affect adversely any tourism destination – particularly those which are endowed with few resources to offset it. Such destinations can invariably lose their product and services, personnel, machinery, and ability to provide tourism-related jobs.

The work of Beck (1992) titled “Risk Society: Towards a New Modernity” has made a meaningful contribution to the conceptualisation of the environmentally-based global risks, with resultant efforts to prevent them, their effects on people’s perceptions, and what Toohey et al. (2008: 455) call the “lobby/government/media-driven resultant moral panics”. Beck (1992) remarks that modern “risk society is based on the view that more and more aspects of our lives are framed by an awareness of the dangers confronting humankind at the individual, local and global level, and the need to develop strategies to confront these dangers.” Durodie (2005:6) lends more credence to this remark, by stating that present Western culture can be described as being in an “age of anxiety”. Similarly, the tourism industry is confronted by disasters, crises, and risks, which instill fear and anxiety amongst the tourists. These forces shape their destinations’ risk perceptions. It is an industry confronted by powerful destructive forces (Toohey et al., 2008) that threaten people’s daily existence.

Raval et al. (2007), and Aragon-Durand (2009) maintain that risk can be viewed as the potential for loss or harm to an entity, where such an entity could be a person, a group, an organization, a system or a resource. The tourism industry can therefore not develop and create jobs if risks are not controlled and managed (Shaw et al., 2012). These scholars argue that the survival of the industry depends on identifying and managing risks. They stress that this could be done in

two ways. Firstly, by entirely eliminating the risk, and secondly, by keeping the possible adverse impact to a minimum. The concept of risk is closely linked to risk management, which is defined below.

Shaw et al (2012) define risk management as a proactive approach to minimising the negative consequences of undesirable events that may occur. The first step in risk management is therefore identifying potential risks (Valsamakis et al., 2004). Shaw et al. (2012) highlight the point that the complexities involved in risk management in the tourism sector necessitate that it must be regarded as a process that requires constant review and updating, and that the industry should not only possess the ability to manage risk, but also the skill and foresight to recognise it, since it will have a tremendous bearing on growth. The destination that manages risk best will have a competitive advantage (Shaw et al., 2010).

According to Shaw et al. (2012), risk management is a concern for every kind of tourism industry business, including bed and breakfast establishments, guesthouses, airlines, tour operators, travel agents, lodges, hotels, game parks, restaurants, and the like. These businesses are interdependent, and depend on tourists and their failure to provide enough accommodation will curtail the number of tourists (Shaw et al., 2012). The effectiveness and efficiency of the businesses is important for the continued success of the tourism sector. Some of them are small, micro- and medium enterprises (SMMEs), which find it difficult to deal with risks than the larger ones (Saayman et al., 2005) – hence the need for effective risk identification and management.

1.3 Research Problem

Korstanje (2015), in “*Tourist Risk Research and Ethnocentrism*”, notes that there is a lacuna over the concepts of risk, fear and angst in academic discourse, and resultantly the findings of many studies are obscured, leading to the wrong results. Douglas (1992) has meanwhile explored the connection between fear and risk, and argues that psychological fear is akin to an attempt to react when faced with a hostile situation.

The media as well as the private risk industry support each other in creating ‘a spiral of perceived risk escalation’ (Los, 2002). Experts in the risk industry offer interpretations of potential dangers lurking ahead, they lend credibility to the bad news in the media, and bad news in the media generates an increasing private demand for commercial risk management. In this regard, Los (2002) indicates that the impact of media and industry advertisements on fear has been well researched. Demographic factors such as age, gender, class, living area or culture play a role in individual risk perception, but extensive press coverage of specific dangers or risk increases fear independently of other factors (Los, 2002). Terrorism, crime, fire, flood, theft, and industrial espionage are serious risks and require immediate action (Beck, 2003). If disasters, crises and risks are left unattended, they tend to affect the image of the destinations negatively and drive away the tourists to safer destinations. The study therefore seeks to unpack the disasters, crises and risks which affect Durban, and how these forces shape up the tourists’ perceptions regarding this place as a premier tourism destination.

The global financial and economic meltdown that has affected the tourism industry since 2007 has led to a series of crises. The increases in impacts of economic stagnation (Mistillis and Sheldon, 2005), political instability (PI), or natural disasters (Faulkner et al., 2001; Murphy and Bayley, 1989) on tourism are indicative of the way in which the world’s economies, transport systems, media and communication networks (Pforr, 2006) have become so

interlinked. So, when one destination has been affected by disaster, the impacts end up affecting the whole system (Fisser and Ferreira, 2013). Tourism is a large-scale industry (Goodrich, 2002) that affects the cultural, economic, social, and environmental dimensions at the local, regional, national and international level. Thus, the tourism industry is impacted upon by ever-changing physical, economic, and social forces, such as global climate change (Scott, 2008) or financial instability that poses many challenges on a range of fronts. Thus, the shifting economic climate has given rise to the current global economic credit crisis (World Tourism Organisation, 2013), which affects the entire tourism industry.

Tourism systems are always in crisis and this is contingent upon their respective locations, the tourism products they offer, as well as the temporal milieu of a destination and the tourist-generating region (Fisser and Ferreira, 2013).

The prime subjects of tourism – that is, tourists and their travel patterns – are the ‘richer’ elements of society in terms of money and time (Fisser et al., 2013). Crises are of short duration, while the ever-increasing marketisation and the ongoing loss of natural capital are long-term, and do not fall into the technical rationalities of crisis management and recovery plans. These authors frame their contribution with the remark that crises interact with others and complicate the response mechanisms to mitigate them in the policy and business fraternity (Butler, 1992). Some crises seem to be recurring to challenge the tourism sector, for example, the economic stagnation of the mid-2000s (Mistillis and Sheldon, 2005), and this present challenges and opportunities to tourism destinations. On the other hand, the environment does not seem to be gaining sustainability. Some natural disasters are difficult to plan for (Ritchie, 2002), and the solutions to them are ineffective. This could be attributed to policy failures (Cohen et al, 2012). This in turn necessitates the need for a paradigm shift from old solutions to research grounded

in two rationalities. Firstly, the interconnectedness between risks and fear, and power, values, norms and interests of the tourists (Fisser et al., 2013). Secondly, the way in which tourists' perceptions of destinations can influence policy within the broader framework of governance and change. This requires the interrogation of neoliberal tourism (Higgins-Desbiolles, 2006) to expedite understanding of contemporary tourism and its role and response to disasters, crises and risks.

Tourists formulate destination images, which can either be positive or negative. A destination that has a positive image will have a high touristic pulling power, as opposed to the one with a negative image (Jonas, Mansfeld, Paz and Potasman, 2011; Lepp and Gibson, 2003). A negative image has a spill-over effect (McKercher and Chon, 2004), whereby tourists tend to perceive both the affected area (perceived as dangerous) and its surrounding unaffected areas as dangerous. Consequently, tourists tend to avoid traveling to a particular destination due to a perceived threat (Sonmez and Graefe, 1998).

The tourists' risk perception is influenced by a number of factors, for example, the status of public health in the country (Liu et al., 2013). South Africa is endowed with good climatic conditions conducive for both indoor and outdoor tourism. However, water pollution has become a serious environmental risk (Croucamp et al., 2014) due to weak regulatory enforcement in mining areas such as Mpumalanga and the poor municipal infrastructure in peri- and urban areas. South Africa Disaster Statistics (2010) indicates that South Africa is not known for its frequency of severe natural disasters, and statistics detailing them are lacking. It further argues that with the exception of floods, drought and mild earthquakes, the southern tip of Africa has been relatively free of severe natural disasters. However, water scarcity is a serious risk, and it is exacerbated by increased land use and a growing population. Other

environmental risks faced by the country include destruction of natural habitats, over-fishing, and poaching (Croucamp et al, 2014).

Terrorist acts in South Africa tend to be crime-based (Croucamp et al, 2014) and the urban acts of terrorism are caused by Muslim fundamentalist groups and minority white, right-wing groups (McFarlene, 2003), and the country gained reputation as a hiding place for terrorists in the 2000s. Therefore, terrorist risks, disasters and crises can affect the cost of services and labor-stability in the tourism sector. In summary, the tourism sector is impacted upon by a myriad of disasters, crises and risks which adversely affect destinations to a point whereby the destinations which cannot manage them tend to lose a share of the tourist market. Disasters, crises and risks affect destination image, and shape up the tourists' perceptions negatively. Consequently the tourists tend to avoid the destination they perceive to be risky in favour of those they perceive to be safer. Places that are not managing disasters, crises and risks effectively tend to lose their sustainability, profitability and competitiveness.

1.4 Research aims and objectives

The study sought to discuss the relationship between disasters, crises and risks and how this nexus influence their perceptions of Durban as a tourism destination. It attempted to identify the various types of disasters, crises and risks which affect the tourism sector and subsequently the tourists' decision-making processes when they are to visit the province. Furthermore, the study sought to evaluate the travellers' perceptions regarding the tourism destinations' inherent readiness and ability to protect them in the advent of disasters, crises and risks. It also evaluated the losses which the tourists experience in the advent of disasters, crises and risks. It further sought to establish whether there is a provision of security, adequate food, sanitation, shelter, and essential health services to the tourists in the event of crises and disasters.

1.5. Research questions

In accomplishing the research objectives posited above, the following critical questions would be addressed by the study:

- What meanings do the tourists attach to disasters, crises and risks in South Africa?
- What are the potential risks that the tourists are exposed to in the case of disasters and crises like floods, earthquakes, crime, civil war, xenophobia, energy crises, terrorism and related hazards?
- What strategies are put in place to mitigate disasters, crises and risks in South Africa?
- What are the primary and secondary (indirect) losses, which the tourists may experience due to vulnerability to disasters, crises and risks?
- What are the tourists' perceived risks associated with disasters and crises?
- What is the relationship between demographic factors, disasters, crises and risks?
- Which social structures are put in place to respond to disasters, crises and risks to ensure the safety and security of the tourists?

1.6. Motivation for the study

Scholars such as Sönmez et al. (1998) state that there are a number of factors influencing tourists' propensity to travel to destination choice to actual travel. They argue that past travel experience, perception of risk itself and many demographic factors play a role in this regard. They point out that tourism destinations that are perceived to be risky may be substituted with those perceived to be safe. Many scholars have realised that, due to the impact of crises for

tourists, there is a gap in literature with regard to the perceptions of risk, response to risk, and interpretation of messages surrounding it (Liu et al., 2013). The study could close the gap by empirically assessing the way in which tourists perceive Durban as a tourism destination. It further evaluated how tourists are impacted upon by disasters, crises and risks, and what the appropriate practical responses could address their plight. This study was motivated by the paucity of research that combines the sociology of risk and disaster.

Faulkner (2001:136) lends more credence to the above assertion by contending that “relatively little systematic research has been carried out on disaster phenomena in tourism” and the impacts thereof. The serious impacts of disasters and crises warrant research with a view to address the challenges encountered by the tourists and the industry in general. Laws et al. (2005) add that in the tourism literature, disasters were generally dealt with within the wider theoretical framework of tourism crises. Some specific studies dealing with the interface of tourism and disasters have been focused on disaster management practices (Ritchie, 2004). This gap is exposed by Cohen et al. (2009:12) who state that:

“Remarkably little work has been done on the specific social problems by which the vulnerability of tourist destinations is produced, or on the conduct of tourists, hosting establishments, locals and official institutions at the outset, during and in the immediate aftermath of a natural disaster”.

Faulkner et al. (2001) expounded on the remarks given above by saying that the issue of how the tourism industry deals with disasters has not received enough attention in tourism management research, even though destinations face the prospect of different forms of disasters, crises and risks in their history. Scholars such as Faulkner et al. (2001) cite quite a

number of authors who have raised concern about the vulnerability of destinations to disasters. They include Murphy et al. (1989), who emphasised the attractiveness of high-risk exotic locations, and Burby et al. (1996) and Drabek (1995), who stressed the exposure of travelers to injury due to their lack of familiarity with local hazards. Even though this is the case, many destinations are said to be generally unprepared for disaster situations, even in high-risk areas (Cassedy, 1991; Drabek, 1992, 1995, Faulkner et al., 2001), while many have played down the actual or potential impacts of disasters for marketing reasons (Cammisa, 1993; Murphy et al., 1989; Faulkner et al., 2001).

The tourism industry has not as yet sufficiently (Faulkner et al., 2001) analysed tourism disasters and implemented effective disaster management plans. What compounds the problems further is that the theoretical and conceptual frameworks have not been appropriately developed for analysing disasters affecting the tourism industry. Consequently, there has been very little systematic analysis of past events upon which a solid understanding of the tourism disasters can be based (Faulkner et al., 2001).

Shaw et al. (2012) remark that the central focus of the tourism industry is placed on risks that are present at the destinations – implying that those that are lurking ahead are ignored. They include natural disasters (tsunamis, hurricanes, drought); socio-demographical (ageing markets, family life cycles and changing structures); economics (recessions, increases in oil prices, exchange rates); politics (sanctions, terrorism); and diseases (H5NI, HIV/AIDS, SARS) (Sönmez et al., 1998). These risks affect travellers' visits to tourist destinations. What compounds the problems even more is the fragmentation of the tourism sector and many role players (McCamley, 2012), thus rendering the question of determining the overall effect of disasters, crises and risks more difficult. Central to these problems is a lack of properly trained

staff (Baum, 2006; Ozuka, 2009), which creates a gap in the skills required in identifying and managing the crises and risk. Ozuka (2009) and Baum (2006) notes that the lack of qualified staff is also limiting the growth of the industry. However, the question of the industry fragmentation and lack of qualified personnel lies beyond the scope of this study.

Shaw et al. (2012) point out that for purposes of literature review, there is no study that address domestic and international risks in the South African tourism industry from the perspective of supply, that is, what product owners and entrepreneurs view as key risks. These scholars add that:

It became clear that the tourism industry is highly susceptible to risk and that the list of risks seems to be virtually without limit. There is also the impression that the tourism industry in general tends to be reactive rather than proactive in addressing risks, producing many impact evaluations but few risk forecasts, this is despite the fact that Shaw (2010) states that the frequency and scope of risks across the globe have increased significantly during the past decades.

The study closed the gaps indicated above by adopting four models to anchor it, that is, mobility theory, postulated by Cohen et al. (2012), model of international tourism decision-making process, postulated by Sonmez et al. (1998), disaster risk theory, which is enrooted in hazard paradigm, and risk perception theory, postulated by Cognitive Psychology long ago. The four models are chosen because they collectively deal with the interface of tourism and disasters. They explain tourists' perceptions about tourism destinations in varied ways, and the factors that lead to such perceptions. The models stress that disasters, crises, and risks are social constructs, and provide the measures that people resort to when they are in danger (Sönmez et

al., 1998). The models emphasise the fact that disasters, crises and risks (crime, terrorism, accidents, diseases, plane crashes, civil strives, xenophobia, corruption and the like) are often disregarded by developers (Cohen et al., 2012). The other reason why they would add value to the study is that they treat the social processes by which vulnerability of tourists and destinations is produced (Cohen et al., 2012). They deal with issues of fear, anxiety, and tourists' expectations in various destinations (Heggie et al., 2004; Hall, 2002; Banyai, 2010), and this is aligned with the goals and objectives of the current study.

The study therefore probed the question of how the stakeholders in the tourism sector view disasters, crises and risks that affect it, and most importantly deal with how the tourists view South Africa as a tourism destination. The goal behind this was two-pronged: firstly, to close the gaps identified above. Secondly, to enhance its contribution to the current debates on disaster, crises, and risk discourse. Brackwell (2007) argues that risk is inherently subjective, and as consumers are above all individuals, what they perceive as risky is likely to differ, and adds that the empirical evidence on such differences is incoherent. Thus, understanding how tourists comprehend and act upon disasters, crises, and risks in tourist environment deserves further investigation.

1.7. The significance of the study

The study is based on the interface of disasters, crises and risks, which are 'social constructs' that might be understood differently by different respondents, and this could pose problems of interpretations to those respondents who could be targeted in the researcher's absence, or chose to fill the questionnaire during their private time. Nevertheless, a conceptual framework was provided to expedite common understanding of social constructs to be probed. The sporadic nature of reporting disasters, crises and risks in Durban is a serious problem. Some of the events

that were to be probed might not have occurred in the last ten years or so, and as such, tourists might not have experienced them at all. This could ultimately affect their perceptions to some extent. That would then compel the researcher to rely more on theoretical frameworks that anchored the study, as opposed to what tourists were practically exposed to in their social settings. Therefore the findings would not be applicable to other situations. Nevertheless, some generalisations and descriptions might be useful for application in future research.

As far as the disasters, crises and risk are concerned there is a need to shift paradigm from what causes (agents) them and expand the research agenda to the social processes “whereby certain types of crisis situations become legitimate bases for social action” (Drabek, 2004:7) .Risk perceptions have become a main focus of research. Slovic et al. (2002) maintain that risk must be understood to be a mechanism that human beings have invented to help them understand and cope with dangers and uncertainties of life. From a macro perspective, an understanding of the risk discourse will inform public response, as well as how to deal with crises. The study would be useful to policy makers, giving insight into both Disaster Management Officers (DMOs) and the travel market as to how to maintain a safe destination. The study, therefore, sought to make a meaningful contribution to the strategic actions of DMOs, travel marketers, government officials, tourism service providers, tourism product owners, travel agents, tour operators, owners of accommodation establishments, as well as the policy makers. It intended to make a contribution to the developing literature on tourism disasters, crises and risks and the way Durban is portrayed by the tourists as a tourism destination. It would also reflect the concerns of tourism scholars and their vested interests in the field of disasters, crises and risks that affect the tourism sector. This contribution was not meant to be definitive, but addresses three factors in the ongoing discourse, namely: the time elapsed between the last study on crises in the tourism sector in South Africa and Durban in particular and this one; the fact that

disasters, crises and risks are dynamic and evolving; as well as the fact that each tourism destination in the world is unique. This would boost tourism in the local, regional and national driven development process.

The study was also necessitated by the fact that disasters, crises and risks require ongoing surveillance, analysis, assessment and mitigation (Krahmann, n.d.). A discourse of risk assessment is an investment and not an expense, as it will benefit many tourism stakeholders as indicated above. Dolnicar (2005) frames the value of a discourse on disasters, crises and risks by stating that the intangibility of tourist product generates a high degree of uncertainty for consumers. Therefore, the tourism industry needs to constantly delineate and define types of tourism disasters, risks and crises, so that meaningful mitigations that keep abreast of modern technological developments can be deployed. This is attributed to the fact that disasters, crises and risks that the tourism industry has to deal with are fabricated by human beings, while others are naturally induced (Dolnicar, 2005).

1.8. Research methodology

Hereunder an attempt was made to provide the main approach employed by the researcher to collect data with a view to achieve the set objectives. In the main this section also delved on the population targeted, the selection process involved, the primary and secondary sources used to gather data, the data analysis and the main limitations inherent in the study.

A qualitative approach was used to unpack the subject matter of the disaster, crises and the risk fear nexus and how the tourists perceive Durban as a tourism destination. The approach was augmented by semi-structured interviews and literature reviews. A pilot study was conducted to find out if the survey, key informant interview guide or observation tools would work in the

“real world” by trying it out first on a few people. The purpose was to make sure that everyone in the sample understood the questions the same way.

1.8.1 Data collection

The data was collected mainly by using a Likert scale questionnaire which carried some statements dealing with certain specific themes. It enabled the interviewees to express their degree of agreement or disagreement on a five point scale which ranged from strongly agree (represented by 1) to strongly disagree (represented by 5). The questionnaire was administered to tourism experts and the tourist themselves. The study involved 5 tourism experts in Durban. The snowballing technique was used to select the participants. The tourists were also targeted as there was a separate questionnaire specifically designed for them, and 70 of them were conveniently targeted at the Durban Beach front. The study was worth undertaking as it enabled the researcher to identify some questions which were ambiguous and those which were correctly phrased and well understood. Therefore those which were not clear were corrected henceforth. The pilot study therefore assisted in defining the research question and to test the reliability and validity of the study design.

1.8.2 Research population

The research population comprised 399 tourists. Their breakdown was as follows: 203 tourists at Phezulu Cultural Village, 139 at Cabana Beach Resort, and 57 visitors who visited Botanical Gardens. All of these tourists' sites were located in Durban which attract many visitors, and were accessible to the researcher. The proximity of these study sites also significantly lowered

the costs for the researcher. These travelers' figures were arrived at by using Raosoft Sample Size calculator (2011).

The key informant interviews which involved 15 tourism experts were conducted. The aim behind this was to redefine the tourists' views on the subject matter and most importantly to attain validity and reliability of the research results. Of these informants, 5 were stationed in Cape Town, 5 in Bloemfontein and the last 5 in Durban. They were all telephonically interviewed to defray the costs. They were drawn from a wide range of fields such as the hospitality, accommodation and government departments, and were deemed to be knowledgeable to provide a balanced and a clear picture of the tourists' perspectives on the topic at hand. Worth noting was that they were conveniently selected and interviewed until a saturation point was reached.

1.8.3 Primary sources

The primary sources that were used included the questionnaire. It was primarily administered to the tourist to obtain rich data on tourism disasters, crises and risks and most importantly their perceptions on Durban as a tourism destination. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the key informants. The latter had a set of pre-formulated questions to ensure consistency with regard to the way they were posed. The key informants' inputs were then compared and probed further to ensure validity. The interviews were audio-taped and transcribed at a later stage.

1.8.4 Secondary sources

A literature review was conducted on the current scholarly knowledge including substantive findings, as well as theoretical and methodological contributions to a particular topic. A literature review was based on the search and evaluation of the available literature in tourism disasters, risks and crises and how the travelers perceive Durban. It was primarily done to exploit the data available and to deepen the insights pertinent to the topic a hand. The websites, working papers, government reports, newspapers, annual reports, journal articles and conference papers were therefore consulted to gather the latest information on disasters, crises and risks and the tourists' perspectives on them. The most famous tourism destinations in the world, including those which experienced a myriad of disasters, such as wars, crime, terrorism, earthquakes, floods, tsunamis and so on were considered as they were deemed to be having rich literary information appropriate to the study.

1.8.5. Data analysis

The data collected from the tourists was analysed by using Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS) to offset the disadvantages inherent in the manual processes of data analysis, and to save time (Veal, 2011). Furthermore it was used to track and manage raw qualitative data and for coding it (Sofaer, 2002).

1.9. Limitations of the study

The empirical study was conducted over a short period of time, which spanned just a month in 2017, and was subsumed mainly by literary information and theoretical models that do not delineate much between the experiences of the local, regional, and international tourists in the disaster risk discourse. The experiences of the tourists with regard to the disasters, crises and

risk is a highly emotive and complex issue, which cannot be adequately addressed by a single study. This is attributable mainly to the tourists' profile which comprise, inter alia, age, sex, social status, education, culture and sub-culture, disaster experience, access to resources, travelling experiences and the like. Therefore, a multiplicity of studies is required to address their varied experiences.

The study is based on the report and experiences of the local, regional and international visitors, some of which might not have had a direct personal experience of a vast range of the disasters such as floods, earthquakes, volcanoes, crime, diseases, terrorism, xenophobia, poverty, unemployment and the like. It was difficult to identify and target the tourists with a wide exposure to such a wide range of disasters, crises and risks. Their limited familiarity compounds the issue of generalisability of the results across the board. This points to a need to conduct studies that will offset this limitation in future.

Another limitation is that Durban does not experience devastating natural hazards like floods and drought on a massive scale regularly so an element of time can distort the tourists' perceptions and memories pertinent to disasters, crises and risks in general. This proves a general weakness pervasive throughout disaster research. However, this should not detract attention from the fact that the country is vulnerable to disasters, crises and risk, which warrant attention in disaster discourse.

Other weaknesses inherent in the study hinge on the generalisability of the results. The tourist population surveyed was based in Durban and its surrounds. Therefore, the results obtained may not be applied to other major metropolitan cities like Johannesburg and Cape Town as

each tourist destination is unique, and geographical location also influences people's perceptions uniquely. However, the results can still prove to be useful to destination managers in terms of providing the tourists' current perceptions about Durban as a tourism destination. They can also be used to enhance tourism sustainability and competitiveness in various destinations. It was also not possible to empirically unpack the risk-fear nexus and the tourists' perceptions between all the disasters, crises and risks covered by the study. For example, South Africa as a whole has never ever experienced volcanic eruptions, major earthquakes, or terrorist attacks, which could leave an imprint on the memories of the local tourists. Thus their perceptions of such hazards are difficult to comprehend and analyse. Their perceptions of some disasters are therefore largely shaped by the practical realities in other foreign countries, at a distance. Nevertheless, this does not detract from the fact that the local tourists' perceived threat of harm from potential terrorist attack is much great as illustrated by the results. Last but not least, the key informants interviewed were more vocal on a wide range of issues raised bar the policies that could be used to contain hazards. Therefore, this thesis could not extract as much information, as was intended on policy matters. This in turn affected its contributions towards policies meant to manage disasters, crises and risks.

1.10. Principal theories that anchor the study

1.10.1 Mobility Theory

According to its proponents (Cohen and Cohen, 2012), this theory addresses the interface of tourism and contemporary society: social justice, natural disasters, terrorism, heritage, embodiment and affect, and mediatisation. The approach reflects a broader meta-theoretical re-orientation in contemporary philosophy and sociology, and is applied in tourism to explain tourists' perceptions in many varied ways. It deals with risks involved in travel, as well as

stringent security measures in global tourism, which in turn interferes with the comfort, ease, and freedom of tourists.

The theory illustrates how vulnerable and helpless tourists become to disasters once the institutional structures they depend on are destroyed (Cohen and Cohen, 2012). It encapsulates “hopeful tourism”, which seeks to address the social, economic, political, and environmental needs of the less fortunate ones to advance an agenda of social inclusion. It concerns itself with divergent tourists’ experiences, and can aid this study whose aim is to move away from simple linear touristic experiences deserving straightforward solutions.

Furthermore it acknowledges that disasters are exogenic in nature, and that their consequences might be exacerbated by “a historically produced pattern of vulnerability”, which manifests itself in the “location, infrastructure and sociopolitical organisation, production, and distribution systems of ideology of a society” (Cohen and Cohen, 2012:11). The theory emphasises the point that natural disasters are often disregarded by developers. Cohen and Cohen (2012) point out that the earlier studies on disasters were concerned with issues of disaster management only, at the expense of tourists’ fright, frustration, confusion or perplexity. They add that little work has been carried out on the specific social processes by which the vulnerability of tourist destinations is produced, or on the behaviour of tourists and tourism destination in the initial stages and the aftermath of a natural disaster. The latter will constitute the main thrust of this study.

1.10.2 Model of International Tourism Decision-Making Process

The model was postulated by Sönmez and Graefe in 1998, and is rooted in Information Integration Theory (IIT) and Protection Motivation Theory (PMT). Protection Motivation

Theory concerns how people deal with threats. It maintains that the intention to protect oneself depends upon four factors, namely, the perceived severity of a threatened event, the perceived probability of occurrence or vulnerability, the efficacy of the recommended preventive behavior, and perceived self-efficacy. Information Integration Theory deals with international travel experience, risk perception level, travel attitude, age, gender, education, and income of the tourists concerned. The Model of International Tourism Decision-Making Process proposes that “there are a number of factors which influence the tourists’ decisions from the motivation to travel to destination choice to actual travel” (Sönmez et al., 1998). The model purports that the tourists’ ability to gauge the safety of a destination is influenced by variables such as past travel experience, perception of risk, and many demographic factors. It is said that those tourism destinations perceived to be risky may be substituted with those perceived to be safer. It maintains that the tourists’ perceptions of what constitute a safe destination can be influenced by various factors, which in turn can impact on visitation to a destination. The reasons why this model is chosen to anchor the study is because it deals with the tourists’ perceptions of a safe destination, and highlights some factors which may render some destinations as unsuitable for visitation. Therefore it will aid this study, whose primary intention is to empirically unravel the tourists’ perceptions of Durban as a destination, to expose, from a tourists’ perspective, what can render the country suitable or unsuitable for visitation, and the practical measures to be implemented to mitigate disasters and risks that cultivate fear amongst them.

1.10.3 Disaster-Risk Theory

This theory is rooted in hazard (scape) paradigm, a vulnerability paradigm, resilience, and extended alternative adjustments. It maintains that disaster risk studies are currently informed by social constructions, and holds the view that environmental issues are ‘socially constructed’ and become issues through developments in scientific research, where political and economic

conditions shift and reform already established representations of nature. They are also shaped by the imprint of dominant narratives, from which they drew their intellectual inspiration and legitimacy. The model deals with disasters and risks from society-environment point of view. This offers a comprehensive understanding of the disaster risk faced by a given society. It is chosen because it is quite powerful in shaping the disaster risk discourse, especially in terms of its emphasis on a hazard (scape) and vulnerability paradigm and the significant role of resilience to the disaster risk studies. This is a conventional way of examining disasters. Vulnerability issues have also been improved by development studies experts, more so around the areas of livelihoods and social protection. Moreover, the model adopts a balanced approach to disaster risk research and will aid the study to achieve its intended objectives.

1.10.4 Risk Perception Theory

According to Korstanje (2011), the theory was postulated by Cognitive Psychology more than 40 years ago, but introduced to tourism fields in the aftermath of the September 11th attacks on the World Trade Centre in the US. It is a scientific criterion intended to bring security to tourists who are vulnerable to threats than others (Korstanje, 2011: 5). It is used to examine risks and hazards that affect them when travelling and various instruments they utilise to ensure their safety. The theory maintains (Korstanje, 2011) that key factors that play a role in determining risk perception are the tourists' nationality and their psychological personality, and adds that those with a higher sensation (sensation seeking) tend to experience fewer risks and travel more than those with a lower degree of sensation seeking. It presumes that the tourists face their own risk when selecting the destination for their holidays and transport modes. Risks manifest themselves in the form of terrorism, crime, natural disasters, road accidents, diseases or delays in flights (Floyd and Pennington-Gray and Thapa, 2004; Hall, 2002 and Banyai, 2010). The theory deals with issues of fear, anxiety and tourists' expectations. It is chosen to anchor the

study because it considers risks to be socially and culturally constructed, explaining risk in a qualitative way. This is in line with the approach to be adopted by this study. To this effect, Korstanje (2011:17) remarks that “understanding risk from a qualitative view is a way of understanding society itself because travelling is a fertile source for panic and concern.” The model provides a conceptual framework to mitigate the negative aftermaths of events that lead to bad touristic experiences. This too is in line with the overall objectives of the study.

The four models are chosen because they collectively deal the interface of tourism and disasters. They explain tourists’ perceptions about tourism destinations in varied ways, and the factors that lead to such perceptions. The models stress that disasters, crises and risks are social constructs, and provide the measures that people resort to when they are in danger (Sönmez et al., 1998). The models emphasise the fact that disasters, crises and risks (crime, terrorism, accidents, diseases, plane crashes, civil strives, xenophobia, corruption and the like) are often disregarded by developers (Cohen et al., 2012). The other reason why they would add value to the study is that they treat the social processes by which vulnerability of tourists and destinations is produced (Cohen et al., 2012). They deal with issues of fear, anxiety, and tourists’ expectations in various destinations (Hall, 2002; Banyai, 2010). This is aligned with the goals and objectives of the study.

1.11. Structure of dissertation

Chapter 1: Introduction

An overview of the proposed study and the most important research question are given. The goals and objectives of the study are articulated. New definitions and concepts related to the study are also introduced to enhance ease of understanding.

Chapter 2: Conceptualising tourism disasters, crises and risks

The chapter addresses the argumentative and discursive dimensions of disasters, crises and risks and how they affect the tourism sector, specifically the safety and well-being of the tourists. This will be followed by best management practices that could be put in place to sustain the tourism sector in the advent of the disasters, crises, and risk.

Chapter 3: International case studies on tourism disasters, crises and risks

The chapter seeks to illustrate the specific disasters, crises, and risks that affect the tourism industry in foreign countries. It deals with the tourists' perceptions of countries such as Philippines, Bangladesh, USA, Dominica and Australia as some important destinations that attract many visitors annually, and the variables that shape such perceptions. It addresses the specific ways in which disasters, crises and risks affect the well-being of tourists. Management practices will be touched on as well.

Chapter 4: Disasters, crises and risks in Durban

The chapter seeks to outline the disasters, crises and risks that affected Durban. It deals with hazards such as floods, drought, crime, and terrorism. It also delves into the concomitant impact of these disasters, crises and risks on the tourism sector and inevitably the tourists themselves.

Chapter 5: Research methodology

This chapter deals with qualitative methodology, and touches on aspects such as: the adopted research approach, research design, research questions, methods used and the justification thereof, research populations, and interviewees' selection criteria. The time horizon and

research sites are dealt with, as well as the issues of the limitations inherent in some methods used.

Chapter 6: The impact of disasters, crises and risks on the tourism sector in Durban

The chapter reports the results of the study. It dwells on various approaches used to give the results. Qualitative approach is employed for reporting purposes.

Chapter 7: Discussion on tourism disasters, crises and risks

This chapter deals with empirical research results examining disasters, crises and risk perception and how tourists socially perceive Durban as a tourism destination. The conceptual framework elaborated previously in Chapter 2, 3 and 4 is employed to conduct analysis of results.

Chapter 8: Summary and conclusions

This last chapter summarises the dissertation, and is rooted in Chapter 5. It places special emphasis on the results gathered, brings to the fore the contributions made, and finally generates some recommendations and suggestions for future research.

1.12. Summary

The research problem was introduced, and an attempt made to enhance easy understanding of the concepts of disasters, crises, risk, and the risk-fear nexus. As attested to by many scholars, tourism is an important economic sector in many countries worldwide due to the following rationalities, where: it leads to increased foreign exchange income. It creates job opportunities, boost the gross domestic product (GDP) and advances economic growth in general. However, the tourism sector seems to be in crisis. It is impacted upon by disasters, crises and risks, such

as wars, epidemics, terrorism, xenophobia, crime, corruption, political instability, poor economic growth, accidents, floods, drought, climate change, and many more. These exogenic forces, which are beyond the control of tourism destination managers (TDM), have a bearing on the tourism consumers. They do not adversely affect the tourism system alone but the tourists as well. Consequently, tourists develop fear and anxiety when they are to visit certain destination or countries. South Africa as a whole and Durban is not immune to such disasters, crises and risks – hence the need to empirically assess those disasters, crises and risks that affect it as one of the important destinations in the world. The negative impact of disasters, crises and risks endorses the need to assess tourists’ perceptions of Durban as tourism destination. Another important consideration is the measures that can be introduced to address the plight of the tourists and tourism destinations when they are faced with disasters, crises and risk. The disaster debate has dominated the disaster discourse over the years when it comes to conceptualising and designing measures to deal with them. The scientific knowledge of the disasters, crises and risk can reveal their nature, where tourists and tourism destinations would be able to be assigned the advice of acting accordingly, in order to cope with them. This is informed by the observation that knowledge regarding disasters, crises and risks in a tourists’ daily life and their survival mechanisms is one of the dominant issues in disaster discourse. Thus, at the theoretical level, the central goal of this study is to contribute meaningfully to the ongoing debate on the subject of disaster.

CHAPTER 2

Conceptualising tourism disasters, crises and risks

2.1 Introduction

Tourism as a sector is one of the key industries in terms of creating jobs and adding more impetus to the economic growth of many countries. However, the inescapable reality is that this sector is susceptible to a vast array of catastrophic events such as floods, earthquakes, tsunamis, terrorism, war and political conflicts, diseases, global warming, and the like. The chapter, therefore seeks to unpack international perspectives on disasters, crises and risk, which inadvertently not only affect the tourism industry, but tourists and nations as well. It will provide as much literary information as is possible on the nature, causes, and typology of tourism disasters, crises and risks. Moreover, it will draw on the scholarly work of many authors in the tourism sector to illustrate the dynamics of the disasters, crises, and risk events affecting destinations. Some selected international case studies will be provided to elucidate the topic further. The impact of disasters, crises and risk on the sector as well as tourists will be of paramount importance as the local and international tourism flows are affected. The response strategies put in place by many destinations to contain disasters, crises and risk are dealt with, including some critical lessons that could be learnt and implemented to ensure the continued growth of the sector.

2.1.1 Natural disasters and crises

The natural disasters and crises that enjoy attention here include the hydro-metereological, climatic change and droughts, floods, cyclones and hurricanes, and geophysical ones.

2.1.1.1 Hydro-metereological disasters

When it comes to climatic variability and drought, Benson et al. (2004:16) maintain that both abnormally low rainfall (drought) and high rainfall can have a negative effect on the agricultural sector. The economy in rural areas can be adversely affected by excessive rainfall. This applies equally well to drought, which can cause widespread crop and stock losses and affect many countries simultaneously. Long periods of drought, which alternate with periods of heavy rains, can either be ‘amplified or dampened’. According to Benson et al. (2004) such quasi-cyclical phenomena not only affect the agricultural sector, but also those sectors of the economy that depend on water, such as hydroelectricity and local water supply. The tourism sector is not immune to this problems, because if the supply chain is affected, then the industry will run short of the tangible goods it depends on.

2.1.1.2 River flooding

According to scholarly work gleaned from the work of Benson et al. (2004), Lukamba (2008), Mcarthy et al. (2001), Sönmez et al. (1999), Pforr (2006) and Lerbinger (2012), excessive flooding can unleash a devastating impact by causing: infrastructural damage and impaired productive capacity; negatively affected economic output; and the destruction of crops and livestock losses and disruption of the socio-economic activities.

2.1.1.3 Tropical cyclones and hurricanes

These storms have a negative impact on the economy as they cause loss of life. Their impact is more localised for large countries, but devastatingly huge for small countries such as Fiji, Dominica and Montserrat. The storms normally lead to flash flooding, and landslides (Benson et al., 2004 and Pforr, 2006). According to the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (1999), hurricane David in 1979 in Dominica and hurricane Mitch in 1998 in Central America are classic examples.

2.1.1.4 Geophysical disasters

These hazards include earthquakes and tsunamis (Benson et al., 2004; Faulkner et al., 2001; Birkman et al., 2008 and Lerbinger, 2012). Earthquakes can cause infrastructural damage, which extends over large areas, even though they have little impact on plantations. Their greatest catastrophic macroeconomic impact is discernable when they occur in big cities, or metropolitan areas (McGuire, 2002). Tokyo in 1923 is a good example, where volcanoes and tsunamis have localised direct impact (Benson et al., 2004).

2.1.1.5 The impact of global warming as a natural disaster on the tourism sector

The 2001 and 2013 reports of the IPCC, compiled by more than 1000 scientists, indicate that global warming will have far-reaching consequences as discussed hereunder. It maintains that vegetation and animal life will be adversely affected. The Polar Regions are beginning to experience a great retreat of mountain glaciers, and the Arctic Ice has dramatically become thin since the 1970s, with the attendant result that the North Pole is beginning to be ice-free. The ice in the lakes and rivers flowing at higher altitudes in the northern hemisphere melts earlier than it used to a century ago. The northern hemisphere spring snow cover has decreased by 10 percent on the 1966-86 mean. The reports further predicts that the polar and mountainous regions of the northern hemisphere will be eight degrees Celsius warmer by 2100. This could

result in rising sea levels, caused by the thermal expansion of the oceans, and water rising fast melting mountain glaciers. This trend is going to have tragic consequences for coastal regions, which might become totally immersed in water.

The 2001 IPCC report forecasts that, for example, a mere 1-metre rise in sea level can lead to Maldives in the Indian Ocean being completely submerged in water and flooded, a 1,8 meter rise in Bangladesh can lead to a destruction of 16 percent of the land surface inhabited by 13 percent of its population. Global warming is going to lead to an increase of extreme meteorological events by up to four percent at high and middle latitudes, and more frequent floods (Mazilu et al., 2004; Mazilu, 2004; World Disasters Report, 2001) rainstorms and windstorms will occur. The IPCC Report (2001) contends that global warming means warmer areas, strong storms, bigger and more powerful waves, pronounced coastal erosion, heavy rains and severe drought. It cites parts of Africa, Asia and Southern America as potential ‘victims’ of drought, while temperatures in the mountainous regions such as the Alps and the Pyrenees will pose danger to towns, ski resorts, villages with more frequent and more destructive landslides. Countries such as Switzerland will experience more landslides, rock falls and mudflows. The tops of some mountains in Western Europe have increased temperatures, where the Swiss ski resort of St. Moritz is a typical example of destabilised mountain tops that threaten adverse effects on visitors. According to the Report, about 40 percent of the people of Solomon Islands were killed by floods in the 1990s. Other low-lying Southwest Pacific islands such as Tonga and Micronesia were also negatively affected as the latter happened. Major disasters and crises also affected one in 12 people in Australia, one in 200 in the USA, and one in 200 in the UK over the same period. The overarching negative consequences of disasters and crises include, inter alia, disrupted national economies, disrupted fabric of the global communities as agriculture, wildlife, water supplies, and health become increasingly endangered. Other

problems include increasing populations (IPCC, 2001 and McGuire, 2002), falling incomes, rising environmental despoliation, critical shortage of resources, expansion of deserts, food shortages (World Disasters Report, 2001; Benson et al, 2004 and Lerbinger, 2012) famine and diseases, and wars. According to the reports (World Disasters Report, 2001 and IPCC, 2001), other notable consequences of global warming will include: firstly, pollution – this will in turn affect the health of the global society negatively; secondly, destruction of the temperate and tropical forests, which trap greenhouse gases from the atmosphere; thirdly, loss of plant and animal life as most species will be unable to adapt and cope in new conditions (this category includes grasslands, wetlands, coral reefs and atolls, mangrove swamps, and sensitive polar and alpine ecosystems); fourthly, leisure activities will be affected; lastly, in certain areas of the world it will be too hot (summers) for sun seekers, while the diminishing snow will adversely affect the winter sports industry in its entirety.

Mazilu et al. (2004:395) maintain that global warming does not only produce important changes in areas such as water supply, agricultural production, human settlements and distribution of various diseases, but also influences the tourism industry by creating difficulties for the economies of the affected countries, as it decreases their capacity to support their own populations and touristic programmes. According to Mazilu et al. (2004) the impact of the climatic elements (global warming) on the tourism industry is reversed or altered seasonality; the increase of rainfall in some parts of the world and the decrease thereof in others; an increase in diseases (infectious and vector-borne diseases); spiralling insurance costs and associated financial losses; food insecurity, affecting food supplies for both citizens and visitors; manpower shortages; and severe drought.

The other effects of the climate change on (Mazilu et al., 2004) the tourism industry include about 4 777 natural disasters, which occurred at the beginning of the 21st century, and affected

880 000 people of which 1 880 lost their homes. These losses amounted to about 700 billion of USD. The current concentration of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere will increase, of which the US emits 5,9 billion tons a year; China 4,7 billion; Russia 1,7 billion; Japan 1,3 billion; India 1,1 billion; Germany 862 million; and Canada 588 million, followed by Great Britain, Korea, Italy, South Africa, Ukraine, Spain and Brazil. Nearly 183 bird species will be extinct, constituting 12 percent of the world total and 1 130 small mammal species, amounting to 25 percent of the entire world fund. The number of people to be affected by major disasters in the next 10 years is expected to reach 211million, through deforestation and drought. The most affected destinations will be Asia, South and Central Europe, and Sub-Saharan Africa (Mazilu et al., 2004).

According to Mazilu et al. (2004), the turnaround strategy to remedy the situation above include, inter alia, the need to intensify training and education in respect of environmental protection; drastic reduction of major pollutants in human settlements, which offer tourism-related functions or activities; a decrease of mass consumption and mass tourism; consumption and utilisation of the lesser known tourism products and services, with a view to alleviating mounting pressure upon better-known; a more strict application of environmental laws and regulations; the issuance of clear statements and directives of some environmental objectives to all stakeholders in the tourism industry to utilise alternative energies, reduce pollution, conserve green areas and collect waste selectively; and finally, as tourism is one of the economic sectors which pollutes the environment, it has to find a way of reducing its own emissions by 50 percent by 2020, and beyond.

The tourism industry as a whole is vulnerable to a wide range of disasters, crises and risks. Some are of short duration, while others last an extended period of time. They affect the industry in the destination itself, in origin markets or competing destinations.

2.1.2 Terrorism, war and political unrest

The tourism sector is not immune to safety-related incidents like terror, war and political crisis. Tourism and security are interrelated, and creates a travel security quagmire. When security incidents like terrorism, war, and political unrest take place in any destination, the tourism sector, tourists and the wider community become adversely affected (Mansfeld et al., 2011; Maditinos et al., 2008 and Sönmez, 1998). Terrorism, war and political instability instill an element of anxiety amongst the tourists. These concepts are defined hereunder as follows:

The question of terrorism is fraught with so many conceptual problems that a universally accepted definition does not exist (Jongman, 1988 and Laws et al., 2007). The famous cliché “one person’s terrorist is another person’s freedom fighter” lends credence to the various definitional problems (Sönmez et al., 1998). Terrorism is defined as “premeditated, politically motivated violence perpetrated against civilians and unarmed military personnel by subnational groups [...] usually intended to influence an audience and international terrorism as involving citizens or the territory of more than one country” (Sönmez et al., 1998:117). Lerbinger (2012:185) defines it as “the deliberate maiming and menacing of the innocent to inspire fear for political ends” and or “a special form of clandestine, undeclared and unconventional warfare without any humanitarian restraint or rules.” Political instability refers to a situation “in which conditions and mechanisms of governance and rule are classified as to their political legitimacy by elements operating from outside of the normal operations of the political system” (Meditinos-Vassiliadis et al., 2008:72).

The dynamics of terrorism, war and political instability as some of the disasters, crises and risks that affect the tourism sector and tourists, are gleaned from the scholarly work of Dolnicar (2007), Sönmez et al. (1999), Lerbinger (2012), Maditinos-Vassiliadis et al. (2008), Pforr (2006), Blake et al. (2003), Scott et al. (2010), Laws et al. (2007), Baker (2014), Sönmez (1998) and Araña et al. (2007), and they are, though not exhaustively, as follows:

Terrorism, wars and political instability have been escalating since the 1970s (Sönmez et al., 1999) and reaching their peak in the mid-1980s (Sönmez, 1998). These disasters increase tourists' perceptions of travel risk and subsequently influence their travel decisions. Perception of travel risk is complex (Sönmez et al., 1999) and tends to depend on a range of factors such as: type of risk, media coverage, previous tourist experience, and demographic characteristics of tourists. For example, Mansfeld et al. (2011) suggest that tourists' nationality and level of experience influences their reactions to terrorism. Many scholars unanimously agree that being safe on a vacation (Baker, 2014; Blake et al., 2003 and Scott et al., 2010) is an expected requirement for any visitor in any given destination. Thus, tourists tend to substitute unsafe destinations with safer ones (Baker, 2014; Dolnicar, 2007; Laws et al., 2007; Sönmez et al., 1999; Pforr, 2006; and Araña et al., 2007). Acts of terrorism, war and political instability damage the image of the destination (Meditinos-Vassiliadis et al., 2008, Sönmez et al., 1999 and Sönmez, 1998) and scare off potential visitation.

According to Mansfeld et al. (2011), terrorism can manifest itself in three forms: domestic, international, and cross-border terrorism. There is a relationship between tourism and terrorism and is manifested in the following scenarios: terrorism is aimed at civil targets, but affects tourists as well; terrorism that is geared towards economic targets that are functional and, lastly, terrorism that targets tourism and or tourists, since both are regarded as "soft targets", which

enjoy a lot of media coverage. The main reason why tourists are turned into soft targets by terrorists [and by extension criminals] are advanced by Mansfeld et al. (2011) as follows: firstly, they tend to carry much portable wealth; secondly, they ignore normal precautions; thirdly, they are not familiar with their novel surroundings; fourth, they are less inclined to report crimes; fifth, they may not identify their assailants correctly; and lastly, they do not return to foreign destinations as witnesses at trials even if they are requested by the criminal justice systems. Disasters, crises, and risks such as wars have a major impact on tourism demand (Sönmez, 1998; Maditinos-Vassiliadis et al., 2008 and Mansfeld et al., 2011). Wars are historically synthesised into the following typologies: Cross-border wars; trans-border wars; wars of attrition, and civil wars (Mansfeld et al., 2011). Civil or political unrest take the form of coup d'état; violent demonstrations; uprisings, and riots (Mansfeld et al., 2011).

Political instability is caused by – amongst other factors – terrorist attacks, and this subsequently leads to a decline in tourist arrivals (Seddighi et al., 2001 and Stafford et al., 2002). This was the case with September 11, 2001 attacks on Washington DC (Baker, 2014; Blunk et al., 2006 and Bonham et al., 2006). This caused a shift in the preferences of travellers for particular destinations (Baker, 2014 and Laws et al., 2007). Other examples of terrorist attacks that have affected tourism negatively are: the 1984 and 1987 terrorist incident in Spain, which led to a reduction of 140 000 tourists (Baker, 2014), the 1991 Persian Gulf War (Sönmez, 1998 and Sönmez et al., 1999); the 1989 conflict in Tiananmen Square in China led to thousands of tourists (11 500) cancelling visits to Beijing; lower numbers of British and German tourists arrivals in Greece due to political instability and terrorism in the years 1964, 1988 and 1991 (Meditinos-Vassiliadis et al., 2008); the frequent suicide bombing of local buses in Tel Aviv (Mansfeld et al., 2011); and, Operation Desert Storm, which led to a reduced number of inbound and outbound travelers in North America, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Turkey,

and the United Arab Emirates (Sönmez et al., 1999). Other notable cases of political conflict include the disintegration of Yugoslavia, conflicts in Palestinian and Israeli in the Middle East, and conflict between India and Pakistan, while tourism was adversely affected during Zimbabwe's Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) in 1965, which was followed by a 15-year liberation war, which lasted until 1990. Due to 1967-1969 war Zambia had low tourist arrivals (Sönmez et al., 1999). Mansfeld et al. (2011) lend credence to this scenario by stating that security-related incidents alter tourists' perceptions of risk, and thus are always translated into travel decisions. These can manifest themselves in the form of: cancellations of booked trips, avoiding travelling to affected destinations, moving to a safer place, evacuating the affected destination or returning home.

Santana-Gallego et al. (2016) have also analysed the impact of terrorism, crime and corruption on tourism with respect to the attractiveness of the country, and subsequently divided 170 countries into two categories, namely, 'countries-attractive to tourists' (those with more than two World Heritage sites) and 'countries unattractive to tourists' (those with 0,1 or 2 World Heritage sites). Their findings reveal that the effect on terrorism on leisure tourism in both categories do not differ. The difference lies with business tourism. Terrorism has no effect on business tourism in countries attractive to tourists. The opposite holds true for countries unattractive to tourists, where terrorism affects business tourism negatively. Their findings were corroborated by Altindag (2014), who argue that if tourists are attracted by a rich basket of a country's tourism offerings, they may not necessarily be discouraged by the crime rate. Simply put, it could be argued that a country's attractiveness partly overshadows the risk of becoming a victim in a given destination. Perceived level of corruption has a discernable impact on businesss tourism in countries that lure many tourists. This implies that the country's attractiveness ameliorates the effect of instability on inbound tourism. Terrorism, crime and

corruption has less of an effect in countries endowed with a vast array of heritage sites that attract tourists. This explains in part why it is not easy to visit substitutes for such destinations (Santana-Gallego et al., 2016).

Furthermore, Santana-Gallego et al. (2016) shed more light on the interconnection between instability and tourist arrivals in developing and developed countries. They contend that terrorism has a large impact on visitation to developing than developed countries. This is attributable to violence in the former. Paradoxically, crime has a more noticeable impact on total and leisure tourism in developed countries than developing ones, possibly because tourists expect high levels of crime to exist in the latter and they become resilient to it. The above scholars argue that corruption adversely affects business tourist arrivals in developing countries, but amazingly, increases tourist arrivals in less developed destinations or countries. Their analysis reveal that political and institutional instability, expressed in terms of terrorism, crime and corruption, negatively affect international tourist arrivals. Saha et al. (2015) argue that countries with lower levels of corruption attract more international tourists. They further stress that the effects of political instability on tourism can last at least one year, and fade away a year later. Some destinations are more resilient to terrorism, crime and corruption, as they recover more quickly than others facing similar challenges (Saha et al., 2015).

According to Santana-Gallego et al. (2015), on the 26 June 2015, 38 British people were killed by terrorists at a tourists resort in Port EL Kantaoui, in Tunisia. This was perceived as an enormous human tragedy. Tunisia gets almost 15% of its GDP from tourism, and the economic consequences were dire, as many tour operators and air companies were obliged to do adjustments, or cancel tourist bookings. Many potential tourists shifted their travel trips to safer destinations, such as Spain or Italy. These scholars reveal that the attack was not an isolated

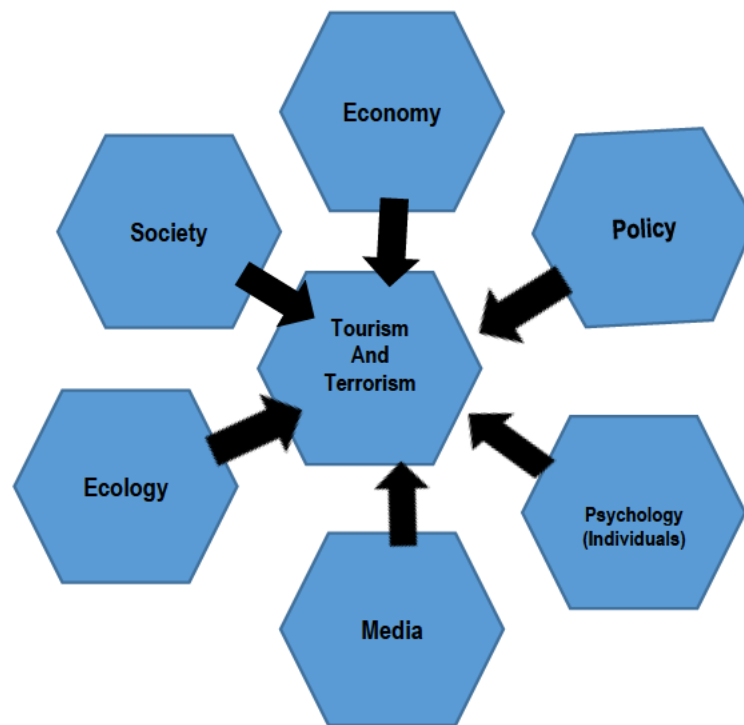
incident, as there were others elsewhere. Mention could be made of France (1 death), Kuwait (27 deaths), Syria (20 deaths), and Somalia (reported 70 deaths). The authors add that terrorism is, however, not only the risk factor affecting tourism destination choices. They argue that other factors, such as crime and corruption, also destabilise the tourism industry greatly. The countries experiencing terrorism, crime, and corruption are not able to develop their tourist sector, despite its massive potential cultural and environmental attractiveness. They argue that terrorism and crime have a direct cost (value of damaged structures, lives lost or damaged, injuries sustained and cleanup) and an indirect cost (high insurance premiums, higher security cost and lost commerce). Santana-Gallego et al. (2015) argue that terrorism, crime and corruption jointly act as deterrents to travellers, because tourists want to go to safe places. If tourists perceive a risk of injury, death, or a highly stressful situation, they will naturally avoid such a destination. In certain cases, tourists are used by terrorists as political targets, to gain more media coverage. Violence, as well as crime- and corruption-infested destinations are at a disadvantage, because governments in tourists' origin countries will advise against travelling to them. Consequently, travel agencies would cancel tours due to inadequate bookings or a fear of liability suits. Finally they would then promote other destinations perceived to be much safer. Terrorist attacks and political riots can damage infrastructure that supports the tourism sector (Santana-Gallego et al., 2015).

Other major negative impacts of these incidents (Mansfeld et al., 2011 and Sönmez et al., 1999) are as follows: peace, safety and security in the host nation are affected, and this in turn affects the primary conditions required for successful tourism development, where tour operators are negatively affected, and their business performs weakly; the affected tourists generating markets are excluded by government-regulated tour operators; they stop operations in affected markets, and have to temporarily relocate their travelling clients; the quality of security

infrastructure [alarms, metal detectors] become degraded, attributable to the fact that many employees become redundant; there is shortage of capital for regular upgrades; and a great deal of resources must be channeled towards rehabilitation of the affected infrastructure once the threats are over; the marketing campaigns of many transnational hotel and restaurants chains are removed from their global distribution networks and they cease to operate in affected destinations; many companies are forced to restructure their human resources. Consequently, employees become redundant as they are left with little capital to operate, and this ultimately impact adversely on the quality of their services, products and customer satisfaction. Finally, there is a sharp increase in insurance premiums and the demand for airline and cruise lines is reduced and this causes profit and general economic losses.

The impacts of terrorism in particular can thus be synthesised into six main typologies using multidisciplinary approach (Laws et al., 2007). They are captured by the following figure:

Figure 2.1 Typologies of terrorism



Source: Laws et al., 2007

The above can be summarised as follows: Economy: differences in the economic condition between states, particularly the allocation of resources due to tourism, which could be found unjust; Society: social problems, in matters of social levels, classes as well as value, norms, cultures, traditions or religions, are exacerbated by tourism; Ecological or environmental destruction and pollution of the environment due to the use of natural resources by tourism; Psychological variables: a drastic change in individual, psychological factors (attitude, behavior) as intrinsic motivation of terrorist activities; Policy: political backgrounds are certainly one of the core central reasons for terrorists, for instance, the various forms of participation and non-participation in the source of political power. Thus, political minorities are often agents of terrorists' activities. Finally, media have become an instrument or mouthpiece for terrorists (Laws et al., 2007:131)

Terrorism is highly disruptive to the tourism sector and the economies of destinations, and as such, needs to be dealt with rigorously. Lerbinger (2012:200-206) advances the following measures to deal with terrorism. A synopsis is as follows: reduce vulnerability to threats, becoming aware of an organisations' vulnerabilities and seeking ways of reducing them; installing security measures, and reducing the frustrations that lead to aggression; strengthening security measures: beefing up security offices and assigning intelligence function to them; employing chief risk security officers to take charge of duties related to cybersecurity like e-discovery, records retention, disaster recovery; defusing frustrations (removing conditions that trigger frustration amongst people); engaging in intelligence activities (create "space" for intelligence personnel to infiltrate terrorists with a view to alert a target person or organization of an imminent action); improve preparedness (put in place employee awareness and education programs to make "counter-espionage mindset" part of the corporate culture, and improve alert systems); exercise security measures and enforce laws to deter illegal actions; arrest and imprison the perpetrators of aggressive acts; take defensive action and institute product recalls.

Terrorism, war and political instability cannot be easily avoided by governments and economic sectors including tourism. To this end, Lerbinger (2012:186) cautions that all organisations must be prepared for terrorist acts which might take the following forms: "kidnapping of executives, workplace violence, mailing of bomb or anthrax-laden letters, extortion attempts, corporate espionage, cybercrime, placement of malicious rumours and defamation by the Internet."

2.1.3 Diseases

Tourism has many benefits over and above those of creating jobs and boosting economic growth. It does have health benefits as well, and contribute to the well-being of travellers.

However, it is prone to certain health hazards. Tourists are prone to health risks in places where there is, for instance, poor hygiene and sub-standard accommodation. Travelling is a major factor in the outbreak of diseases since human movement acts as an outlet for spreading diseases. Diseases have an adverse effect on the sector and its visitors.

Henderson (2007) maintains that sanitation standards at destinations are at the core of the causes of certain diseases. He cites an example of special interests tourists in South East Asia and the South Pacific, which is prone to vector- and water-borne diseases. Such diseases are on the increase, due to: more remote sites are opened up for tourism; foreign travelers increasing; lack of money and health care facilities to cure diseases; the process of globalisation, the attitudes and anxieties of tourists; and an increase in the use of cruise ships wherein gastrointestinal diseases are regularly recorded. Laws et al. (2007) further point out other diseases such as avian influenza ('bird flu') in Hong Kong. This is a strain that can kill people, and which discouraged visitations in the late 1990s. Bioterrorism is another serious health issue (Henderson, 2007 and Lerbinger, 2012).

Lerbinger (2012) highlights the issues pertinent to bioterrorism in the following fashion: Americans became exposed to bioterrorism when many anthrax-laced letters were sent out by an unknown person in September 2001, which occurred in the aftermath of the World Trade Centre and Pentagon terrorist attacks. The letters were meant for lawmakers and the media. Finally, they killed five people, injured seventeen, and caused major disruptions in the Senate. Other destructive forms of bioterrorism comprise, inter alia, the unleashing of smallpox, anthrax, Ebola, gene-spliced bacteria. The most fearsome scenario is the use of bioterrorism in war. Current history is replete with many countries that have biological weapons. Iraq, Iran, Libya, and China, constitute classic examples (Lerbinger, 2012).

Severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) and foot and mouth disease are other health scares, which afflicted (Henderson, 2007; Maditinos-Vassiliadis et al., 2008 and Laws et al., 2005) the tourism industry negatively. Laws et al. (2012) argue that SARS originated in the Southern Chinese Province of Guangdong in 2002. These scholars maintain that it has a mortality rate of 14-15%, and has no cure so far. They further indicate that a total of 8 096 cases in 29 countries, and 774 cases in Asia and China were recorded by July 2003. So far, the SARS remains a classic example of an epidemic, which has had a negatively pronounced impact on the tourism sector worldwide. Maditinos-Vassiliadis et al. (2008), Laws et al. (2005) and World Travel and Tourism Council (2003) capture them in the following manner: international tourism arrivals fell 1,2% to 694 million in 2003; air travel to destinations affected by the advisories decreased drastically; many companies in the USA, in particular, reported a 20% drop in employee travel as a result of SARS; tourist arrivals in the Asian countries such as China, Hong Kong, Vietnam and Singapore decreased by 41%, and this amounted to 9% drop compared to the year 2002; the FIFA Women's World Cup, initially scheduled for China, was moved to the USA; the International Ice Hockey Federation cancelled the 2003 IIHF women's world championship tournament, which was scheduled to take place in Beijing; the Chinese cuisine restaurants in Guangdong, Hong Kong and Chinatowns in North America recorded a 90% decrease in customer supply; the airlines in Singapore were forced to rationalise and stop operations; and visitor attendance at tourist attractions were reduced, alongside retail spending.

Diseases affect tourism and tourists, and cause health and economic losses. It is incumbent upon the industry and various stakeholders to introduce response strategies to manage them. The selected response strategies to diseases, as proposed by Henderson (2007), Laws et al. (2005) and Lerbinger (2012), are posited as follows: pandemic preparedness; provision of

improved health infrastructure; vaccine campaigns; preparedness by the given organisation; dealing with ethical issues in advance; public education; adherence to World Health Organisation's alert levels; as well as quick and decisive response.

2.1.4 Crime

Tourism is a growing sector, which creates many job opportunities and contributes to the general upliftment of many economies around the world. The industry itself, as many tourism scholars argue, shares a relationship with several factors influencing it, both negatively and positively. For instance, Biagi et al. (2012) studied the effect of tourism on crime in Italy, using a dynamic panel approach for the time period 1985 to 2003. The main thrust of the study was to empirically test whether total crime in Italy is affected by tourist arrivals. Their findings revealed that tourism does lead to an increase in organised crime. Their findings also indicate the fact that when tourist arrivals increase, the number of people in circulation will also increase, thus giving rise to many victims, and the subsequent increase in crime rate. Their findings confirmed the relationship between tourism and crime in destinations. They are indicative of a multidirectional relationship between tourism and crime. This is more so the case as crime does affect tourism as well. Their strand of analysis also indicates that the resident population has a greater effect on crime than does a tourist one. The above scholars attribute the latter to the effects of agglomeration.

Altindag (2010) investigated the impact of crime on international tourism in 34 European countries for the time period 1995 to 2003. The panel approach was employed as a research method to realise the goals of the study. His findings brought to the fore the fact that *violent* crimes such as assault, robbery, homicide, and rape are negatively correlated with inbound

international visitors, as well as tourism revenue. This in turn leads to a lack of sustainability of tourism-led development, which is brought to bear when criminal activity proliferates.

The crime that prevails in the Caribbean is much different to the types already posited above. Johnny et al. (2007) investigated whether the frequency of crime on the Caribbean Island of St. Lucia has an impact on tourist arrivals to the island, and whether there is a relationship between the two. The study covered the time period 1996 to 2004, and secondary analysis was employed to analyse the primary police crime data. The investigation revealed that the most common types of crimes perpetrated against the visitors were: theft; robbery; serious assault; the use of drugs; rape; racially motivated violence; multiple murders; gang warfare and killing of innocent people. These crimes occur mostly where the island main tourism infrastructure is found. The frequency of crime has an adverse impact on the tourism sector in St. Lucia. The study touched on the impact of crime as follows: crime forces tourists to change their travel plans to a crime-infested destination, and choose a safer destination, where, there is a negative correlation between the frequency of crime and tourist arrivals in St. Lucia, which effectively implies that tourist arrivals will decrease as the frequency of crime escalates; and where the increase in crime against citizens tallies with an increase in crime against tourists. The study suggests that the government should set up a Tourism Police Unit and a Tourist Court to deal robustly with crime in the industry.

2.1.5 Technological Crises

Science and technology is applied by humanity to harness the physical environment, to fast track socio-economic development, and to solve problems. However, in the ensuing process of the application of these fields, there are many technological crises that result. Lerbinger (2012:131) regards technological crises as “accidents which arise from relatively unknown,

untested, or unsuspected aspects of technology”. He cites the following classic examples: space exploration by National Aeronautics Space Association (NASA); construction of nuclear power facilities; extraction of oil from deep sea waters; the invention of genetically modified (GM) crops; new drugs and use of nanotechnology.

According to Lerbinger (2012), particular technological crises which cannot be left unexamined include: the falling of the walkways in the Kansas City Hyatt Regency, which claimed 114 lives in 1981, [and] the Chernobyl explosion of 1986 whose long-term effects of radiation would still be felt for another 150 years. There are still today some bans of meat consumption that extend beyond Belarus, Russia and Ukraine to markets in Sweden and Britain, which are attributable to that explosion. Technological crises affect many sectors of the economy and tourism as well (Lerbinger, 2012). Technological disasters, crises and risks have differential impacts on the local people, tourists, destinations and infrastructure. They are complex in nature, and the tourism destination managers must learn about them, and most importantly, know how to deal with them prior to their occurrence, as well as in their aftermath, so as to maximise tourist experiences, and the resultant economic gains.

2.2 Economic structure

This refers to the interplay of the various sectors and subsectors of the economy; the means of ownership and systems used for production; and the role of capital used for productive purposes.

Countries such as Dominica and Bangladesh have managed to contain their ‘macroeconomic vulnerability’, even though they suffered huge losses in their agricultural and tourism sectors. However, these sectors managed to recover from natural hazards, largely due to resilience embedded in them. It is the structure of the economy, which enables certain countries to suffer

relatively less from disasters, crises and risks. Benson et al. (2004:18) cite the example of Zambia, which suffered modestly from drought in the 1980's before the collapse of copper mining, and Botswana and Namibia in the 1990's.

2.3 Stage of development of an economy

According to Benson and Clay (1998) "the stage of development of an economy, measured in terms of the degree of sectoral, geographic, and financial integration, levels of economic specialisation, and government revenue-raising capabilities, is likely to influence vulnerability to natural hazards". Benson et al. (2004) and Granvorka et al. (2013) maintain that technologically less developed countries (TLC's) are more vulnerable to natural hazards than are their rich counterparts. However, the losses that the latter might incur from the impact of tourism disasters, crises and risks are relatively less as compared to those of the former. It is further argued that relief and rehabilitation efforts in poor nations are easily met through external assistance. Nevertheless, disasters and crises can lead to destruction and loss of life. The problems of indebtedness and poverty faced by the poor economies could also be worsened by the occurrence of disasters, crises and risks.

Benson et al. (2004:18) concur that countries whose economies are at intermediate level of development can deal with disasters, crises, and risk more successfully, because they have the following positive attributes: they do not rely much on international aid, because they are well endowed from resource and capital point of view; their financial sectors are more vibrant and play a key role in dealing with the impacts of disasters and crises through the provision of private savings and transfers, which not only mitigate the impact of natural hazard, but also assist to spread the effects widely (as was typically the case with Zimbabwe after the 1991/92 drought); they invest more heavily in risk reduction and environmental management; they

exhibit very low levels of poverty; more of the assets in these countries are owned by the private sector, and are sufficiently insured against disasters; and it is only a small percentage of their population which suffers loss of income, assets, and savings in the advent of disasters, crises and risks.

According to Handmer and Thompson (1997:15), what would normally appear to be minimal damage caused by a particular natural disaster in a larger, more prosperous country can assume devastating proportions for a small island economy, because of the temporary or permanent displacement of its markets for economic outputs. Disasters have the capacity to disrupt the entire economy, destroy transport, power and telecommunications networks, productive capacity and social infrastructure, and can cause an exodus of human capital (Benson et al., 2004).

2.4 Prevailing socioeconomic conditions

According to Benson et al. (2000), the socioeconomic factors that can either ‘dampen or amplify’ the impact of disasters, crises, and risk events include, but are not limited to, the following: internal macroeconomic policies such as economic reform strategies; policies governing food marketing, foreign exchange management or procurement of food; policies that are designed to deal with disasters, crises and risks – for example, how to keep inflation under control, encourage investment and generate funding for disaster, crises and risk reduction, rehabilitation and preparedness purposes; the foreign policy climate also influences vulnerability (the classic examples being banana production, which was revitalised by preferential trade agreements in Dominica, and the deindustrialisation process unfolding in Malawi as a result of the reintegration of South Africa into the regional economic setup); fluctuations in export and import prices, which can either alleviate or exacerbate the impacts

of disasters, crises and risks on the balance of payments and inflation; the coincidental nature of other shocks, particularly war, for example, the conflict in Mozambique disrupted Malawi's transport system, and led to an influx of refugees; the HIV/AIDS and other diseases, such as foot and mouth disease in Britain in 2001, and bird flu in South East Asia in 2003/2004 (Pforr, 2006; and Scott et al., 2010) afflicting humankind, while undermining efforts to deal with the impact of disasters and crises, and straining financial resources of poorer states (Dolnicar, 2007 and Maditinos et al., 2008).

The scholarly work of Kapiki (2012) entitled, "The impact of economic crisis on Tourism and Hospitality: Results from a study in Greece", brings to the fore the nature of crisis situations which affect certain country destinations. The study covered the time period 2009 to 2012, and was conducted in the aftermath of the economic contraction, which began in the U.S. in 2007. It was during this period that Greece underwent a serious economic and political crisis, which also impacted on its tourism and hospitality sector. A study by Kapiki (2012) reveals the impact of this as follows: the hospitality and tourism sector experienced many challenges as a result of the global economic crisis. The two sectors faced declining capital market and spending power of the corporate sector and consumers. Businesses experienced a drastic decline in sales of lodging, foodservices, events, and hospitality products; of which some had to close their operations. According to Kapiki (2012), the Greek tourism industry recorded some negative rates, which reflected a massive decline in contribution to the GDP (2007-2010:2%); international tourism receipts (2007-2010:18, 06 %); average per capita expenditure (2007-2010:12%); and market share world-receipts (2007-2010:0, 4%). Unemployment increased to 16,3% and the wages of civil servants declined by 30-40% - an indicator of a serious political crisis.

The Kapiki (2012) study furthermore illustrates the relationship between tourism and politics. The two variables share a relationship, in which local and international political factors and development influence tourism flows, and the environment in which the sector functions. The scholar argues that tourism has an effect on political structures and processes, and is therefore worth a critical policy area to pay attention to, if the government seeks to maximise its socio-economic and political opportunities. He cautions that, however, the government's actions, ideologies and political developments have the potential to set in motion a multiplicity of crises and political instability in a common catalyst. Greece was facing a serious political crisis, namely, the convergence of both economic and political crises, which gave rise to many other challenges and led to the legitimacy of the government coming into question (Kapiki, 2012).

2.5 Other factors which cause human vulnerability to disasters and crises

Other factors increasing human vulnerability to major disasters are increasing urbanisation and environmental degradation. To this effect, McGuire (2002:28) concurs that as a result of urbanisation, many people in the developing countries will soon be living in cramped, poorly located and badly built megacities, with populations that exceed eight million people. He further argues that about 40 years ago, cities such as New York and London had populations of 12 and 8.7 million, and that around 2015, cities such as Mumbai, Dhaka, Karachi and Mexico City will be densely populated. Such densely populated cities are highly vulnerable to major disasters, such as earthquakes, floods and rainstorms. This problem is compounded by environmental degradation. The prospects of solving it are low, and a series of true 'mega' disasters are lying ahead (McGuire, 2002).

McGuire (2002) further points out that the future increase in populations and human vulnerability will occur against the backdrop of climate change. The 2001 report of the

Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) reiterated this, by stating that the rapid warming will lead to rises in sea-level that might exceed 80 centimeters, and that the occurrence and resultant impact of storm surges and tsunamis will increase. The high level of coastal erosion will be set in motion. There will be an increase in extreme meteorological events, which comprise hurricanes, tornadoes, floods, landslides, and volcanic eruptions. According to the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies' 2001 World Disasters Report, the yearly numbers of major disasters [and crises] attributable to storms, landslides, droughts and floods have increased from around 200 before 1996, to nearly 400 in the first year of the millennium. This reveals that this situation will become worse, because people who live in low-lying coastal areas will be killed by heavy rainfall and rising sea levels. The report adds that across large swaths of Africa and Asia, the opposite will hold true, as many people will be killed by drought and resultant famine.

2.6 The key elements of disasters, crises and risk situations affecting the tourism industry

These key elements of disasters, crises and risk situations, as distilled from the work of Faulkner (2001), and Faulkner and Vikulov (2001), are attributable to a number of factors. Mention could be made of a triggering event (flooding), which is so significant that it challenges the existing structures, routine operations or survival of the organisations, which trigger events that may include political crises, religious or ethnic tensions, economic decline, and climate change; high threat, short decision time, and an element of surprise and urgency; a perception of an inability to cope among those directly affected; and a turning point, when decisive change, which may have both positive and negative connotations, is imminent. As Keown-McMullan (1997:9) emphasises, "even if the crisis is successfully managed, the organisation will have undergone significant change." According to Prideaux et al. (2003),

factors that may influence tourism flows are trends, crises and disasters. A brief discussion of these factors is worth touching on below.

2.6.1 Trends

According to Prideaux et al. (2003) trends are the forces that can be identified in the present and which, if left unattended to or un-remedied, will cause disruption in the future. The level of their impact depend largely on the policies put in place by governments and the tourism industry to mitigate the worst possible outcomes. One classic example is the future impact of low birth rates in advanced countries, which might spark tensions between the retirees and economically-active workers (Willmot and Graham, 2001). For example, the Japanese population is forecast to decline by about 17, 9 million people between the years 2000 and 2050, whereas the number of people who are above 60 years of age will increase to 42%. Population changes occurring in Korea, Italy, and Spain will in future have a great impact on tourism as the national tax base falls, but consumption of health services increases (Prideaux et al., 2003).

2.6.2 Crises

Sönmez et al., (1998) define tourism crisis as

“any occurrence which can threaten the normal operations and conduct of tourism related business; damage a tourist destination’s overall reputation for safety, attractiveness and comfort by negatively affecting visitors’ perceptions of that destination; and in turn, cause 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 in tourist arrivals and expenditure”.

According to Prideaux et al. (2003) they can be described as the possible but unprecedented result of management failures that are geared towards the future course of events induced by human action or inaction causing the event.

Typical examples include nuclear war in Asia; the outbreak of foot and mouth disease in the UK; the Chernobyl disaster and the Exxon Valdez oil tanker wreck; an increase in militant religious fundamentalism; financial meltdown including global recession; and terrorism employed to achieve political or religious objectives (Prideaux et al., 2003); the impact of HIV/AIDS in Sub-Saharan Africa; the Indian subcontinent, and the Russian Federation (Prideaux et al., 2003).

2.6.3 Disasters

Prideaux et al. (2003) describe disasters as ‘unpredictable’ hazardous events that can usually only be managed after their occurrence, either by utilising contingency plans already in place or through reactive measures. Typical examples of disasters that might affect the tourism industry in future are: a pandemic caused by a new strain of flu or other unknown disease; global warming; and natural disasters, which include droughts, floods and earthquakes.

2.7 Summary

From the theoretical background posited above it is clear that every destination in the world will at some stage or the other experience disasters, crises and risks. These events can be of anthropogenic or natural origin. Disasters such as floods, storms, drought, global warming, technological crises, diseases, wars and political conflicts have far reaching impacts on the tourists’ travelling patterns. If unchecked, they can adversely affect the image of a particular

destination, and leave negative impressions in the minds of the potential tourists both locally and internationally. Negative destination image in turn discourages visitations by tourists. Disasters, crises and risks have the potential to claim the lives of the people including tourists, and cause major socio-economic losses including physical and environmental destruction. They can devastate the economy and destroy the operational capacity of a destination. Globally, the tourism industry is quite often adversely affected by both natural and human disasters that devastate it in a particular areas. This is largely attributed to the fact that tourism management lacks capability and ability to effectively handle very complex disasters, crises and risk situations. It is observed that limited progress has been made in the analysis of the impacts of disasters, crises and risks on tourism, and that the industry does not plan sufficiently for such occurrences. Crisis management strategies are sometimes reactive and development takes place with varying degrees of tempo and effort.

Chapter 3

International case studies on Tourism Disasters, Crises and Risk

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Tourism crises in the Philippines

This section focuses on terrorism, crime, political instability and natural disasters, which affected the tourism industry of Philippines in the years 1990-2001. It will be informed mainly by the scholarly work of Bierman (2002; 2003), Mansfeld et al. (2006), Hall et al. (1996), Sönmez et al. (1988) and Ritchie (2009).

3.2.1 Background

The Philippine islands (Bierman, 2003) have been inhabited by humans for more than 300 000 years. They are said to be part of the Pacific archipelago, which is located to the east of the Malay Peninsula and north of Indonesia. The archipelago has 7107 islands, of which 900 are said to be inhabited. These islands are endowed with lush tropical rainforests, scenic grandeur made of mountains, and five active volcanoes. They have a rich diversity of cultural and religious traditions, good tourist attractions, and have been used to draw more than two million inbound tourists since 1996 (Bierman, 2003).

3.2.2 Factors stifling tourism growth in the Philippines

Bierman (2003:245) cogently points out that tourism growth in the Philippines has been erratic, especially in the decade between 1990 and 2001. This was largely attributed to the economic meltdown experienced in South Korea, Taiwan and Japan during the late 1990s. The meltdown had an adverse effect on overseas tourism to all destinations from these key source markets.

Other factors that exacerbated the scenario painted above were the internal problems that Bierman (2003) and Mansfeld et al. (2006) note to have comprised the volcanic eruption of Mt. Pinatubo in 1991, severe typhoons throughout the 1990s, and political instability in 2000-01. The latter occurred during the period of President Estrada's administration and internal economic problems within the country, was marked by increased terrorism (especially Islamic terrorism) concentrated on the island of Mindanao. 'Sex tourism' was then said to be a niche market in the Philippines, but the spread of AIDS reduced its attractiveness. By Asian standards, the country was also plagued by a high crime rate. The 'sleaze element' resulted in more tourists being exposed to local criminal activity than was the case with other international tourist destinations (Bierman, 2003; Mansfeld et al., 2006).

The population of this country has increased dramatically, from 62 million to 76,5 million recorded in May 2000 Census (Bierman, 2003). It is a predominantly Christian country. It is expertly stated that it has a long history of socioeconomic inequality, with a small number of rich people and a huge number of poor people. The wide gap between the rich and the poor is said to be the root cause of the problems highlighted above, and Bierman's (2003:248) remarks lends more credence to this, namely that: "the visible social inequality in Philippine society is a festering source of political instability, crime, corruption and exploitation."

Other experts, such as Hall and O'Sullivan (1996:105) note that "issues of political stability and political relations within and between states are extremely important in determining the image of destinations in tourist-generating regions and, of course, the real and perceived safety of tourists. Ritchie (2009:36) adds that "protests, violence, civil and international war as well as political coups or incidents of terrorism can have a major impact on image, perceptions of safety and ultimately tourism demand, plunging destinations into tourism crises. Political crises

and instability can erupt into violence, war or terrorist activity.” Bierman (2002) meanwhile writes that politically inspired disasters (as was the case with the Philippines in 2001-2002) can have long and far-reaching consequences on the marketing initiatives of any given tourist destination than natural disasters. Bierman (2002:168) further remarks: “while a natural crisis can initially get substantial media attention, it is often for a relatively short, but intensive period of time. By contrast, the effect of continued, and sustained media exposure to riots, killings and political stand-offs can carry on for a much longer period of time. Potentially, it can have a more sustained impact on the perceived tourism image of a destination.”

Other factors, which do not count in this country’s favour, include its vulnerability to natural disasters. Large areas of this country are said to be vulnerable to frequently occurring violent weather conditions, such as tidal waves, strong winds, landslides and mudslides, tsunamis, and floods. This element of vulnerability (Bierman, 2003:259) is given more impetus by occasional drought. It is said to be exposed to a danger of a total of 17 volcanoes, of which five are regarded as highly active. Its location on the so-called geological ‘Ring of Fire’ makes it to be increasingly vulnerable to earthquakes, where as many as 64 earthquakes caused massive destruction between 1589 and 1990.

3.2.3 Contingency plans used by the Philippine regime

The Philippines was adversely affected by various disasters, crises and risks, which imposed an obligation on the part of the government to introduce mechanisms to deal with them. According to Bierman (2003) the Philippine regime introduced the Master Plan which incorporated the development of the satellite destinations; cultural tourism programmes; agri-tourism; health tourism; sporting and adventure tourism; eco-tourism projects; island developments and Samal Casino Resort; the development of Philippine Tourism Highway,

which involved the construction of a world-class road linking Manila to Laoag in the north and Manila and Davao via Bicol and Eastern Viayas in the south; and the construction of the southern road, which involved bridging several islands. Apart from facilitating the smooth flow of tourism traffic the Master Plan's strategic objective was to strengthen and consolidated the central government's control and sphere of influence over outlying areas of the Philippines (Bierman, 2003).

The Master Plan was however, not without its critics. Several variables torpedoed its implementation (Bierman, 2003). They comprise, amongst other aspects, disputes between the provincial governments and the Department of Tourism; funding constraints and corruption; disputes between the Philippines Tour Operators Association and the Department of Tourism; personal disputes between leading government department officials; and private industry association.

The 1991 Master Plan to guide tourism development did not have real contingency plan to deal with 'aberrant factors'. Bierman (2003:263) notes that even though tourism growth in the Philippines reached a discernable level, there were measures which the tourism authorities and the tourism industry failed to adopt in managing the range of crises which afflicted the islands. The 'ostrich approach' to a crisis is both uncomfortable and inelegant [...] the Philippines failed to address the various crises in any of its official publications. Bierman (2003) further notes that whereas the Philippine government introduced measures to manage the impact of various crises, including natural disasters, within the country, tourism authorities acted as if the crises and disasters did not exist.

According to Mansfeld et al. (2006:264), President Joseph Estrada was ousted from presidency in 2001, and Gloria Arroyo was elected as president of the country. Arroyo then appointed Richard Gordon as Secretary of Tourism. Gordon called a series of TRICONs (Tourism Related Industry Conferences), which later gave rise to the development of a marketing campaign called WOW Philippines in 2002-2003. This campaign stood on the following pillars: diversification of the image and benefits of inbound tourism to encompass a wider geographical area of the country; where the marketing strategy sought to appeal to a variety of niche markets which comprised golfing, resorts, ecotourism, meetings and conventions, business and incentive tourism, adventure tourism, diving, water sports and cultural tourism; the campaign sought to identify specific regions of the country as representative destinations for the activities mentioned above and the Department of Tourism actively took part in restoring specific districts of the city, especially Intramuros and Manila Bay's waterfront in the capital city, Manila, where tourists were offered a wide range of 'cut-price and value-added incentives' by the Department of Tourism in the Philippines. This initiative was fully supported by major tour operators, Philippine Airlines and other carriers servicing the country, and millions of Filipinos in other foreign countries were strongly encouraged to act as tourism ambassadors of their own country. The Philippine Department of Tourism, in conjunction with the government and the local media, introduced educational and promotional programmes, geared towards encouraging Filipinos to be hospitable towards tourists, and encourage hospitality and cleanliness in the country's major towns and cities. A high level of success for this was claimed by the Philippines Department of Tourism (Mansfeld et al., 2006).

The events of the late 2002 and the first half of 2003 (Mansfeld et al., 2005) highlighted the vulnerability of the SE Asian tourism industry to events which cannot be easily controlled by tourism managers. Two major events, including that of SARS and terrorism, brought to the

fore the significance of contingency marketing and [sound] management practices, to speed up recovery from crisis events. The tourism industry in SE Asia learnt a lot from the many crisis events which afflicted it. To this end, Mansfeld et al. (2006:267) conclude that: “The majority of ASEAN countries at both government and the private sector level are demonstrating a high level of professionalism in their strategic marketing approaches to the protection and recovery of their tourism industries and infrastructure from crisis events.

To sum up, the tourism sector in SE Asian countries was affected by a myriad of disasters. However, measures were taken by various stakeholders to manage disasters, crises and risks. Marketing strategies were put in place to circumvent the negative impacts of crises.

3.3 The short- and long-term consequences of disasters with specific reference to Dominica and Bangladesh

I draw here on Benson and Clay (2004), Faulkner and Vikulov (1999), Philippine Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Act of 2010 and United Nations Development Programme report (2004) to clearly illustrate the long-term socio-economic impacts of natural disasters. The opportunities that could be explored to improve the management of risks will be dealt with, and where possible, the stumbling blocks to the adoption of mitigation measures will receive consideration. Data on the experiences in both developed and developing countries will be offered so as to contribute to the development of guidelines on the assessment of proneness to disasters, crises, and risks from a socio-economic perspective. The study revolves around country case studies, namely, Dominica and Bangladesh, to give a clear understanding of the economic and financial impacts on natural disasters. A brief discussion on these two economies (Dominica and Bangladesh) is posited hereunder. A discussion on Durban will enjoy attention in Chapter Four.

3.3.1 Dominica

Dominica is a small Caribbean island, which is highly susceptible to natural disasters, such as tropical storms and hurricanes (Benson et al., 2004 and Granvorka et al. (2013). Typical examples of such disasters are illustrated in the following table:

Table 3.1: Tropical storms and hurricanes, which affected Dominica since 1978

Name of storm	Year of occurrence	Category	Wind speed
Hurricane David	1978	4	210 km/h
Hurricane Frederick	1979	-	-
Hurricane Ellen	1980	-	-
Hurricane Hugo	1989	-	-
Hurricane Lenny	1999	-	-

Source: Adapted from Benson et al., 2004

Hurricane David is said to have unleashed a huge impact on the island, as it caused a severe environmental and demographic damage, which included loss of life. The island is also prone to geophysical hazards, in the form of volcanic eruption, especially at its southern part, where the capital city with key infrastructure is found. The negative impact that natural hazards had on the economy of the island since 1978 is as follows:

The combined effect of the hurricanes, which occurred in rapid succession, caused severe damage to banana plantations, and consequently the export of this product dropped quite significantly. However, there was a recovery in banana production in 1989, as a result of the introduction of the mandatory WINCROP banana crop insurance scheme. The scheme was introduced by the marketing boards of the four Windward Island States in 1987-88. The agricultural sector is more sensitive to natural disasters, and this causes its share of GDP (Gross

Domestic Product) to decline. Infrastructural damage was caused because insufficient disaster mitigation was factored into the construction design of the buildings.

Mitigation efforts introduced in Dominica

The Dominican government introduced the following political measures to mitigate the negative impacts of natural disasters: Funding issues lessened the vulnerability of the island to natural hazards. The Dominican government offered certain tax reductions to incentivise economic recovery or increases taxation to meet disaster-related challenges; the farmers who were severely affected by natural disasters were exempted from tax for a certain period of time until they recovered fully, and assumed normal farming (Benson et al., 2004:38); early tropical storm warnings to the general public were issued; commercial media and internet were used to disseminate information on storm risks to the public; and scientific research was undertaken to enhance disaster management under the auspices of the OAS (Organisation on American States) supported with international and bilateral (U.S) financial and human resources. These projects made it easy for natural hazards to be scientifically assessed and tracked, and the Global Environment Facility (GEF) supported OAS to study the effects of climate change (Benson et al., 2004).

3.3.2 Bangladesh

This country has a total population of 130 million people, who live throughout the Ganges delta and Brahmaputra River systems, who are susceptible to multiple natural hazards such as floods, tropical cyclones, flash flooding, erosion and drought. These hazards have not only caused serious economic losses, but led to significant loss of life as well. The country is also prone to high seismic activity (Benson et al., 2004:11). The table below serves to clearly illustrate the disasters, crises and risk Bangladesh experienced since the 1960s.

Table 3.2: Various disasters, crises and risk affecting Bangladesh since the 1960s

Event	Year of occurrence	Effects
Tropical cyclone	1970	30 000 people died
War of Independence	1971	12 million people were displaced, infrastructural damage and institutional disruption
Floods	1974-75	Famine, hyperinflation and political crisis

Source: Benson et al., 2004

An analysis of the susceptibility of Bangladesh to major disasters as measured by fluctuations in GDP (Gross Domestic Product) and performance of both the agricultural and nonagricultural sectors, bringing to the fore the following negative trends: a highly volatile agricultural sector as a direct result of major disasters, which occurred in the period 1965-1975; a stifled annual growth rate in the agricultural sector; an arrested pace of economic development; the sensitivity of the productive sectors of the economy to major hazards declined with the passage of time as a pointer to greater resilience (Benson et al., 2004:12).

However, the negative picture painted above was offset by the following factors, which contributed to the development of resilience noted above: structural changes were introduced in the agricultural sector to attain recovery; where typical examples included a relaxation of restrictions on private agricultural investment and imports of equipment; rice production was increased and grain trade was liberalised; and according to Del Ninno et al. (2001), the private sector played a key role in closing temporary good gaps, thereby lowering pressure on prices

and public finance; the country also invested wisely on mechanisms to bring floods under control, intensified operations and maintenance (O&M) following the advent of the severe floods of the late 1980s. The Greater Dhaka metropolitan area and the outlying secondary towns were given protection from major disasters, and the financial sector came on board to introduce vital innovations, thus strengthening resilience to major hazards. Finally, the country was better able to microfinance both the rural and urban communities in the advent of natural hazards.

3.4 The short-term consequences of disasters in small countries

It is said that the short-term impacts of disasters are difficult to determine, due to a variety of factors, such as the geographic size of a country, its resource endowments, level of technological advancement, and the nature of a hazard itself. However, according to Benson et al. (2004), the impacts are discernable in declining GDP. It is further argued that the impacts may affect the entire economy in smaller countries, as compared to large ones, where they are confined to a geographically limited area. Small countries, such as Dominica, Fiji and Montserrat, are regarded as highly vulnerable to natural hazards. The economic activities carried out by the private sector also show a massive decline following a natural hazard such as volcanic eruption. In large economies, the impacts of disasters are said to be noticeable when extensive areas or the entire country is affected. The extensive drought, which affected Southern Africa in 1991/92, is a good example. Some of the impact of disasters is exacerbated by political conflicts and wars, for example, the War of Independence in 1971, in Bangladesh (Benson et al., 2004).

3.5 The long-term consequences of disasters in general

It is said that natural disasters can inflict great damage on capital assets. The concomitant disruptions of infrastructure and markets can, in turn, adversely affect the productivity of undamaged capital and labour. Disasters have the potential to disrupt investment plans solely meant for physical and human capital. Governments may even be compelled to put their planned projects in abeyance, and channel their energy into relief and rehabilitation efforts. Societal reconstruction may be supported through internal or external borrowing, thus increasing the level of indebtedness (Cochrane, 1994). The problem of a lack of international donors should not be left untouched, as it affects development investment aid flows. Other damage caused by natural disasters can be paid for by the insurance industry. It is also worth noting that some destroyed assets are difficult to replace, and that disasters can cause economic instability and discourage potential investors (Benson et al., 2004).

3.6 Factors causing a great change in international tourism

Literature posited by Prideaux (1999) adds other factors (neither disasters nor crises), which may cause a great change in international tourism, over and above those given, as follows: scarcity, especially of farming lands, water, marine resources and non-renewable energy; environmentalism, especially if global warming continues; the future direction of capitalism; the emergence of new trading blocs where nations collaborate in regional political and economic unions such as the European Union; a quest for political identity by ethnic and religious groups causing further divisions in a number of nations; demographic change caused by ageing people in developed countries; as well as growing populations in less advanced countries.

Prideaux (1999) contends that the role governments can play in the tourism industry to deal with disasters, crises and risks is crucial, and hinges largely on the policy development. Friedman (1999) and Lerbinger (2012) maintain that the degree to which countries are prone to shocks has increased substantively due to a rapid increase in mutually-dependent systems associated with globalisation, political alliances and new age communication technology.

There are other scholars, who hold the same views as those expressed by Prideaux et al. (2003). They include Clements and Georgian (1998), who studied the impact of political crisis on the tourism industry in Cyprus, Prideaux and Kim (1999), who examined the impact which the Asian financial meltdown had on bilateral tourism between Korea and Australia, and Henderson (1999), who drew comparison of the impact of the crisis on Thailand and Indonesia and arrived at the conclusion that tourism is vulnerable to external factors, such as economic influences; and stressed that there is indeed a need for a well-thought-out response strategy to cope with the impending unexpected.

The role of the government in response to disasters in general affects the rate at which the tourism sector can recover from them. Prideaux et al. (2003), however, argued that there is little in the tourism literature to assist governments to deal with disasters, crises and risks and their resultant impact. It is further stressed that governments around the world depend on forecasts to develop budgets, policies and plans. Policy frameworks provide both incentives and bottlenecks around which the tourism industry must work in its quest to attract investment and promote visitation. A synthesis of stumbling blocks to US tourism to Africa, undertaken by Brown (2000), revealed that political risks, which may be defined as risks that emerge from the action of governments or political forces, and that interfere with or torpedo foreign business transactions, can disrupt tourism flows. From a tourism perspective, political risks are an

epitome of the critical ingredients of some major disasters, as identified by Brown (2002), in that they might discourage foreign investors to support or extend lending facilities; impede the ability of intermediaries to undertake financial transactions; and for airlines to operate into an uncertain logistics environment. Political upheavals have had a negative impact on the tourism industries of the Philippines, Pakistan and Sri Lanka (Richter, 1999). The removal of President Marcos from the presidency of the Philippines in 1986, and Suharto from the presidency of Indonesia in 1997, is given as a good example of the kind of political upheaval that affected the tourism industry in these respective countries adversely. Corruption is but another political element that renders a particular government less capable of dealing with external shocks; because of the inherent inflexibilities that drastically reduce response mechanisms. The impact might be worsened if the government withdraws support for tourism promotion and development. On the other hand, if the government offers its support for tourism development, as was typically the case with Thailand in the advent of the broader Asian financial crisis, then the impacts might be minimal (Prideaux et al., 2003).

To illustrate in detail how political and economic factors can negatively affect the tourism sector in certain countries, this study draws on the scholarly work of Sachs (2002) and Prideaux et al, (2003) by referring to the Indonesian tourism industry. The factors discussed by these authors played themselves out during the period 1997-2002, in the following ways:

Political upheaval: President Suharto's regime collapsed in the late 1997 and political unrest reached its zenith mid-year in 1998. Much of the unrest was attributed to violence caused by students in Jakarta's universities, who were fighting for democratic change.

Smoke haze: The annual burning of forests in Sumatra and Borneo was destructive and consequently led to negative media reports.

Ethnic unrest: starting in 1997, this was set in motion by the rapid decline of the economy and increasing unemployment. Many Chinese businesses in Java were attacked by rioters. Ethnic unrest between the native Dayaks and the immigrants of Madurese in Kalimantan in 1999 led to a huge displacement of Madurese. About 50 000 of them were internally displaced.

The Asian financial crisis: The Indonesian Rupiah lost its value rapidly and this led to a dramatic increase in joblessness, bad business performance, and spiraling prices of many goods, such as food items.

Rebellion and political unrest: Separatist movements, which were politically active for many years in East Timor, Aceh and Irian Jaya, were suppressed by the Indonesian regime. Consequently, many people were killed in East Timor in the 1990s.

Religious unrest: This was largely attributed to ethnic conflicts. Following the attacks of the Chinese Christian communities in Java in 1997, the unrest affected other provinces such as Ambon. In the Maluku Islands religious clashes between Christians and Muslims were the order of the day in 2000.

The Wahid Administration: The People's Consultative Assembly (MPR), elected President Wahid as a compromise candidate in 1999. His presidency faced severe criticism, because of its inability to stabilise the economy, and its soft stance on corruption, especially as it related to Suharto family and their business allies. President Wahid was replaced by his deputy Megawati Soekarnoputri.

El Nino effect: According to Sachs (2002), the El Nino climatic disaster of 1997-98 adversely affected Indonesia's agricultural sector. Drought led to a decline in farming production, and a resultant increase in food prices.

October 12, 2002 Night Club bombing in Bali: On the night of 12 October 2002, a terrorist bombed a popular night club in the districts of Kuta Beach, Bali, killing 190 people, including about 30 British travellers, and 88 Australians.

There is, nevertheless, an acknowledgement that all countries do not experience the same level of problems. Each and every country is unique, and has its own unique problems. The critical lessons learnt from the above is that tourism managers ought to be able to plan for the future – a pointer to the critical need for certain goals to be rationalised. Firstly, for tourism destination managers to understand disasters, crises and risk; as well as their concomitant impact on the tourism sector and the tourists, and in doing so, taking into cognisance the political and economic environments within which their country operate. Secondly, for the tourism destination managers to forecast the occurrence of disasters, crises and risks accurately and timeously, with a view to manage them prior to their unfolding and their aftermath.

From the final conclusion of the events in Indonesia, as posited by Prideaux et al. (2003), it could be deduced that future disaster management plans and models should, unlike those of the past, take cognisance of the underlying social, cultural, political, and economic trends that affect every nation, as well as the region in which that nation is located. A good understanding of a particular nation's national history and the identification of potential risk factors is critically essential if disasters and crises that adversely affect the tourism industry are to be successfully managed.

3.7 Tourism disasters and crises in Australia

Faulkner and Vikulov (2001:334), examined the case of the 1998 Australia Day flood at Katherine, remarking that: “One of the certainties in the evolution of a tourist destination is that, at some point of its history, one of its visitors will be a disaster of one kind or another.”

The above remarks mean that tourist destinations are not necessarily ‘static’ in their development. They keep on changing, due to internal and external pressures induced by disasters and crises, which inadvertently affect tourists as well. As destinations evolve, it becomes imperative not to analyse only their internal environments, which are within the control of managers, but only external ones, which is impacted upon by disasters and crises. This objective could only be achieved if there is an effective disaster management plan in place, and if tourists themselves, as the prime consumers of tourism product and services, have an input in terms of how they perceive destinations, and how they could be managed.

Faulkner et al. (2001) expounded on the remarks given above, by saying that the issue of how the tourism industry deals with disasters has not received enough attention in tourism management research; even though destinations face the prospect of different forms of disasters and crises in their history. A number of other authors have raised concerns about the vulnerability of tourism destinations to disasters and crises. They include Murphy and Bayley (1989), who emphasised the attractiveness of high-risk exotic locations, and Burby and Wagner (1996), and Drabek (1995), who stressed the exposure of travellers to injury due to their lack of familiarity with local hazards. Even though this is the case, many destinations are generally unprepared for disasters and crises situations even in high-risk areas (Cassedy, 1991; Drabek, 1992), while others played down the actual or potential impacts of disasters for marketing reasons (Cammisa, 1993; Murphy & Bayley, 1989).

The tragedy that unfolded at Katherine was captured by Reed (1998) who remarked that people watched [in dismay] as the flood water rose in their dwellings and businesses. The water in the river kept rising and finally moved people's valuable possessions which, comprised inter alia, cars, caravans, fridges and livestock.

Many people, including rescue workers themselves, lost their possessions; and the structural damage that occurred rendered many buildings unsuitable for human occupation. What exacerbated the situation in which people found themselves, was the fact that there was no insurance cover for flood-related damage. The greatest challenge they faced was to reconstruct their homes. The Federal Government's natural Disaster Relief Fund provided personal assistance, while the Red Cross and Katherine Region Development Programme provided financial support. A Reconstruction Task Force was established to rehabilitate the infrastructure (Faulkner et al., 2001).

A regional (Faulkner et al., 2001) Coordination Committee was set up to assume the responsibility of long-term reconstruction. Its operation was, however, rendered more difficult by the bureaucratic mindsets within the public sector agencies involved (Walsh, 1999); inappropriate decision-making organisations, fragmented responsibilities; shortage of resources; and lack of teamwork to expedite reconstruction objectives (Faulkner et al., 2001). The flood damage was so massive that many tourism assets were *affected*. Mention could be made of the following: major hotels were completely inoperable; key tourism attraction facilities such as Katherine Gorge and the historic Springvale were severely damaged; many key tourism attractions could not recover quickly and re-establish themselves, since insurance payouts were unforthcoming; many sheds and weak building structures were submerged in sand; while the Katherine Regional Tourism Association's (KRTA) Office and Tourist

Information Center in the Central Business District (CBD) had most of its equipment and critical material to carry out its operations destroyed or lost, it therefore failed to provide the local tourism industry with the requisite service and support (Faulkner et al., 2001).

The damage inflicted on Katherine was just not ignored. The following key strategies were employed by the NT Tourism Commission (NTTC) to reconstruct Katherine:

A journalist was employed primarily to report on the reconstruction services and to reduce the effects of negative press coverage; creation of enough opportunities for the Katherine Regional Tourism Association (KRTA) manager to concentrate more on marketing activities during trade and travel shows; to assess the extent of damage and recovery potential of key tourist attractions through an audit; this was done with a view to monitor reconstruction activities on continuous basis to ascertain that marketing communications were in line with the capabilities of the industry to render services; the introduction of advertisements that resonated well with the theme of reconstruction; tourists were implored to re-book tours and accommodation because most of the records of the operators stationed in Katherine were destroyed - this was also done to inform the consumers whether the services and products they required were available or unavailable; and the 'Katherine Back on Track' tourism promotional campaign was introduced to restore its image as a premier tourist destination (Faulkner et al., 2001).

Anderson (2005) has argued that the Australian tourism industry has been subjected to a wide range of disasters and crises which comprised the collapse of the HIH Insurance Company, the collapse of the Ansett Airlines, the World Trade Centre attacks in 2001, the 1991 Gulf War, the Asian economic crisis in 1997 and the dotcom crash in 2000. The focus revolved around the factors causing the disasters and crises, their impact on the tourism industry, and

organisational policies guiding responses provided to manage them. Tourism disasters and crises test the organisation's ability to cope (Faulkner, 2001). Pearson and Mitroff (1993) suggest that they pose threats to the viability of organisations, as well as destinations.

According to Prideaux (2003), both the tourism organisations and the Australian government were not prepared to respond to the events that unfolded in 2001. They did not have any pre-calculated response strategies. Their responses were mainly 'ad hoc basis driven', without an adequate understanding of the problems encountered and a consideration of their long-term implications. It is in view of the background posited above that tourism disasters, crises and risk need to be empirically assessed on ongoing basis, and that based on informed research, some practical mitigatory measures ought to be introduced for the well-being of the destinations and the tourists in general. Tourists too need to have certain input in terms of how they perceive disasters, crises and risk, and how their interplay affect destinations. This is the major reason underscoring the need for a study of this nature.

3.8 Tourism crisis in Washington, D.C.

On the 11th September 2001, the World Trade Center in New York and the Pentagon in Washington D.C. were attacked by Saudi nationals (Bierman, 2003). On this day, American Airlines Flight AA11, en route from Boston to Los Angeles, was hijacked. The hijackers assumed control of the plane, and diverted it to New York City, where it plunged into the 110-store twin tower New York Center. According to Bierman (2003:49), it claimed the lives of 5 219 people out of the 50 000 people who normally worked in the World Trade Center, who were killed by explosions, and the resultant collapse of the twin towers. However, with the passage of time, this estimate was reduced to 2 950.

Lerbinger (2012:6), Laws and Prideaux (2005:92), and Mansfeld and Pizam (2006:294), respectively maintain that a crisis has three notable characteristics, namely: suddenness, uncertainty, and time compression, in addition to its distinctive scale. Mansfeld et al. (2006) substantiate their comment by pointing out that a crisis usually erupts suddenly, even though it may give early detectable warning signs. The most shocking crises are those that erupt unpredictably, and suddenly (Mindszenty, Watson & Koch, 1988). Terrorist attacks fit this description, because the element of surprise enhances the terrorist's prospects of attaining their aim. The element of surprise, which is typical of terrorist attacks gives (Mansfeld et al., 2006) rise to a problem of uncertainty in terms of the kind of crisis an organisation is likely to experience, or should prepare for. It is argued (Mansfeld et al., 2006) that during the period of uncertainty, tourism managers usually have little time or resources to scan the entrepreneurial milieu for predictable external changes. It is against this background that terrorist attacks on the United States occurred. The attacks were attributable to lack of attention by management and low or poor preparedness (Mansfeld et al., 2006). Laws and Prideaux (2005) contend that "time is compressed". They argue that to avoid being subdued by the crisis, managers must make hasty decisions, which are sometimes inaccurate, incomplete or insufficient.

The attacks on the World Trade Centre put to the fore the potential risk terrorism poses for the tourism sector worldwide (Anderson, 2005). During terrorist activities tourists become easy targets and are at risk from hijacking (Faulkner, 2001). According to Sönmez (1998:427-428), "tourists substitute risky destinations with safer choices, display a delayed reaction to terrorism and show cultural differences inherent in their responses to risk." Terrorist activities (Scott, Laws & Prideaux, 2010) also force tourists to change or alter their plans, for example, 1,8 million Americans changed their foreign plans following the terrorist activity in 1985 (Sönmez and Graefe, 1998). The collapse of HIH Insurance Company in 2001, Australia's second largest

general insurer, led to the premiums for insurers increasing by about 7,5 percent, an indicator that HIH's rivals exploited its collapse to obtain premium price increases, which was stifled by limited competition(White, 2002). The terrorist attacks forced the insurance premiums to escalate, as was the case in Thorpedale, Victoria (Scott et al, 2010).

The response of the tourism industry to the disasters and crises reflected above was very important. Pearson and Mitroff (1993) suggest that the goal of crisis management is not just to generate management strategies, it is to put an organisation in strategic stead to think innovatively about the unpredictable events so that the best possible measures will be put in place in time of crisis. Faulkner (2001) attests to this by suggesting that best management involves having mechanisms for dealing with unpredictable events over which organisations exercise no control. The impacts of the disasters and crises is noticeable in various sections of the tourism organisations, such as the information systems, operations and human resources which may experience a great personal loss associated with a sharp decline in productivity, largely attributable to high levels of stress. Crisis-induced and post-crisis stress may exacerbate the size and magnitude of the event. Workers in the executive and managerial positions and other on-site leaders may offer little support to the fellow colleagues in the advent of a disaster or crisis (Scott et al, 2010).

The fundamental question the above scenario raises is as to what then could be done to circumvent such a situation, as outlined above? As per the suggestions of many authors, the following strategies may be introduced in order to deal with tourism disasters, crises and risks: management must, as part of a strategy to protect the workforce, provide it with as much reliable information as is practically possible; they must also employ a wide range of post-crisis stress reduction strategies (Faulkner, 2001); the management should take advantage of

the situation and strengthen the relationship between itself and the general workforce as they strive to restore their organisation in the unfolding of disasters and crises (Anderson, 2005); staffing levels must be adjusted, and there must be relevant policies in place to guide such a process; to cope with variations in demand, casual labour may be employed as a strategy to attain this objective; and workforce ‘flexibility’ is but another strategy that might yield dividends (Scott et al, 2010).

Many authors argue that there is a great deal that could be learnt from disasters and crises. Faulkner (2001) argues that they have ‘transformational connotations’, with potentially positive and negative consequences. However, many organisations do not learn from them. When a particular destination has been affected by a disaster negatively, it should strive to manage it creatively and return to normalcy.

Henderson (1999:197) attests to the above, noting a survey conducted by leading tourists attractions in Singapore investigating the consequences of the Asian financial crisis, which revealed that there was no crisis management planning, and that there was a need for such planning in the context of the nature of the travel and tourism industry, with its tendency for disaster, crises and risk. This finding resonates well with the observation made by Cassedy (1991), namely that many tourism enterprises do not include the possibility of disasters and crises in their strategic plans even though the industry is susceptible to unexpected change given its reliance on transportation, the exchange rate, the political situation, discretionary income and the weather. The absence of some form of disaster and crisis management planning (Spillan and Hough, 2003) reflects a mistaken assumption made by many tourism organisations and destinations that a disaster or crisis will not affect them.

3.8.1 Stages of crisis applied to the terrorist attacks in the USA and crisis management

It is contended that when an organisation or a destination is faced with a crisis it must plan for it, respond to and try to recover from it. It must also eliminate much of the crisis-related risk, and an element of uncertainty associated with low-probability and high-impact events, so as to regain its full operations (Fink, 1996 in Laws et al., 2005). An organisation or a destination must try to quickly recover to normalcy following an advent of the crisis (Laws et al., 2005 & Mansfeld et al., 2006). Laws et al. (2005), maintains that the four stages of crisis management must be well understood so as to achieve the afore-mentioned goal. The four stages of a crisis are illustrated below.

Table 3.3: Stages of crisis applied to the 9/11 Terrorist attacks on Washington, D.C., 2001

Crisis stages	9/11 Terrorist attacks on Washington, D.C.
Pre-crisis stage	Pre 9/11, 2001 Warning signs: Al-Qaeda operatives learning to fly commercial jets in the U.S.; chatter increased by Al-Qaeda sleeping cells; FBI lost track of suspected terrorist operatives.
Acute crisis stage	September 11-October, 2001 Terrorist attack on the Pentagon; making sure that guests, employees and properties were safe; rescue and relief efforts to assist the injured and victim families, reassuring the public that D.C. was open for business; making crucial decisions to conserve cash and reallocate human resources.
Chronicle crisis stage	November 2001-April, 2002

	Recovery marketing initiatives, gradually targeting the local, regional, national and international markets; hotel occupancy returning to pre-crisis level.
Crisis resolution stage	Tourist business returning to normalcy since April, 2002.

Source: Laws et al. (2005: 94)

A brief discussion on these stages is offered as follows:

Pre-crisis stage: This is described as the stage during which early warning signs of the crisis looming ahead are discernable. These signs must be acted upon by the tourism managers. If they are left unchecked for whatever reason, they still continue to give tourism managers a sense of what may potentially happen (Laws et al., 2005).

Acute crisis stage: It is said to be a ‘point of no return’, where certain damage has already been inflicted on the tourism organisation or a destination. The damage that occurs depends on the destination and the organisation’s skills, in terms of controlling and managing the crisis.

Chronicle crisis stage: this is described as a period of self-analysis by a business organisation. Damage, losses and costs to be incurred are carefully examined and analysed. Planned recovery strategies are said to be evaluated, modified and operationalised. The organisation strives to return to normalcy as soon as is possible. According to Fink (1986:86), as cited in Laws et al., (2005), companies with sound crisis management plans do not suffer the lingering effects of a chronicle crisis much as those without such a plan.

Crisis resolution stage: The enterprise’s activities assume pre-crisis levels. The destination or organisation’s operations have returned to normalcy or near-normalcy. This is the stage in which must fully be taken advantage of by an organisation or destination (Laws et al., 2005). Most tourist destinations (Mansfeld & Pizam, 2006:297) were affected by the September 11

terrorist attacks in some tangible manner, chief amongst which were those in New York City and Washington, D.C., which were the most adversely affected. Reduced flight schedules (Bierman, 2003:54), which lasted for many months, were experienced, where Reagan National Airport was closed for many weeks. It is further noted that the most well-known tourist attractions such as the White House and the US Capitol Building had few tourists subsequent to the attacks. Anthrax scares of October 2001 worsened the situation further. According to Bierman (2003), and Mansfeld et al. (2006) the hotel industry was adversely affected, and occupancy rates dropped notably. The London Financial Times (Bierman, 2003) of September 24, 2001 reported that some of the largest hotel chains in the world, namely, Six Continents (owners of the Holiday Inn and Intercontinental Chains), Accor in France, and the Hilton International Chain in California, reported a sharp decline in trading. The adverse effects also spread onto the international shipping cruise. Worldwide the terrorist attacks (Bierman, 2003) had the following touristic implications: the United Kingdom experienced a decline of 1,9 per cent total GDP of its economy and 190 000 job losses; European Union recorded a decline of 1,9 per cent total GDP of EU states, economy and 1,2 million jobs were lost; the United States experienced a decrease of 1, 8 per cent of total GDP of the US economy and 1,1 million people lost their jobs; and worldwide there was a decrease of 1,7 per cent of total GDP of the world economy and a consequent loss of eight million jobs.

3.8.2 The recovery of the hotel industry

The following associations (Mansfeld et al., 2006) came on board to promote tourism in Washington, D.C.: The Hotel Association of Washington, D.C. (HAWDC); The Washington, D.C. Convention and Tourism Corporation (WCTC); The Washington, D.C. Convention Center Authority (WCCA); The Restaurant Association of Metropolitan Washington (RAMW); and The District of Columbia Government. The recovery strategies of the above-

mentioned structures centered on the following main pillars: assuring a coordinated response by Washington, D.C. hospitality industry; campaigning to re-open Reagan National Airport and major tourist attractions; promoting government-related business travel to D.C.; building a marketing fund; and developing a marketing plan to reestablish Washington, D.C. as a must-visit destination (Irwin, 2001; WCTC, 2001 and Mansfeld et al., 2006).

According to Laws et al. (2005:101) the terrorist attacks, as highlighted above, were an unprecedented crisis, which tested the preparedness and management strategies necessary to respond to a major business crisis. The lessons that could be learnt from the crisis, include, inter alia: expect the unexpected; take care of people; adjust the financial and operational business structure; know the customers and target the right market at the right time; and build relations and networks with communities who share same sentiments (Laws et al., 2005).

3.9 Types of crises affecting tourism enterprises

According to Mansfeld et al. (2006) and Laws et al. (2005), there are two broad categories of crises that cause disastrous impact on tourism enterprises. These could be defined as those arising externally and those that are internal (self-inflicted). The two are further divided into three broad categories and nine specific types, as captured in the table below:

Table 3.4: Types of crises affecting tourism enterprises

External Factor	Physical Environment	Natural Disaster	Mudslide damages a Hillside resort; hurricane Destroys beachfront - properties.
		Technology Failure	Oil spill contaminates a resort beach and prevents tourists from visiting the resort.
	Human or Social Environment	Confrontation	Union strike disrupts normal operations; special interest group boycotts restaurant food.
		Malevolence	Terrorist attack; food is poisoned through product tempering; hackers introduce a virus into computer reservation systems; street crime.
		Epidemic	Mad cow disease and foot and mouth disease raise concerns of food safety and health problems; SARS epidemic spreads through human contact.
		War/Politics	Second gulf war prevents many international tourist to the Middle East region; recent political upheaval diminishes tourism to Haiti, Venezuela and many African countries.
	Internal Factors	Management Failure	Skewed
Deception			Restaurant Knowingly serves spoiled or contaminated food items.
Misconduct			Corporate executives embezzle funds or receive kickbacks.

Adapted from Mansfeld et al. (2006) and Laws et al. (2005)

Physical environment include hazards that emanate from nature (Laws et al., 2005) and they pose a threat to the tourism industry. A typical example is the Izmit earthquake, which destructively affected the tourism industry in Turkey in 1999 (Bierman, 2003). A notable example of technology failure is that of a spill from an oil tanker, which does not only adversely affect marine life, but also spoils beaches and discourages visitors from visiting seaside resorts. Technology failures also include aircraft crashes, power blackouts, and computer irregularities

(Laws et al., 2005). Human and social environment (Laws et al., 2005) incorporates confrontation, malevolence, epidemics and war. It is argued that confrontation, in most instances, crops up as a result of disagreement between two parties, such as between unions and business owners (Laws et al., 2005). Employee strikes, as well as consumer boycotts, are confrontational strategies that bring about crises for tourism businesses. Malevolence includes criminal acts perpetrated by individuals or groups of people against a business organisation.

Malevolent acts are attributable to issues like street crimes and other criminal acts such as the company's products being tampered with, extortion and corporate espionage (Laws et al. 2005). These acts all seek to destroy an organisation or a country's economic system. Management failures, according to Laws et al. (2005) and Mansfeld et al. (2006), include skewed values, deceptions and misconduct. They are basically caused by unreasonable financial expectations, and failures of corporate governance by corporate leaders. According to Cohn (2000), they more often than not lead to scandals and serious public relations implications. They can cumulatively affect the tourism destinations negatively and drive the potential tourists away from them.

3.10 Summary

From the theoretical background posited above, it is clear that every destination in the world will at some stage or the other experience disasters, crises and risks. These events can be of anthropogenic or natural origin. Disasters such as floods, storms, drought, global warming, technological crises, diseases, wars and political conflicts have far-reaching impact on many tourism destinations. If left unchecked, they can adversely affect the image of a particular destination, and leave negative impressions in the minds of the potential tourists, both locally and internationally. Negative destination image, in turn, discourages visitations by tourists.

Disasters, crises and risks have the potential to claim the lives of the people including tourists, and cause major socio-economic losses including physical and environmental destruction. They can devastate the economy, and can destroy the operational capacity of a destination. Globally, the tourism industry is quite often adversely affected by both natural and human disasters that devastate it in a particular areas. This is largely attributable to the fact that tourism management lacks the capability and ability to effectively handle highly complex disasters, crises and risk situations. It is observed that limited progress has been made in the analysis of the impacts of disasters, crises and risks on tourism, and that the industry does not plan sufficiently for such occurrences. Crisis management strategies are sometimes reactive and development takes place with varying degrees of swiftness and effort.

CHAPTER 4

Disasters, crises and risks in Durban, South Africa

4.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to posit as much literary information as is possible on the disasters which took place in South Africa, as well as other African states, in the past ten years, to show their root causes, and to illustrate from the vantage point of losses typical of such disasters, crises and risks, the strategies which were put in place to contain them. The chapter will also examine in-depth tourists' perceptions of Durban. The impact of the disasters, crises and risk on the tourism sector would also be elucidated. This would be followed up by an overview of how the sector can be accommodated within the broader context of disaster risk management.

4.2 Natural disasters in South Africa

This section draws largely on the scholarly work of Buys (2002), Camco and TIPS (Trade & Industrial Policy Strategies (2010), Grobler (1996), Van Riet (2009), Van Zyl (2006), Vermaak and Van Niekerk (2008), who wrote quite extensively on the subject of disasters (as well as crises and risks) faced by South Africa in general. It also reflects on the possible pragmatic ways to manage potential contagion disasters, crises and risks.

According to Grobler (1996:9), there are two main categories of catastrophes, which could be experienced in the country. They are natural, and manmade catastrophes. The former is triggered by natural forces, and can cause a huge damage in densely populated areas. The latter are less destructive, as they are induced by man himself (anthropogenic), and from a theoretical point of view, could be prevented if proper care is taken before their occurrence. His work further dwelled on many critical components of such damage, namely, loss of life, social

damage, and damage to both state- and privately-owned property, as well as economic loss, which manifests itself in the form of loss of income and earnings (Grobler, 1996:9).

Durban's tendency to be prone to major natural disasters is not a widely known subject. Nevertheless, it should not be misconstrued that it is able to avoid them. Natural disasters, crises and risks occur from time to time, the most prominent of which are floods and droughts. Metereological hazards, such as tropical cyclones, tornadoes, and severe thunderstorms, also occur (Grobler, 1996, Van Zyl, 2006). According to Vermaak et al. (2004:555), the province is not vulnerable to massive volcanic eruptions and earthquakes, but to localised incidents of veld fires; landslides following heavy rainfall; informal settlement fires; seasonal flooding in vulnerable communities; drought; and man-made disasters, such as oil spillage and mining accidents.

4.3 Metereological Events

4.3.1 Climate change

The more serious threat for the South African economy in general is climate change. Camco and TIPS (2010) argued that climate is not going to unleash direct physical impact, but that the secondary impact will be difficult to deal with if innovative and creative pro-climate initiatives are not introduced. According to Camco and TIPS (Trade & Industrial Policy Strategies 2010: IV) South Africa's trade, catering and accommodation services will face serious risks from this. This sector may be faced with exorbitant prices for raw materials, shipping and freight costs for imported goods. As a result of the gloomy picture painted above, the tourism industry has therefore been implored to take concerted efforts to solve regulatory and market related crises and risks, which will emanate from climate change. This is all the more so because of its

geographical location and its reliance on carbon intensive economy. Potential risks include, inter alia, increased travel costs from the European Union (EU) Directives on Aviation, the demand for low carbon travel in developed countries (which is perceived to be cheaper), and increased regional travel in Europe (Camco & TIPS, 2010).

According to Camco and TIPS (2010: IV), the South African and Durban tourism industry in particular, will have to innovatively embrace the development of low carbon destinations, enhanced travel and accommodation efficiencies, as well as feasible carbon offsets, to give more impetus to its growth; and its ecotourism component in particular. The question of ‘tourism-related threats’ cannot simply be left out of the equation. Safety and security must be provided for tourists. An underdeveloped ground transport system, high road traffic accidents, and critical shortage of tourism related skills must be holistically addressed to maintain global competitiveness (Camco & TIPS, 2010). The tourism industry in South Africa, just like all other sectors of the economy, is dependent on transport for its development. If the transport sector is affected, then this sector will also directly be affected. Camco and TIPS (2010:IV) accede to this assertion, by pointing out that the national aviation industry will face a great risk from climate change as a result of the enforcement of the EU Directives on Aviation. The Directives demand efficient aviation, and this compels it to impose added operational costs for operators, who can redirect air traffic flows. The maritime industry is not going to be left unaffected, because the International Maritime Organisation (IMO) is currently investigating how to reduce emissions in this sector (Camco & TIPS, 2010).

Camco and TIPS (2010: V) advise both the public and private sector to take concerted proactive measures to deal with crises and risks posed by climate change. It suggests that failure to do this will result in many markets facing increasing carbon costs, and competitiveness

constraints, which will in turn adversely affect supply chains, investors, and the financial sector. Consequently, such markets will face major reputational losses, as well as failure to keep ahead of technological innovation. It is further indicated (Camco and TIPS, 2010) that in global terms, the local economy is presently poorly positioned to address climate change issues, because of its strong reliance on fossil fuels. South Africa's climate competitiveness is also ranked amongst the lowest of the G20 countries (Camco & TIPS, 2010).

According to Buys (2005) the local strategies for communicating and making the general public aware of disasters, crises and risks and available risk reductions options are in most cases very poor even in the presence of advanced technological devices, which expedite the extreme accurate prediction, forecasting and monitoring of severe weather conditions in Durban. United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR, 2004) argues that globally, the hazards associated with climate change have had an adverse impact on communities' efforts to develop themselves economically. The Southern African Environmental Outlook (SADC, 2008) cautions that global warming has led to an increase in regional average temperatures by more than 0.5 degree Celsius over the past century. It adds that the attendant result of global warming include, inter alia, irregular rainfall, frequent flooding, and increased cyclonic activity. The Department of Environment and Tourism argues that climate change will over the next 50 years or so lead to decreased rainfall in the western parts of South Africa, and unbearably high temperatures, especially in the interior, with increased frequency of floods and droughts (DEAT, 2006:5).

Camco and TIPS (2010: VI) put to the fore three key strategies, which are central to a comprehensive climate change response, namely: firstly, private sector leadership and engagement; secondly, the need for a clearly defined and consistent policy framework; and

thirdly, the development of sector-based climate change strategies and plans. The measures stipulated above will only be useful if the entire private sector comes on board and complement them by, amongst others, ensuring that: there is an established and well-functioning national Business Support Unit on climate issues working closely with the current private sector forums; all companies establish movements of climate change up to their executive levels; and clear and formal communication avenues between business, labour, and the entire civil society on climate change.

Grobler (1996:18) states that the natural meteorological catastrophes affecting South Africa and by implication, Durban, to be the cyclones, flooding, tornadoes, and hailstorms. Chagutah (2009:113), concurs with the assertion given above, by stating that Southern Africa, of which South Africa is a part, has recently been adversely affected by ‘sudden onset climate-related natural disasters’. Unprecedented flooding has occurred in many areas across South Africa, and in 2008, more than 4 000 human dwellings and 18 000 people were affected by flooding in the Western Cape. Msengana-Ndlela (2008) indicated that the impacts of this flooding led to a state of disaster being declared in Kwazulu-Natal. South Africa (2007:16-17) documents a notable number of weather events recorded in South Africa from the years 1800 up to 1995. Of the 946 catastrophic events recorded, ‘wet’ events such as floods, hailstorms, cloudbursts and torrential rain accounted for 59 percent of cases. The ‘windy’ events such as hurricanes, gale-force winds, tornados, thunderstorms, whirlwinds, sandstorms, storms and waterspouts made up roughly 33 percent of cases (South Africa, 2007:16-17).

Broadly speaking, the frequency of natural catastrophes in South Africa was one in every three years. On average, the country experienced a monetary loss of R150m per year. The average cost per event was estimated to be around R400 million in 1996 monetary terms (Grobler,

1996:18). According to Caelum (1991), Grobler (1996) and Alexander (1993) one of the most devastating meteorological catastrophes ever to affect South Africa and Durban adversely was the tropical cyclone Domoina in 1984. The damage caused by this cyclone was attributed to winds reaching 33m/s, and torrential rainfall. It produced the most rain ever to be recorded at once in South Africa when about 597 mm was measured in one day at Lake St. Lucia in Kwazulu-Natal. Climate change is the main factor triggering the development and occurrence of tropical cyclones and this is a real danger to be borne in mind in future as it worsens. Most tropical cyclones are generated in the warm South Indian Ocean just northeast of Madagascar. Grobler (1996) notes that on average, only four of every ten cyclones originating in the southwest Indian Ocean, reach the Mozambique Channel. Their movement from this channel is of such a nature that they affect rainfall in South Africa (Grobler, 1996:68).

4.3.2 Floods

Grobler (1996:39) argues that floods cause rivers to burst their banks as (flooding) they invariably occurs around them. Following heavy rains, the river rises due to the water reaching it, because of the land phase of the flood. The areas in the floodplains around the river are subject to flooding if the river bursts its banks. The severity of the floods depends to a large extent on the river, which serves as its points of origin. He argues that the extent of a flood depends on the slope of the river and the width of its channel. The Apies River in Pretoria was a major cause of floods earlier this century. The flood plains also influence the severity of floods, for instance, a river flowing on steep slopes has a small flood plain, and the opposite holds true for a river flowing on a flat area.

The consequences of floods

As for the consequences of floods, literature survey gleaned from Grobler's work (1996), suggests that they are far-reaching and varied. Mention could be made of the following: the insurance industry can suffer huge monetary losses as a result of many claims which are lodged immediately following a flood; infrastructural damage, whereby buildings and other related structures are swept away or suffer great structural damage, with the end result that those swept away upstream may end up damaging those located downstream. This is usually the case with normal residential houses and agricultural losses, which may amount to millions of rands. Van Zyl (2006:35, 45) maintains that floods claim around 20 000 lives and severely affect at least 20 million people the world over, and that their consequences are homelessness; some epidemics and landslides; flood-related deaths especially in the Less Developed Countries (LDC's); and economic losses.

According to Takura (2011), the 2011 South African floods were the direct offshoot of constant heavy rains, and they triggered multiple negative impacts to its economy, which relies on rain-fed agricultural system. The possible short- to long-term impacts unleashed by these floods experienced by South Africa and her trading partners in the Southern African Development Countries (SADC) include, amongst others, the following: they claimed more than 100 lives; paralysed 33 municipalities, which were eventually declared disaster areas; caused massive infrastructural damage including damage to residential properties; undermined crop production and decreased yields both on commercial and subsistence farms; increased food prices in the aftermath of undermined crop production; reduced agricultural income obtained from crop sales; and affected food security and lifestyles of the nation as a whole. Other notable consequences were a further surge in total farming debt, which was estimated to have increased from over R46 million in 2009, to over R54 million in 2010, due to: farmers being obliged to borrow more money for crop production; job losses in the agro-industry; increased

retrenchments especially of migrants from the neighbouring countries like Malawi, Zambia, Zimbabwe and Mozambique; decreased consumer expenditure on goods and services; decreased exports of agricultural commodities due to poor agricultural output; derailed the objectives of the Integrated Food Security and Nutrition Programme, whose central aim is to eliminate hunger, malnutrition and food insecurity by the year 2015 in South Africa; and adverse effects on other economic sectors dependent on agriculture (Takura, 2011).

The International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC, 2011:1) concur with the above by adding another dimension in respect of the floods, which occurred in South Africa in 2011. The floods were caused by the La Niña effect, and caused unprecedented disruption of services, displacement of people, loss of livelihoods and of life as they affected more than 20 000 people in seven of the provinces of South Africa. Their damage is briefly outlined as follows:

Free State: Severe damage was caused on informal settlements where roads and bridges were badly damaged. The towns, Koffifontein and Petrusburg, had their essential services cut off. Limpopo: The Mopani and Vhembe districts were badly affected and 1 540 people were left destitute. Gauteng: The informal settlements built on dolomite were sinking due to excessive flooding in Benoni. Close to 10 000 households were seriously affected. North West: Floods and hail led to the displacement of about 417 families. Kwazulu-Natal: Houses in Harding and Ladysmith were destroyed, and over 1 845 households suffered a great loss. Northern Cape: A total of 1 939 households were badly affected especially in the area of Keimoes and Francis Baard district. Eastern Cape: Extensive damage was caused to crops, livestock and property. People displaced were around 1 500 (IFRC, 2011).

Floods have profound implications for the tourism sector in Durban. This fact is illustrated by Tempelhoff et al. (2009), who argued that the vulnerability of the tourism sector is exacerbated by lack of the following variables: sufficient early warning systems; proper infrastructure maintenance; local institutions to deal with disasters, [crises and risks]; and a comprehensive understanding of the disaster risk profile of the area in question. Tempelhoff et al. (2009) contend that the damage inflicted on the tourism sector by the December 2004-January 2005 floods in the Southern Cape was basically economic, and it manifested itself in four ways, namely: the psychological impact; structural damages to product facilities; damage to infrastructural and water pollution; and safety and protection of tourists.

The compromised safety and protection of tourists indicated above is unpacked in the following manner: lack of adequate contingency measures gave rise to jeopardised tourism products of both the private and public sectors, which in turn affected the safety of tourists. According to Liebenberg (2005), research fieldwork indicated that Hartenbos and other immediate surrounds had no effective storm water systems; the smooth operation of the Uitenhage Choo-Tjoe (a popular tourist train along the Garden Route) was put on hold, causing a revenue loss of around R700 000; the accommodation sector also suffered a great damage owing to the lack of adequate evacuation plans; building structures with no gathering points in times of crisis, lack of directives in terms of what employees should do in the advent of crisis, and an indication of how and where the major electricity points ought to be manually switched off to lessen the severity of impact (Tempelhoff et al., 2009).

The damage caused by the floods (Tempelhoff et al., 2009) was not only confined to the urban settlements. The informal settlements too were also badly affected. Most of the residents of these areas along the Garden Route were away from squatter camps to their real homes, in the

Eastern Cape, Lesotho, Free State and the like, as it was a holiday season. Their houses (squatter shacks), which were not strong and which did not offer safe shelter, were therefore significantly damaged. The information on the consequences of floods cannot be treated to very fine details, due to uncertainties regarding damage caused by natural hazards, and because of lack of damage data in South Africa (Grobler, 1996).

4.3.3 Drought

Drought can be defined as “an exogenous supply-side shock that generally causes sharp declines in agricultural output, export earnings, employment and income levels” (Austin, 2008:6). Singh (2006:5) defines it as “a protracted period of deficient precipitation resulting in extensive damage of crops, resulting in loss of yield.” There are different types of drought that this study will not investigate here in detail, but will consider as an umbrella concept its causes and concomitant impact on the economy and tourism.

The major cause of drought in Durban is rainfall variability. The El Niño phenomenon is responsible for thirty percent of such variability (Austin, 2008). Singh (2006:13) argues that climate is another key factor that influences rainfall, and adds that “scientists predict that in future, countries in the Sahel region of Africa will receive more rainfall and floods while Southern Africa will experience persistent drought in the coming decades due to the warming of the Indian Ocean which is due to greenhouse gas emissions from human activity.”

According to Backenberg et al. (2003), Austin (2008) and Singh (2006) droughts are endemic in Durban. They are a product of a complex array of biophysical and socio-economic variables (Austin, 2008). Droughts have far-reaching multi-sectoral impacts, which (Austin, 2008) spread throughout the economy, by means of (sectoral) linkages and multiplier effects. Their

impact on the agricultural community and other sectors of the economy which implicitly include tourism, are synthesised from the scholarly work of Austin (2008), Singh (2006) and Backenberg et al. (2003), and they include, but are not limited to, the following: the adverse effects which affect many areas of the society such as land quality, the area planted for local consumption and for export purposes, food imports, labour supply and rural poverty; significant deprivation, social disruption and population displacement; a major adverse influence on neighbouring countries on whom food supply is dependent; adverse impact on the agricultural share of the countries' gross domestic product due to the effects of rain-fed agricultural production; pronounced agricultural losses to commercial and subsistence farmers, reductions in food supplies and an increase in the plight of the rural communities; reduced income, drastic price increases and soil erosion, which lead to prolonged reduction in crop productivity; disruption of the normal activities of people who depend on the natural environment for food and income, and thus the impacts last for a long time after (the drought) it has ended; small farming communities are affected by poor land quality and, an intensification of farming; overgrazing gives rise to the rapid onset of grazing problems during times of low rainfall; and where the inability of people to access enough food for their survival (food insecurity) is one of the most serious impacts. Malnutrition and unemployment are closely tied up to the issue of food security.

There is no extant literature that deals directly with the impacts on drought on the tourism sector in Durban, but from the arguments posited above, it could safely be deduced that the exorbitant costs of food are passed on to consumers (including tourists). It is generally accepted that the agricultural sector enjoys an alliance with other economic sectors including tourism. The agriculture-tourism nexus is of such a nature that the problems encountered by the agricultural sector do spill over to the tourism industry. The image, sustainability and competitiveness of the tourism sector thus become adversely affected. Issues such a critical

shortage of food and the concomitant high prices also affect tourism. Tourism product owners and service providers such accommodation establishments, hotel chains, guest houses, airlines, cruise ships etc. are affected by losses in the agricultural sector. The same applies equally well to the resources like soil, labour and natural environment on which the tourism industry depends, where their deterioration inadvertently affects tourism. Drought can therefore be regarded as a catastrophe with the potential to shape tourists' perceptions of South Africa as a tourism destination. It can even affect visitation to the country, because of the unattractive and eroded landscape, critical water shortages, food supplies, and associated losses of fauna and flora.

The impacts of drought on the economic sectors including tourism warrant future attention in research. Disaster, crises and risk management has become more important in the country as improvements with regard to ameliorating the impacts of drought are slowly being prioritised (Austin, 2008). According to Van Zyl (2006), disaster management is an ongoing and integrated multi-sectoral, multi-disciplinary process of planning and implementing strategies to combat disasters, crises and risk. These strategies comprise disaster prevention, emergency preparedness, rapid and effective response to disasters and post-disaster recovery. The component of disaster risk reduction is also included in disaster management (Van Zyl, 2006).

According to Austin (2008), drought risk reduction is another important key strategy that could be used to manage drought, and this method seeks to increase the level of anticipation, resistance and recovery of a household, community or area from the effects of a drought without external intervention. Risk reduction, encompasses a process of identifying, measuring, and assessing risks posed by different disasters. Van Zyl (2006) adds that the matter of reducing vulnerability and drought mitigation are critical aspects of drought risk reduction.

An enhanced adaptation to climate variability by employing relevant development policies will also reduce drought risk (UNDP-BCPR, 2005). According to Waller-Hunter (2004), mitigation can also incorporate some measures taken prior to a hazard to minimise the severity of disasters, crises and risk, as well as vulnerability to an expected event. Adaptation may include policies and development strategies such as disaster preparedness, climate forecasts and land-use planning (Van Zyl, 2006). Capacity-building, public awareness and information dissemination are important elements for adaptation to drought and climate variability (Waller-Hunter, 2004). Vogel (1994) opines that other measures that could be considered to manage drought comprise, inter alia: gaining a better understanding of the type of drought and the improvement and continuous use of existing agricultural and development avenues to maintain a drought plan; ongoing monitoring of rural-development matters, commercial farming, soil erosion and veld management; and ensuring that timely assistance is given to those affected. The quality of both the water and veld should also be monitored so as to prepare for and control of future droughts. The author further elucidates the pivotal role that education can play to increase the ability of the farmers and rural communities to organise themselves in times of disasters, crises and risks (Vogel, 1994).

4.4. Crime

Crime and lack of safety and security seem to be the greatest threats facing the tourism sector in South Africa. Croucamp et al. (2004) argue that South Africa is the crime capital of the world. According to the Western Cape Department of Economic Development and Tourism (2002), and Croucamp et al. (2004), crime is possibly the largest risk factor for tourism. Perry et al. (2013) concur that actual crime, as well as the perception thereof, adversely impacts the well-being of the vast majority of South Africans, and naturally impacts major economic sectors such as tourism. The recent crime statistics released by the Sunday Times (4 September

2016) lend more credence to the above assertion, indicating that the high murder rate in the country is attributable to social ills. The Times argues that murder is more difficult to stop than most other serious crimes. It adds that a rising share of murders was committed by armed robbers and hijackers. The statistics further reveal that car hijacking (organised crime) and murder rate is high in Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape. To stamp it out more, effective crime intelligence is needed (Sunday Times, 4 September 2016).

However, the study acknowledges the fact that it is sometimes difficult to measure or determine the effects of crime accurately, and to link this to tourism. George (2012:577) substantiates the author's opinion by the following remarks: "Although crime against tourists is not a new phenomenon, the researchers had difficulty linking crime to the demand for tourism" and adds that "the collection of valid and accurate data to measure crime is near impossible and prevents researchers from providing substantial evidence that directly links crime rates to tourism demand."

South Africa's 2016 crime and safety report expressed the above sentiments, and provided the following synopsis:

Crime is a key concern for the South African government... and is notable for:

(1) the level of violence, associated with personal/property crime, as criminals do not hesitate to use lethal weapons; and (2) the occurrence of crimes across all metropolitan areas regardless of the socio-economic status of a particular neighbourhood.

Crime has various manifestations. Perry et al. (2012) and South Africa's 2016 crime and safety report highlighted the following forms of crime as more prevalent in the country: petty

muggings to ATM scams to armed residential home invasions and murder; violent crime such as robberies, burglaries; car hijackings; street muggings; smash-and-grabs; organised attacks on commercial centers (shopping malls and outlets); and attacks on cash-in-transit vehicles/personnel (armoured car/personnel). Another serious form of crime is rape, and both the locals and foreigners fall victim to it.

There is a proliferation of cyber-crime in the world. Lerbinger (2012:188) defines this as “the application of computer technology to various kinds of undesirable activity and includes crimes such as the unauthorized [sic] “hacking” into computer systems and data banks to steal valuable intellectual property or other information for purposes of spying or self-gain”. The causes of this risk (IRMSA Risk Report, 2015) are: lack of Cyber Security Awareness (CSA); and lack of sufficient cyber security capacity, which include knowledge, skills, skilled people, and lack of action from the side of the government. Moreover, the country does not have a National Cyber Security Policy (NCSP). The government has not even created cyber-related Public Private Partnerships (PPP) with the industry. The consequences of cyber-attacks will be too bad to contemplate. According to the IRMSA Risk Report (2015), the country will become the cyber-crime capital of Africa. The crucial sectors such as e-commerce, e-health and e-government will be adversely affected if it is not dealt with decisively.

The financial and identity theft crimes are common too (South Africa’s 2016 crime and safety report); and they comprise, inter alia, debit/credit card and advance-fee scams. Many a business (restaurants, petrol stations) have portable credit card facilities that allow the customers to swipe their cards when making purchases. These cards are frequently cloned, giving rise to fraudulent transactions, despite some built-in safeguards mechanisms. Some ATMS are also fitted with skimming devices or have at their disposal what looks like a “helpful person” who

offers to assist those in need of help. Criminals are also adept at bombing ATMs during the early morning hours in remote areas.

The transportation-safety situation also warrants attention in describing the risk narrative unfolding in Durban. The highway system and toll roads are in good condition. Nevertheless, car accidents are the highest risks to both the drivers and pedestrians. They are attributed to dangerous driving practice, speeding, alcohol consumption, un-roadworthy vehicles, the road conditions, and the presence of either pedestrians or animals in the road outside major metropolitan areas. South Africa's 2016 crime and safety report added that South Africa has a high rate of fatal traffic accidents. The Road Traffic Management Corporation (RTMC) corroborated this by indicating that there were more than 4500 road fatalities between April 2014 and March 2015. The RTMC Report (2016) further revealed that about 1 714 people died on the country's roads during the Christmas holiday in 2016. The problem depicted above has the potential to scar off potential visitors to the city, to make them to cancel their planned travel to it or to even postpone it (Donaldson et al., 2009 and George et al., 2014).

According to South Africa's 2016 crime and safety report, other road-related crimes include smash-and-grabs robberies, whereby a robber smashes a side vehicle window to take whatever is easily accessible (e.g. a cell phone or purse); and this happens mostly at the robots, in congestion, at major intersections and at highway off-ramps. The report further pointed out that the media has brought to the fore cases where bricks or rocks were thrown from overhead bridges onto passing drivers below, causing either serious injuries or death to the occupants, and irreparable damage to vehicles. Criminals employ various tricks to target motorists on the road, for instance, deliberately placing stumbling blocks in the road to force motorists to stop after hitting them; flagging down passing motorist for assistance following in what is construed

as a mechanical breakdown; robbing passerby motorists of their valuables when they offer help, or even hijacking their vehicles (South Africa's 2016 Crime and Safety Report). Over and above this, crime meted out by fake police officers is also rife in the country. This crime is quite common near OR Tambo International Airport (Johannesburg) and along the freeways to Pretoria. It is called "Blue Light" robbery, when the criminals pull over passing motorists to rob them at gunpoint. The trick about these criminals is that they masquerade as 'real policemen' and drive unmarked vehicles with a police light in the dashboard. They wear a police uniform, and usually rob their victims of substantial amount of money, valuables such as cell phones, and or take their vehicles at gunpoint (ibid.).

Ferreira (1999)'s strand of analysis (from 1993-1996) of the spatial pattern of crime against tourists in South Africa reveals that with the exception of Gauteng (inland economic heartland), most crimes are committed in the coastal cities. Tourists perceive Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal to be the most unsafe destinations in the country. This view was held by international tourists from Australia, Pacific, Asia and Scandinavia (Ferreira et al., 2000). Most tourists feel that their safety and security needs are not adequately addressed despite the aggressive marketing strategy adopted by the country. This effectively implies that the tourism sector would suffer if it did not attract that segment of tourists. On the question of the geographic distribution of violence, the Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSV, 2007) reported that the profile of murder and crime, for instance, varies quite greatly between different areas. This effectively implies that certain places have a high level of murders attributed to conflict between groups or to assaults, while others experience a high proportion of murders closely associated with violence, such as robbery or rape. On the basis of this argument, the centre classifies residential areas into two categories, namely, high-crime middle class/wealthier communities and poorer violence-prone communities. The former experiences aggravated

robberies like housebreaking, and is typically occupied by fairly rich people while the latter comprise generally poor people who are exposed to high levels of robbery, as well as stranger and acquaintance violence (The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation CSVR, 2007).

The high rate of crime in the country is attributable to a decline in law-enforcement agencies coupled with the rejection of the police by large sections of the citizenry (Ferreira, 1999). The latter is attributable to the country's unique socio-political history (Ferreira, 1999). The serious forms of crime, such as public violence, rape, murder, aggravated assault, burglary, robbery, and motor vehicle theft, happen in the country's major metropolitan areas such as Durban, Western Cape, Johannesburg, Port Elizabeth and Sodwana Bay, which attract a large number of drifters and drug users (Ferreira, 1999; Ferreira et al., 2000). For an example, Johannesburg is the economic heartland of the country, and is frequently visited by international travellers, where holiday and business visitors spend an average of 9,9 days. Personal experience as well as the word-of-mouth seem to be the most important variables influencing travelers' decision to visit the country (Ferreira et al., 2000).

From the above, it could safely be deduced that there is an interface between tourism and security. Mudzanani (2017:2) argues safety to be one of the non-negotiable issues and adds that when tourists travel they demand a guarantee that they would be safe from criminal activities. Pizam (1996:1) lends credence to the latter by stressing that tourism thrives in an environment of peace, safety and tranquility, and indicates that highly publicised crimes have a tendency to drive tourists to safer destinations. Tourists commonly complaint that the media tend to sensationalise issues around certain crimes (Mudzanani, 2017; Ferreira, 1999; Ferreira

et al., 2000), and such reactions are sometimes out of sync with the actual level of risk. Perceptions transmitted by the media scare away tourists (Mudzanani, 2017; Moyo et al., 2013). They alter the tourists' perceptions about a particular destinations, and a destination with high crime levels is substituted with a safer one (Ferreira et al., 2000).

Ferreira (1999) argues that tourism requires a critical partnership with safety so that it can succeed and be sustainable. This is informed by the fact that leisure travelers, in particular, undertake travelling willingly. They are not prepared to spend their hard-earned money in destinations with low levels of safety. The same applies equally well to business travelers. Durban is not immune to risks such as crime and violence. According to Mudzanani (2017) the most prevalent crimes against tourists include theft, violent crimes, terrorism and violence, resulting from political instability. Ferreira (1999) contends that the country and her provinces therefore has a 'herculean' task in terms of addressing these risks. Factors that lead to crime in the country are: political intolerance (various ethnic groups, different languages and religions); the legacy of apartheid (stirs up emotions and resentment amongst many people); the proliferation of firearms; high unemployment; socio-political instability and the prevailing culture of solving problems violently (Ferreira, 1999; Ferreira et al., 2000).

Image is the most important element of a tourist attraction. It influences the destination's marketing initiatives when looked at through the lens of a visitor's buying behaviour. The creation and management of a good destination image is highly significant to vigorous positioning and marketing strategy (Ferreira, 1999; Ferreira et al., 2000). Most unfortunately, South Africa is ranked amongst the most dangerous holiday destinations (Ferreira et al., 2000). Crime can impede tourism by "wielding a significant blow" to the fragile nature of a

destination's safe image (Ferreira et al., 2000:81). The consequences can be of long-term nature and be costly to deal with (Moyo et al., 2013). The following examples clarify the scenario: The city of Cape Town lost the bid to host the 2004 Olympic Games in favour of Athens in 1997. The city therefore lost a development opportunity of a lifetime. The loss was attributable to Muslim extremists who declared war in the city (Ferreira et al., 2000). The city also lost an opportunity to host a big international vehicle launch in July 1997, and Veesa's (the international estate owner's society) conference in 1998 (Ferreira et al., 2000).

In their scholarly work, Moyo et al. (2013:5) indicate that although the number of visitors to South Africa have been increasing, serious concerns have been raised about the level of crime in the country. These scholars argue that the country has a high level of violence, and high incidences of rape. They also raise concerns about the increasing percentage of homicides by firearms. It is undoubtedly these perceptions that deter tourists to visit the country. Image plays a critical role in shaping up tourists' perceptions of any destination. Altindag (2010) lends credence to this observation by arguing that individuals do not necessarily have a real measure of victimisation risk in the destination country, but merely a perception of it. The scholar adds that the 'ex-ante expectation' about the possibility of falling victim in the destination country can be obtained via various channels, such as print and electronic media, as well as word-of-mouth. The real crime rate in the destination serves as a proxy for the perceived risk of being victimised (Moyo et al., 2013). It will instill fear amongst the tourists and repel visitation to the country.

The interface between crime as a risk and tourism demand manifests itself in various ways. Mention could be made of adverse impacts, such as cost increases in the form of higher

insurance, and escalating costs with regard to the provision of safety and security measures, resulting in a spillover effect, whereby businesses pass high costs to the tourists and general consumers (Moyo et al., 2013). The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSVR, 2007) report concedes that South Africa is engulfed in a new ‘wave’ of violent crime, particularly that which is perpetrated against the meek members of the society, such as children and women (femicide).

The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSVR, 2007) argues that violence instills fear and anxiety. It contends that the efforts of the government to curb crime and violence have become “highly politically charged”. The centre propounds that those who raise awareness about violence and crime are inevitably attempting to influence government policy in one way or another, and adds that such efforts invariably draw the concerned ones into a political space. The report identifies some groups, called “loose networks” who are involved in the politics of crime and violence, and whose main priority is to advance the cause of the victims. These people, who comprise groups and individuals, are dealing with the following: gender-based violence against women; child abuse; the victimisation and killings of white farmers; racially motivated attacks and killings of Blacks by Whites; violence against the police and bank robberies; other crime in certain business sectors such as the cash-in-transit industry or at petrol stations; and those who advance the cause of the victims of gun violence (CSVR, 2007:28).

The criminal situation painted above is one of the many significant forces affecting the movement of tourists in the country and their perceptions of various destinations including Durban (Ferreira et al, 2000 and Croucamp et al., 2014). Crime affects the safety of tourists

and impact on destination marketing and profiling (Perry et al., 2013). Swart (2010) reiterates that crime in the country interferes with the movement of people and their participation in [tourist] activities. Perry et al. (2013) suggests that tourists have every reason to fear crime, as they are more susceptible to crime victimisation than local residents in areas that experience high crime rates. The fear of crime significantly informs images of destination and influences decisions that potential tourists make (Ntuli et al. 2001 and George, 2003). This is particularly applicable to the tourists from international source markets such as North America and Western Europe (Perry et al., 2013). There are of course many significant variables that play a key role in the propagation of crime amongst people and the tourists in general. One of these is the media, and its cardinal role is posited hereunder.

The media and social media in particular (Twitter, Facebook, blogs, etc.) plays a crucial role (Croucamp et al., 2004 and Perry et al., 2013) in deepening and propagating the perception of fear and levels of concern about crime in the public domain, and consequently influence touristic flows to the country in a negative way. Croucamp et al. (2004) argue that the reports of national crime incidents impacts adversely on the international perception of South Africa as a tourism destination. The crime statistics compiled by the South African Police Service (SAPS) for the period 1 April 2013 to 31 March 2014 revealed an increase in murder, public, house, business robbery and car hijacking (Croucamp et al, 2004) . It is such statistics which shape up tourists' perceptions of Durban.

Tourists' risk perception is shaped by internal and external factors (Um et al., 1990). Internal factors refer to determinants that are closely linked to the tourists themselves (Yang et al., 2015) while the external factors comprise a wide range of variables such as information retrieved from travel advisory, mass media travelogue, social media network, and a word of

mouth (Heung et al., 2001 and Yang et al., 2015). Perry et al. (2013) concur with this assertion by suggesting that the media and a word of mouth play a very important role in shaping (tourists') perceptions and framing debates about crime and tourism. The Institute for Security Studies (ISS, 2001) contends that public perceptions of crime are shaped by a wide range of factors such as actual victimisation and first-hand experiences of crime and violence; impressions and opinions of the city environment; the media; interaction with colleagues, friends and family; perceptions about the governments' ability to provide safety; and the extent to which people feel helpless against crime. According to Collins et al. (2006) the media influences perceptions on crime in the following ways: firstly, by informing the audiences (major sources of information); secondly, by agenda setting (the media's ability to raise the salience of novel or existing issues, and the corresponding level of significance the public assigns to these issues); thirdly, through framing (the subtle selection of certain aspects of an issue by the media to highlight a particular aspect); and fourthly, via pursuance (ability of the media to persuade the public regarding the issues they represent).

Crime enjoys a lot of sensational coverage in the media worldwide (Perry et al., 2013). The media plays a crucial role in influencing attitudes and perceptions relating to crime and violence (George et al., 2003; Perry et al., 2013 and Sönmez et al., 1998). The key influencing media are newspapers, the television and internet (Perry et al, 2013) and this result in quick transmission of information worldwide. The manner in which the internet operates, as well as the popularity of social media networks (e.g. blogs, Twitter, Facebook) also imply that crime-related information is easily shared (Nkosi, 2010 and Perry et al., 2013). The media therefore reinforces images and concerns amongst the tourist. It magnifies the fear of crime and images of danger (George et al., 2003 and Perry et al., 2013) at specific destinations (Donaldson et al., 2009 and George et al, 2014).

The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSV, 2007) reports that the media (newspapers, magazines and television stations) are not neutral in shaping perceptions of crime. The media is much concerned about crime and violence. The report indicates that the media uses crime and violence even for entertainment purposes (novels, films) and this depicts the strong public interest they provoke. The media uses violence and crime as a proxy not only for 'survival' but also to maintain 'readership/listenership/viewership figures' (CSV, 2007:9). The centre further argues that the coverage devoted to crime and violence is determined by what editors believe will be of key interest to the consumers. This effectively implies that crime and violence, which might attract little public interest, will invariably be given limited or no coverage at all. The editors believe that incidents receiving a fair amount of coverage are either unique or exceptional incidents, which have to do with the victims' race, age, gender, and social status. In essence, the attention the media devotes to crime and violence heightens public anxieties and fears. It is against this background that the author opines that, firstly, the latter will invariably have a spill-over effect, thus trickling down to the tourist population as well. Secondly, the tourists are, by nature, also consumers of news transmitted by the media and the word-of-mouth, and therefore, the startling incidents of crime and violence will inevitably instill fear and anxiety amongst them. Thirdly, the latter will serve as a push factor to deflect their visitation plans to safer destinations. This is a pointer to the interplay of both centrifugal and centripetal forces that make or break some destinations.

4.5 Critical infrastructure risks

South Africa's 2016 crime and safety report pointed out that there are many infrastructure-related concerns in South Africa, and claim that they torpedo the government's ability to deliver an uninterrupted electricity supply. These concerns are attributable to high consumer demand

and inadequate power generation, as well as the theft of electrical wire. To safeguard the electrical grid, the country's electric supplier, Eskom, was compelled to conduct 99 days of load-shedding in 2015 (ibid.:2016). The author is of the opinion that this action stymied economic growth as many businesses including tourism were negatively affected.

IRMSA Risk Report (2015) illustrates that the skewed implementation of critical infrastructure was the concomitant result of the apartheid legacy. However, it further stresses that the present government has adopted a National Infrastructure Plan (NIP) to transform the economy given that critical infrastructure is key for economic growth. The report declares that service delivery is being addressed, and adds that the construction of ports, roads, railways, electricity plants, hospitals, dams and schools is being prioritised so as to add more impetus to economic growth prospects.

However, on the negative side, the IRMSA Risk Report (2015) asserts that most South Africans are inconvenienced by intermittent power cuts, and regard this as a serious crisis. The problem is compounded by increasing electricity tariffs, the culture of non-payment for power supply, and energy theft problems. The report further highlights the fact that the country experiences big losses in the national revenue pool, arising from lost production in many economic sectors due to power failure. Many power stations exacerbate the problem more by generating a lot of pollution. This implies that a concerted effort and increased funding must be channeled towards meeting international and local emission standards. The report affirms the fact that load shedding is highly costly from an investment and economic point of view. The prolonged power outages would result in vast reduction in productivity, thus causing economic stagnation or decline (IRMSA Risk Report, 2015).

The direct (IRMSA Risk Report, 2015) impact of the failure to provide essential services and critical infrastructure (e.g. water, electricity, telecommunications, cellular services etc.) causes socio-economic losses that run into billions of rands, and lead to public discontentment, escalation in crime, and the like. Critical infrastructure risks (the shortage of electricity, and water in particular) is one of the new emergent risks never ever dealt with in the history of South African tourism research. Its impact on the tourism sector and the tourists' activities has therefore not yet been researched. It is predominantly crime and its subsequent impacts on the tourism industry, which has enjoyed the attention of the tourism scholars. Based on the latter's impacts, it could therefore be safely deduced that critical infrastructure risks too can have similar consequences to the industry in the form of reducing tourism demand; and may lead to tourists cancelling their envisaged visits to the country, and may discourage them from recommending the country to their families, relatives, friends, and significant others. The author opines that the lasting quality experiences sought out by the tourists can only be provided in a destination with a vibrant and sound infrastructure like roads, water, telecommunications, and electricity, the last of which the country is currently lacking sufficient supply.

4.6 Political violence

The study does not by any means attempt to provide an exhaustive account of political violence given the broad dynamics around it. This form of violence is another feature of life in South Africa (Kynoch, 2003). Masango (2004:993) argues that "there is little doubt that aggression and violence are true realities that are experienced by South Africans and the rest of the world". The author points out that there are three major types of aggression that manifest themselves in the country, and draws on some theories to illustrate his argument: firstly, the "frustration-

aggression theory of aggression” that stresses that aggression is always an inevitable result of frustration (ibid.:996). The occurrence of aggressive behaviour is a pointer to the existence of frustration and frustration always breeds aggression; secondly, an “over-generalisation hypothesis”, which postulates that the instigation of some form of aggression is an invariant response to frustration (ibid.:996). This scholar argues that the Soweto’s 1976 student uprising was the result of the extreme frustration caused by structural violence that claimed the lives of many people; thirdly, “Freud’s 1915 theory”, which presupposes that aggression arises when the ‘ego-instincts’, or the “ego’s struggle for self-preservation” are impeded (ibid.:997). The theory further asserts that the ego “hates, abhors and pursues” with the intent to destroy all objects which is a source of pain. Masango (2004) emphasises the point that in the case of the Soweto’s 1976 uprising, the students destroyed whatever structures they thought were owned by the defunct apartheid regime.

Bruce (2013:8), captures the brutality of the apartheid regime and political killings in this way:

“During the apartheid period political violence and killings took multiple forms. The circumstances in which deaths happened included numerous open clashes between armed groups, massacres in which large numbers of people were killed, as well as demonstrations , disappearances, incidents of ‘neck lacing’ and others”.

The killings reflected above were carried out by the so-called ‘covert hit squads’, such as the Civil Cooperation Bureau (CCB), under the auspices of the South African Defence Force (SADF), and the C10 unit of the South African Police Force (SAPS) that was based at the infamous farm called Vlakplaas (Bruce, 2003). Their targeted victims comprised members of

the African National Congress (ANC), Pan Africanist Congress (PAC), and members of other political formations, which were opposed to the apartheid system (Bruce, 2013).

South Africa (2014) argues that even though there are many important social, economic and political changes that have occurred in the country since the advent of formal democracy in 1994, there is a myriad of significant factors that continue to cause political violence in South Africa, and they are, the effects of colonialism and institutionalised apartheid. It points out that the slow pace of reform is not in a position to transform this legacy, and in some instances, the economic policies have worsened the problem. The serious risks that continue to pose a threat to peace and security in the country comprise, inter alia, poverty, unemployment, poor education, crime and pervasive inequality (South Africa, 2014). The on-going marginalisation of the rural people and the poor (IRMSA Risk Report, 2015), coupled with the legacy of class and race discrimination (Sowetan, 20 January 2017) also present serious threat to both social and political security in South Africa (South Africa, 2014). Other grave risks (IRMSA Risk Report, 2015) include: escalating food prices; the gap between the rich and the poor; conditions which caused the Arab Spring; disenchantment with the present government; income disparities; declining global competitiveness indices; low levels of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), and political corruption. The latter will be dealt with separately in the subsequent sections of this study. The report asserts that other additional risks encompass poor economy, unemployment, poverty, and a high number of disenfranchised youth. The report puts forward the following contextual factors to highlight the fact that most people are not satisfied by the present-day government: the increasing number of people who join the ranks of the Economic Freedom Fighters (EFF); the birth of the Association of Mineworkers and Construction Union (AMCU); the growth of Democratic Alliance (DA) members in 2014 general elections; and the birth of the National Union of Metalworkers South Africa (NUMSA) which broke away

from the Congress of South African Trade Unions (Cosatu). The factors enumerated above have a negative bearing on the economic sectors such as mining, tourism, manufacturing, innovation and the like.

South Africa's 2016 crime and safety report maintained that violent and disruptive labour strikes occur frequently in South Africa. It points out that Gauteng is the epicentre of more labour unrest than other provinces. The protests involve disruptions along traffic routes between Johannesburg and Pretoria (colloquially termed a 'go-slow'). They affect mining, farming, retail, civil service, public transportation, private trucking, and manufacturing industries. The report (2016) expounded that unlicensed protests usually lead to deaths, injuries, assaults, and massive damage to property, and cautions people to avoid them. KwaZulu-Natal is also a frequent host to African National Congress' (ANC) political rallies, and big gatherings. This carries with it an implication of public disruptions in the city centre and the areas around the Durban City Hall (ibid.: 2016).

4.7 Terrorism

Lerbinger (2012:185) defines it as "the deliberate maiming and menacing of the innocent to inspire fear for political ends or a special form of a clandestine, undeclared and unconventional warfare without any humanitarian restraints or rules". On the other hand, Cilliers (2003:91) defines it as "the unlawful, or threatened, use of violence against individuals or property to coerce and intimidate government or societies for political objectives". The classic example of terrorist attack is the famous September 11, 2001 attacks on Washington DC. The subject 'terrorism' is politically fraught, where, for the sake of brevity, the study will focus on highlighting the salient arguments pertaining to terrorism, with a particular focus on South Africa.

Croucamp et al. (2014) argue that globally terrorist attacks surely have an adverse impact on tourism, maintaining that, more often than not, it is the frequency rather than the severity of the terrorist act which impacts on the tourists' decisions to visit that specific area. Croucamp et al. further points that since the advent of the 1994 democratic dispensation in South Africa, terrorist acts have mainly been criminal-driven. The main perpetrators are the Muslim fundamentalist groups, as well as the minority white, right-wing groups (ibid. 2014).

Over and above this, Croucamp et al. (2014) highlight the fact that South Africa has never ever experienced international terrorist attacks. Nevertheless, he argues that the risk for these attacks is massive, and backs up the argument with the following remarks: the suspected al-Shabaab agent, Samantha Lethwaite (the notorious "White Widow"), carried out the September 2013 shopping mall attack in Nairobi, Kenya, and was suspected to have stayed in South Africa (Johannesburg) for more than two years. She was alleged to have entered Kenya using a fraudulent South African passport. The growing presence of al-Shabaab in the country continues to inform critical media reports, which indicate that terrorist attacks ought to remain a matter of concern (ibid.2014) and not be ignored, because the country is seen as a safe haven for terrorists to operate incognito.

Most experts are of the opinion that the world can be divided into safe, and unsafe areas. South Africa is by no means an exception – especially if the current volatile socio-economic and political climate is brought under the spotlight. The following remarks of Gambari (2004) captures this fear of imminent terrorism, and lends credence to the argument raised above by Croucamp et al (2014), in this way:

“We must also recognise the fact that the terrorist networks find it easier to breed and prosper where organised crimes reign, where political and administrative machinery and state institutions are weak or malfunctioning, where ideology and religious fanaticism have replaced reason and morality and where despair has destroyed as sense of purpose”.

Terrorism is not a new threat. Many parts of the world including South Africa have experienced it even before 1994. The presentation by Malgas (2006:1), Counsellor, South African Mission to the UN Symposium on Africa’s Response to Terrorism which was held in New York in 2006, illuminates this point in this way:

“Various parts of the world have experienced terrorism for decades – be they state sponsored or otherwise. To take my country, South Africa, as an example: We waged a long and difficult struggle for many decades – starting off with peaceful resistance that later escalated into violent conflict. The apartheid state used terrorism to counter the liberation movements through bombings and assassinations”.

Malgas (2006) further emphasises the fact that certain parts of South Africa have experienced urban terrorism in the past. However, this was successfully quashed through a good counter-terrorism strategy. The author further brings to the fore the significant factors for the proliferation of terrorism in the African continent, and by extension, in South Africa, as: firstly, globalisation; secondly, the growth and advancement in Inter Communication Technology (ICT); thirdly, the free movement of people across the borders; fourth, the easy flow of money across jurisdictions; and fifth, porous borders. Yousfi (2006) and Adekanye (2006) adds

another dimension in relation to some factors which lead to terrorism, and they are enumerated as: the geographical position of the African continent that leaves it prone to the international terrorist organisations; weak security; internal conflicts; the proliferation of significant quantities of weapons; poverty, which enables Al-Qaida to easily recruit extremists from amongst African destitute youth; and Africa's appraisal as a tourist destination by many nations spur the terrorists on to target people (tourists) to gain maximum media publicity. Other predisposing factors include an acute lack of infrastructure, and the prevalence of HIV/AIDS (Adekanye, 2006). A vacuum resulting from 'political collapse' might also lead to vulnerability to terrorist attacks (Africa-America Institute, 2006). According to Oche (2014) terrorism stems from religious encumbrances; conflicts of power struggles.

4.8 Xenophobic attacks

Xenophobia is simply defined as the fear or hatred of foreigners or strangers (Solomon et al. (un); Soyombo, 2011; Palmary, 2004) and is embedded in discriminatory practices and behaviour; it usually reaches its zenith in violence, a myriad of abuses, and signs of hatred (Solomon et al. (un); Soyombo, 2011). Researchers on xenophobia attribute it to a number of causal factors, viz.: a threat posed to the locals' economic success; a fear of loss of social status and identity (Solomon et al., (un); high unemployment (South African Cities Network, 2016); a high number of immigrants; competition for scarce resources like work, health facilities etc.; the notion that foreigners cause crime (Palmary, 2004); undocumented migrants; South Africa's prosperity and its ability to offer better life; competition for jobs; and local political contestation worsening the current tension (South Africa, 2014). Inadequate and poor service delivery also breeds xenophobia (Mamabolo, 2015).

Another critical aspect warranting attention in relation to competition as one of the factors triggering xenophobia is what Palmary (2004) calls a 'gradation of prejudice'; where people's identities are judged by their complexion. The author further emphasises the point that South Africans are 'equality prejudiced' towards foreigners, irrespective of their income or level of education. Consequently, there is a level of uneven handedness in terms of how the citizens of the country treat the foreigners, where those who hail from other continents like Asia are not victimised, because they are seen to be in South for a legitimate cause, such as tourism or economic investment. Linking the acts of xenophobia to the skin colour of the victims has given birth to what is called Afrophobia (Mamabolo, 2015:144), where the majority of those being singled out are African immigrants. The opposition of South Africa's educated masses to the admission of and free movement of the foreigners bear testimony to this fact (Palmary, 2004; Mamabolo, 2015). Xenophobia exists even between the educated and uneducated communities and among informal traders or college staff (Tella et al., 2014). This carries with it the implication of oppressive practices, police harassment and uneven delivery of services (South Africa, 2014). Xenophobic attacks have therefore posed major challenges to the South African government. They are associated with mainly with violence and death (South African Cities Network, 2016; Palmary, 2004; Masuku, 2006).

Soyombo (2011) holds that xenophobia is displayed in various ways, that is, verbally, by inciting speeches and discussions; or it is seen when some people leave their place of abode or communities as soon as they notice the foreigners moving in that community. It manifests itself in hate crimes, expulsion, and murder. On the other hand, Mamabolo (2015) argues that the main victims of xenophobia in South Africa are those African immigrants who hail from countries such as Nigeria, Egypt, Somalia, Mozambique and Zimbabwe. The scholar adds that they are victimised because of their relative success in small business operations. This

perception has prevailed, despite the obvious accomplishments of both the formal and informal enterprises belonging to other foreign immigrants, who hail from elsewhere, other than the African continent. Mamabolo (2015) therefore emphasises the point that xenophobia is characterised by assaults and brutal abuses meted out against African immigrants. No wonder they are called by highly offensive names such as “Makwerekwere”, “Mapafo”, “Makula”, “Magrigambas”, “Makgaretein”, and the like (Mamabolo, 2015).

McConnel (2009) has generated a strand of analysis on xenophobia, which lays bare the reasons behind its prevalence. He argues that with the advent of formal democracy in 1994, there was much freedom experienced by the country’s citizens who felt that it was obligated to be protected from the influx of foreigners. Therefore, the government wanted to put its citizenry first, for both transformation and change. The country’s migration policies, low economic growth, and rising levels of poverty and inequality are to blame for xenophobic attacks.

In 2008, the violent xenophobic attacks occurred in Gauteng and affected mostly Alexandra and Diepsloot townships (Mamabolo, 2015). It later spread to other provinces such as North West, Mpumalanga and the Free State, where businesses owned by the Ethiopians, Pakistanis and Somalis were looted and set ablaze. Following those violent attacks, the government launched campaigns aimed at outrooting them, and preached slogans that “we are all African” (Mamabolo, 2015). The author adds that the country experienced violent xenophobic attacks, which were attributed to the discourse by the Zulu King in 2015.

Xenophobia affects the tourism industry (Adeleke et al., 2011), which thrives in a climate of safety and security. It affects tourists’ perceptions of the country, and consequently, their choice of destination, which is not just shaped by price and personal image, but by safety and

security as well. A safe area attracts more tourists while the opposite holds true for an unsafe one, which repels them. Adeleke et al. (2011) point out that 66% of the visitors consider crime when choosing vacation destination. The above scholars further reveal that 62% of the tourists are more concerned with their safety. The xenophobic attacks have profound implications for the tourism industry since African tourism is critical to the country's economy. This has serious socio-economic impact, which comprises, inter alia, the following: property damage from vandalism; increased expenditure on law enforcement agencies during tourist season; fiscal losses; a sharp decrease in the beneficial outcome of tourism products and service; and discouraged visitation to the country.

The arguments posited above therefore clearly indicates that xenophobia is a serious risk to the country. The critical challenge for the government is to address its root causes and to dispense justice. The paradox around xenophobia is that the perpetrators are seldom successfully brought to the book, and this scenario has the attendant result of leaving the victims despondent. Consequently, the victims tend to resolve matters on their own, thus leading to cyclical conflict and violence.

4.9 Summary

The tourism sector in Durban is exposed to a myriad disasters, crises and risks. The sector experiences both natural and man-made disasters, crises and risks which affect the normal functioning of the society as they cause widespread human, material, socio-economic and environmental losses. These forces comprise natural disasters such as floods, storms, tornadoes, hailstorms and drought while the anthropogenic ones include crime (including its various manifestations such as robbery, assault, murder, rape, hijackings, fraud etc.), corruption and poor governance, political and social instability, critical infrastructure risks, terrorism, poor

economy and associated problems like poverty, inequality and unemployment, and xenophobia. The disasters, crises and risks posited above affect the tourism sector, and negatively affect tourists' perceptions of the country. Tourists view the country as fraught with danger, and consequently avoid it. The media also plays a central role in influencing tourists' perceptions. The media tools used to spread information about the country include social media (twitter, blogs, and sms) and print media. Many scholars argue that the word-of-mouth also plays a crucial role in terms of how the tourists gather information on South Africa as a tourist destination. Due to the prevalence of disasters, crises, and risk experienced by the country, many potential tourists cancel their envisaged travel plans to the country, and choose alternative destinations. It is therefore critically important to continue to do research into how the impact of disasters, crises and risk could be circumvented, with a view to boost the image of the country, and to add more impetus to the growth of the tourism sector, and its sustainability.

CHAPTER 5

Research Methodology

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presented the methodology and included, inter alia, the main approach, the research objectives, methods used to unpack the subject matter under study, and the justification for the choice of methods. It also described the study populations, selection of research subjects, and the research sites. This research was concerned primarily with the understanding of the disasters, crises and the risk-fear nexus in the context of how the tourists perceive Durban as a tourism destination. Both the primary and secondary information was obtained to expedite the choice of the appropriate methodology.

5.2 The Approach

In this study, pragmatism was used. Pragmatism is a philosophical movement that includes those who claim that an ideology or proposition is true if it works satisfactorily, that the meaning of a proposition is to be found in the practical consequences of accepting it, and that unpractical ideas are to be rejected. Therefore, the study was anchored around four theories. The theories serve as a guiding framework for analysing and interpreting the data (Finn et al., 2000). The theories were used as a tool to help explain and understand the research findings, and reflect on the overall conditions under which the research has taken place (Finn et al., 2000).

5.3 Research methods

5.3.1 Research design

A mixed method approach was used to explore a number of issues in respect of the tourists' social perspectives on disasters, crises and risks and their perception on Durban as a tourism destination. To this end, Veal (2011:231-232) contends that the:

“The term qualitative is used to describe research methods and techniques which use and give rise to, qualitative rather than quantitative information that is information in the form of words, images and sounds rather than numbers. In general the qualitative approach tends to collect a great deal of detailed (sometimes referred to as ‘rich or thick’) information about relatively few cases or subjects...”

The reasons for the use of a mixed method approach are as follows: this concepts of disasters, crises and risk are complex constructs, which are produced at the intersection of people and the physical environment. To this end, Speakman (2011:41) contends that “human beings do not find or discover knowledge so much as construct or make it”. Schwandt (1994:129) adds that “constructions are attempts to make sense of or to interpret experience, and are self-sustaining and renewing”. Accordingly, the researcher mainly gathered information whose genesis can be traced to the respondents' personal experiences regarding disasters, crises and risk, and this warranted the use of a mixed method of inquiry. The dynamic nature of disasters, crises and risks further require a holistic approach, which views the situation from “a wide sweep of contexts: temporal and spatial, historical, political, economic, cultural, social and personal” (Stake, 1995:42). A qualitative approach enabled the researcher to unpack disasters, crises and risks ‘through the eyes’ of tourists and key informants, in order to gain a thorough understanding of the dynamics concerned. This also created ‘space’ for the comparisons to be made between theories that anchor the study and the empirical data. The theories anchoring the study also call for the use of this approach. Furthermore, the study is grounded in the

perspective that disasters, crises and risks are not identical (Evans et al., 2005). The mixed method approach was augmented by the use of semi-structured interviews (to be discussed in the subsequent paragraphs) and a literature review. This approach can illustrate the complexities of a situation by recognising more than one contributing variable. Tourism disasters, crises and risks are complex situations (Speakman, 2011), and the challenge is to take cognisance of the factors contributing to this scenario, and generate solutions. In this study, the complexity lies in disasters, crises and risk-fear nexus. Therefore, the study sought to unpack this relationship, as well as how tourists perceive Durban as a tourism destination.

However, there are some researchers (Sofaer, 2002; Decrop, 1999) who raise certain concerns about the validity and reliability of the qualitative methods. To deal with such concerns the researcher employed the following approaches to ensure that the findings of the study were reliable and valid.

Triangulation: Decrop (1999:158) defines this as “looking at the same phenomenon, or research question, from more than one source of data” and adds that “information coming from different angles can be used to corroborate, elaborate or illuminate the research problem. It limits personal and methodological biases and enhances a study’s generalisability.” Therefore the researcher triangulated the research findings to deal with the weaknesses inherent in the use of qualitative methods. To achieve this goal, different types of material were collected and analysed. Secondary data was cross-checked against information from interviews with the tourists and the key informants. Secondary data, as obtained from the textbooks, research articles, journals, newspapers, working papers, conference proceedings etc. (Decrop, 1999) were used to assess the validity and reliability of empirical data. Data generated through the use of the semi-structured interviews was also subject to triangulation. Field notes were used

to triangulate data during and immediately after each interview (Decrop, 1999). The notes were more useful as they provided additional light on the textual content or indicate certain questions, which were not sufficiently addressed during the interviews (Veal, 2011; Smith, 2010; Finn et al., 2000; Decrop, 1999). An effort was also made to check if new data corroborates or runs contrary to the established theories that anchored the study.

The practices posited above were in line with Decrop's (1999:160) suggestion of "permanently asking questions and making comparisons". Alternative explanations offered therefore assisted to render the findings and conclusions of the study more valid and reliable. The use of semi-structured interviews was essential, as they had a set of pre-determined questions to ensure consistency in terms of posing them to the respondents. The responses of the tourism experts (key informants) were compared, digressed and probed further, and a degree of validity was therefore ensured, by drawing them from a wide range of tourism sub-sectors for the industry as a whole. The interviews with key informants were audio-taped and transcribed by a professional transcriber at a later stage.

To sum up, triangulation enabled the researcher to compare results from empirical research with data from secondary sources. Interviews were used to add more impetus to the process of triangulation. This therefore enhanced the generalisability of the findings of the study.

5.3.2 Population

Veal (2011:356) defines the terms population as "the total category of subjects which is the focus of attention in a particular research project". The study was conducted in an environment characterised by serious financial constraints and other related resources such as research assistants. It was therefore neither feasible nor effective to attempt to include every person in

the research. Therefore, a sample had to be worked out from a sampling frame. Finn et al. (2000:108) define sampling as a “process of selecting participants for a piece of research, a means by which the sample is obtained, or a portion of the survey population”. The sample was therefore obtained as illustrated below:

The Raosoft Sample size calculator was used (Raosoft Incorporation, 2011) to work out the sample as shown by the following formula:

Sample size:

$$n = \frac{n}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

$$= 1 + N(e)^2$$

N = population size

n = sample size

e = sampling error/precision level of 5% for 90% confidence level (Raosoft

Sample Size Calculator, 2011).

Table 5.1: List of Respondents

Popular tourist sites	Population (per week)	Sample size
Phezulu Cultural Village	425	203
Cabana Beach Resort	217	139
Botanical Gardens	66	57
Totals	708	399

The interviews were conducted with 399 tourists, who visited Phezulu Cultural Village, Cabana Beach Resort and Botanical Gardens in Durban, where a convenience sampling technique was

used. This referred to drawing samples that were accessible and willing to participate in a study (Teddie et al., 2007, Etikan et al., 2016, and Farrokhi, 2012). The technique is useful when randomisation is impossible due to a large population, and when the researcher has limited resources, time and workforce (Etikan et al., 2016). The specified number of tourists (quarters) were obtained from each specified tourist site, but with no randomisation of unit selection. A quarter was based on data telephonically obtained from the management of the above sites by the researcher. The calculation of the sample population was done using the Raosoft Sample Size Calculator, as illustrated in the table. The researcher was assisted by two well trained research assistants to distribute the questionnaires to the tourists in these chosen research areas. Some travellers were targeted in the morning especially on weekends while others were in the afternoon during the week. This was done to enhance an element of convenience. These sites were chosen because of their popularity, geographical proximity, and due the fact that they are some of the sites that attract many tourists per week in KwaZulu-Natal. However, due to cost and time constraints, the tourists were only targeted in Durban. Their responses were cross-checked and validated against those derived from the tourism experts to attain refinement, and ensure reliability.

The main reasons why convenience sampling technique was used, are as follows:

Convenience sampling (haphazard/accidental sampling) is defined as a type of non-probability or nonrandom sampling where members of the target population that meet certain practical criteria, such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, availability at a given time, or the willingness to participate are included for the purpose of the study (Etikan et al., 2016; Clark et al., 2003). This type of sampling offered a high degree of affordability, ease of use, and respondents who were readily available at the chosen research sites (Phezulu Cultural Village, Cabana Beach Resort and Botanical Gardens) in Durban. The objectives of the study were

predominantly qualitative in nature, and they required the use of convenience sampling method.

5.3.3 Key informant interviews

A qualitative approach was used to conduct them. Hofisi et al. (2014) maintain that researchers use qualitative or quantitative methodologies to conduct research, and add that interviewing is one of the data collection techniques used when one uses the qualitative methodology. Babie et al. (2011) define a qualitative interview as an interaction between an interviewee and a respondent in which the interviewer has a general plan of inquiry but not a specific set of questions that must be asked in particular words and in a particular order.

Mishler (1986), on qualitative research interviews, notes that:

“At its heart, it is a process that an interview is a form of discourse. Its particular features reflect the distinctive structure and aims of interviewing, namely, that it is a discourse shaped and organized [sic] by asking and answering questions. An interview is a joint product of what interviewees and interviewers talk about together and how they talk with each other. The record of an interview that we researchers make and then use in our work of analysis and interpretation is a representation of that talk”.

According to Kumar (1996:1), the key informant interviews are qualitative interviews of 15 to 35 people selected for their fist-hand knowledge about a topic of interest, namely: tourism disasters, crises, and the risk-fear nexus and the tourists’ perception of Durban as a tourism destination. The interviews were conducted with senior managers and other stakeholders in

their own offices, and lasted for about 60 minutes. To ensure key informant reliability, the informants were selected from a wide range of fields of specialisation, such as the government, the hospitality industry, accommodation establishment representatives, and tourism organisations, and they comprised in the main directors, managers and secretaries. This ensured that divergent views and perceptions were captured. Fifteen key informants were selected: five in Durban, five in Bloemfontein, and five in Cape Town. Their selection was informed by the fact that they were deemed to be experts in the tourism sector and would therefore provide a vivid picture (Mack et al., 2011) of the participants' perspective on the topic at hand. The informants were conveniently selected until the saturation point was reached. However, a large distance between Durban and Cape Town presented its own dilemma. As noted by Tongco (2007), a high dispersion of the key informants induced higher costs (travelling, accommodation, car hire etc.) for the researcher. This held true with regard to the informants who were supposed to be interviewed in Cape Town. The researcher therefore had to solve the problem by resorting to telephone interviews as a substitute for face-to-face ones. The inputs solicited from the key informants in Bloemfontein and Cape Town was used to augment the data obtained in Durban. The interviews began with the fundamental questions that probed the background of the key informants (Brokaj, 2014), inquiring about their positions or official status in their respective organisations, and the period that their respective establishments have been in operation. This endeavor provided key information needed to understand their personal background (Brokaj, 2014), as well as their positions.

The central questions posed covered qualitative information about the informants' awareness of the disasters, crises and risks, to which Durban is exposed. The themes centered on the following: their understanding of the concepts disasters, crises and risk; the extent to which the disasters, crises and risks affect tourists and the tourism sector in the country; a policy

framework to ensure the safety and security of the tourists; the tourists' current perceptions towards the country; the role played by the private and public sector to manage disasters, crises and risks, and the like (see Appendices attached). The informants were also probed on matters germane to the barriers and constraints in the management of disasters, crises and risks. Equally of importance was the role of the government and other tourism stakeholders in adopting the principles of destination sustainability and competitiveness in the light of the disasters, crises and risks that the country experience as a tourism destination.

The advantages of the use of the key informant interviews were as follows: they provided first-hand information from the experts involved in the tourism industry in the chosen study sites; they left an ample room to explore new ideas not anticipated during the planning of the study; and they cost the researcher less, and were simple to conduct (Kumar, 1996; Mack et al., 2011). However, they posed some problems on the part of the interviewer, where the experts who were initially identified to be interviewed were hard to find, where a tight schedule prohibited their involvement, despite their agreeing to be included in the schedule. This was particularly the case with high-status individuals in the government departments, as it was difficult to be given a slot on their calendar. The researcher had to find suitable substitutes (junior personnel) and this was in certain cases not an easy task. In addition to the above, other problems inherent in conducting the interviews were that they were time-consuming with regard to both data collection and analysis, because they needed to be audio-taped, coded and transcribed. The advantages and disadvantages of key informant interviews are captured by the following table:

Table 5.2: Advantages and disadvantages of key informant interviews

Advantages	Disadvantages
High return rate	Time-consuming

Can involve reality	Small scale study (involved 15 experts)
Controlled answering order	Potential for subconscious bias
Relatively flexible (interviewer is in control of the interview)	Potential inconsistencies attributable to the interviewer's probing skill

Source: Adapted from Alshenqeeti (2014:43)

To deal with the disadvantages highlighted above, especially the question of bias, the researcher used the observation tool as a supplement to interviews to investigate the experts' external behavior and internal beliefs (Alshenqeeti, 2011). In addition to this, the research questions and interview guide were prepared well in advance, where the key informants were selected taking into account the organisations or establishments they represented to ensure that divergent views were considered. Handwritten notes were taken and developed immediately after each session to ensure accuracy.

The notes served a number of purposes. Firstly, they reminded the researcher of certain questions which needed to be revisited and thoroughly ironed out; secondly, they revealed the 'grey areas' where complete information was needed; thirdly, they proved to be useful during the transcription of interview recordings to elucidate further, and add contextual details to what the informants have said (Mack et al., 2011).

Moreover, as a standard practice, an interview summary sheet was compiled to obtain rich data and validate the findings of the study. The summary was mainly used to reduce insightful information provided by the key informants into manageable themes, issues and recommendations. It basically provided vital information pertaining to the informants' position or status; the main motive for their inclusion in the list of information providers; the main points they contributed; the implications of their input; and critical insights which the interviewer noted during the interview (Kumar, 1996).

To ascertain that everything was in order, the researcher also compiled a checklist for conducting interviews, as suggested by Gubrium et al. (2001).

Table 5.3: Checklist for conducting interviews

No.	Items to be checked	Tick
1	Have you identified research questions that would be adequately addressed by the key informants during the interviews?	
2	Has the relevant type of interview been chosen by the interviewer?	
3	Have you prepared the list of questions?	
4	Have you piloted the questions?	
5	Has the setting of the interviews been decided upon?	
6	Has the decision been made how the informants' responses would be continued?	
7	Have you contacted the informants and set up appointments?	
8	Has sufficient data been obtained for analysis?	

Source: Adapted from Gubrium et al. (2001)

Purposive sampling technique was used to select them until saturation point was reached. Purposive or expert sampling is a deliberate choice of experts, due to the qualities that participants possess, and is used in qualitative research to identify and select the information-rich cases for the most proper utilisation of available resources (Etikan et al., 2016). Purposive sampling technique allows participants to present and challenge alternative viewpoints, and to think reflectively and independently. This produced high quality and highly relevant ideas

(Hurd and McLean, 2004). This was ascribed to the fact that when experts were purposefully selected, they were well briefed on the objectives and anticipated end products in advance. Thus, true responses were attained, and such responses were given equal weight (Hurd and McLean, 2004). Simon (2011) contends that data saturation occurs when the researcher is no longer hearing or seeing new information. He adds that this will expedite the process of making meaning from collected data. This technique leads to dynamic moments where unique social knowledge of an interactional quality can be fruitfully generated (Hay, 2005).

It ensures that data collection became complete, balanced and trustworthy. Some researchers consider a sample size of 15 to 20 as appropriate for saturation to be reached (Given, 2008). Therefore, five expert interviews were conducted in Durban, Bloemfontein and Cape Town to bring the total to 15. The latter (number) is regarded as the smallest acceptable sample in all qualitative research (Mason, 2010). They comprised representatives of the provincial government tourism department, municipalities, and tourism organisations, representatives of the hospitality industry, travel agents, and accommodation establishments. The experts were conversant with complex tourism issues, and consequently provided the qualitative data sought. In this sense, expertise which might have been unavailable to the researchers was accessed. The interviews evaluated various stakeholders' perspectives on the disasters, crises and risks which affect South Africa, and the subsequent counter-measures thereof. The interviews were audio-taped and transcribed later.

5.3.4 Audio-taping and transcriptions of the interviews

The key informant interviews were audio-taped so that any additional information that was not captured at the time of the interview could be recalled at the time of data presentation and analysis. Questions were prepared in advance, but as the interviews went on and more issues

were raised, appropriate questions were added to the interview. The use of the pre-prepared questions (see appendices) ensured that all appropriate topics were dealt with.

The transcription of recordings began after the data collection event. The transcriptionist listened to the tape, and wrote down and typed whatever was captured on the tape recorder. The researcher thereafter reviewed the completed transcripts to ensure accuracy (Mack et al., 2005). The transcripts were used to analyse the results of the key informant interviews in a more methodical and complete way (Veal, 2011).

5.3.5 Research instrument

A Likert scale type of questionnaire was drafted. It carried a number of statements dealing with a common theme, and the research subjects were asked to show their degree of either agreement or disagreement on a five-point scale, with 1 for Strongly Agree; and 5 for Strongly Disagree (Cramer, 2005). It was completed by senior managers in the tourism sector in Durban. Tourists also filled it in, and they were conveniently sampled. In this way it evaluated tourists' social perspectives on the risks and disasters which affect South Africa, and the subsequent counter-measures that could be adopted to deal with them, including risks such as: financial, psychological; time costs; health; crime; terrorism; political violence; injury, and death. Xenophobia as well as tourists' personal, social and commercial cues were also be probed. The main reason why the variables listed above were investigated was, as advanced by Sonmez and Graefe (1998), that risks in general have received little research attention because they have been treated as facilitators versus inhibitors or constraints.

5.3.6 Pilot study

Kim (2010:191) defines a pilot study as “a small-scale methodological test conducted to prepare for a main study and is intended to ensure that methods or ideas would work in practice”. Chen (2011:257) argues that it refers to “so-called feasibility studies, which are small-scale version[s], or trial run[s], done in preparation for the major study” or “pre-testing or trying out of a particular research instrument”. The major advantage of conducting a pilot study is that it may indicate where potential pitfalls may lie with the envisaged main study, weaknesses inherent in the research protocols, or whether proposed research methods or instruments are inappropriate or too complicated (Chenail, 2011; Kim, 2010; Linquist, 1991). The pilot study enabled the researcher to prepare for the interviews and to gauge his readiness for conducting the main study. Furthermore it enabled him to expand the research topic and gain a clear conceptualisation of the thrust of the topic at hand.

5.3.7 Research procedure

First, a literature review of the tourists’ perceptions of Durban was undertaken. The findings were then compiled into one document and used as a basis for the empirical analysis (Zoukas et al., 2014). The empirical analysis was informed by data collected through official documents and reports about tourism risks and disasters.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with tourism managers and tourists. Semi-structured interviews refer to:

“The order in which the various topics are dealt with and the wording of the question are left to the interviewer’s discretion. Within each topic, the interviewer is free to conduct the conversation as he thinks fit, to ask the questions he deems appropriate in the words he considers best, to give explanation and ask for clarification if the answer is not clear, to prompt the

respondents to elucidate further if necessary, and to establish his own style of conversation”(Corbetta, 2003:270).

Patton (2002), Harrel et al. (2009), Veal (2011) and Finn et al. (2000) echo the definitional sentiments expressed above, and add that in most instances, the tool used for this type of interviews is often an interview guide of topics to be covered, although a few key pre-determined, prescribed questions may be included. Similarly, to conduct this study, the researcher adopted a style largely allied to the recommendations of other tourism research scholars, in respect of conducting this type of interviews. The questions asked were standardised, and probes were provided to ensure that the correct material was covered (Harrel et al., 2009; Kajornboon, 2004; Patton, 2002). For this reason, the researcher was able to ‘delve’ deeper into the given situations pertaining to the disasters, crises and risk affecting the tourism sector in Durban. For example, the interviewer inquired about the typology of disasters. Some respondents were more ‘disaster aware’ than others, and could give the correct answers (i.e., natural and man-made disasters). Therefore, with this type of interview the researcher was able to probe more detailed questions of the interviewees’ specific situations and not be strictly confined to the interview guide. The interviewer also had enough room to elucidate or rephrase the questions to enhance understanding on the part of the respondents. This type of interview enhanced the gathering of detailed data in a manner that was more rooted in conversation (Harrel et al., 2009; Veal, 2011; Finn, 2000). The classic examples that captured the sentiments posited above are as follows: are the tourists fearful towards disasters like floods; who suffers from the risks associated with floods; what are the possible consequences of floods; who might come to the rescue of the victims of floods?

The examples given above were illustrative of the questions that were asked about natural disasters like storms, tornadoes, earthquakes, floods, and the like. They also served to reflect the probes that the interviewer used to ensure that complete and consistent information was received across various interviews. The items on the checklist were on the conceptual framework of the study.

The information posited above is reflective of the advantages of using semi-structured interviews. The interviewer used his discretion in terms of designing the interview guide, and in terms of posing the questions to the interviewees. The interviewer was able to exercise control over the interview sessions. The respondents too were at liberty to express themselves freely. However, Veal (2011:239) is of the opinion that this type of interviews has its own attendant limits, and this is contingent upon variables such as the length, depth, and structure. The limits are summed up as follows: they might be longer than anticipated, with the result that the interviewer might be compelled to interview the respondents more than once; they probe more deeply than is possible as the interviewer creates time and space for a free talk, asks follow-up questions, and ask the subjects to elucidate their answers; they are less structured and interviews will vary from one to the other though issues covered are the same.

Other limitations are reflected by the table given below

Table 5.4: Semi-structured interviews: limitations and justifications

Limitations of semi-structured interviewing	Justification
Finn et al. (2000:75) “Bias may increase as interviewer selects questions to probe and may inhibit comparability of responses.”	Yin (2003) counters this criticism by stating that bias is just as likely in other research strategies, such as surveys or historical

	research. It is suggested that triangulation can overcome research bias (Creswell, 1994).
Can be difficult to establish trust and rapport.	This depends on the personal attributes of both the interviewer and interviewee.
Fleeting contact – the interviewer and interviewee only spend a relatively short time together. Lack of familiarity can result in guarded, hesitant answers, which provide little information.	Depends on the skill of the interviewer.
Not every interviewee is capable of answering the question in the way the interviewer would hope (Fuchs, 1984).	Role plays and rehearsals are recommended as part of interview training (Flick, 1998).
Misinterpretation of views – understanding the languages and culture of the respondents (Fontana et al, 1994:366).	Depends on the skill of the researcher.
Selection of ‘right questions’.	Depends on the skill of the researcher.

Source: Speakman (2011:47)

The reason for using the semi-structured interviews was that they allowed the research respondents to expand and talk freely about the subsection in question and generate more information than would be the case with fully structured ones (Evans et al., 2005). The information collected from the respondents was analysed and discussed in order to assess the reaction of the tourism destinations both before and in the aftermath of disasters and crises, and the tourists’ social perceptions of the crises and disasters affecting the country. It was also used

to derive wider lessons. Moreover, it was then compared with the theories that anchored the study. The empirical findings were combined with secondary information, and this enabled the study to illustrate the tourists' social perspectives on the crises and disasters affecting the city (Evans et al., 2005). The interviews were conducted in the tourism managers' offices and lasted for about 40-60 minutes.

5.3.8 Summarising and data analysis

The data collected was analysed by using the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS). The latter was used to replicate and speed up some of the more mechanical aspects of the manual processes (Veal, 2011). The latter is corroborated by Sofaer (2002:334), who argues that the use of this computer software expedites the:

“explicit processes for tracking and managing raw qualitative data, for coding the data (not numerically, but rather using phrases) in ways that permit data to be outside of it, for checking on the reliability of coding by using multiple coders, for recognising and articulating emergent ideas about patterns, themes, explanations, and hypotheses, and for then conducting a conscious search both for rival patterns and explanations and for data that in some way disconfirm or refine the patterns and explanations”.

The major aim of data analysis was to achieve the following objectives: to make sense of the data by analysing it; to identify patterns and establish relationships in the study; to draw conclusions about research objectives based on the evidence collected; to make suggestions and recommendations (Clark et al., 1998) for further research and application of the results to other disciplines. This also included recommendations for the development or alteration of

appropriate programmes and policies dealing with disasters, crises, and risks affecting the tourism industry. Recommendations were also made in terms of how to turn around some negative perceptions that tourists harbour towards the city as one of the most important tourism destinations in the world.

5.4 Ethical issues

There was a number of ethical issues the researcher had to abide by in conducting this study. The researcher had to observe the University of KwaZulu-Natal's codes of research ethics enforced by its Social Sciences research committee. On the subject of research ethics, Veal (2011) notes that:

“Codes of research ethics have intrinsic value in protecting the rights of humans and animals involved in research, but they also serve a professional and organisation function. Researchers may be subject to litigation and can lose professional indemnity if they are not seen to have adhered to the appropriate code of ethics”.

The above is borne out of the fact that even though some practices may be ethical, they can still offend others, so the value of the data collected using such practices must be looked at against the disadvantages, which might accrue. In the light of this, the researcher embarked upon the following process to adhere to the ethics laid down by the Department of Social Sciences Research Committee at the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

The researcher wrote a research proposal and presented it before the relevant research committee for approval. The research committee of the Department of Social Sciences subsequently issued an ethical clearance after satisfying itself that all aspects of the study would

be compliant. The clearance confirmed that the researcher had met all the requirements and could go ahead with the study, and was valid for a period of three years. Prior to conducting the study the respondents were asked to sign a document, indicating their agreement to being involved in the research (see Chapter 5). A letter of informed consent covered both the tourists and the key informants. The aim behind the letter was to ensure that research respondents understood the purpose of the study and what it sought to achieve, to ensure that the subjects took part in the study freely, and had a right to withdraw themselves whenever they deemed fit; that no harm would be posed to them, and that their anonymity would be guaranteed.

The respondents were also informed about privacy and security of data, and the ways in which data would be used. Furthermore, they were provided with the contact details of the research project supervisor so that they could direct whatever inquiries they could have to him.

The ethical issues went as far as to asking how the data collected during the study would be handled and stored. Data here refers to hard-copy materials such as questionnaires, digital material such as audio recordings, transcripts and coded data files. These material would be kept safely for a period of five years after the completion of the project. Whoever has to have access to it would have to adhere to confidentiality commitments.

5.5 Summary

This chapter was based mainly on the research approach used and the objectives of conducting the study. It revealed how disasters, crises, and a risk-fear nexus, as well the tourists' perceptions towards Durban as a tourism destination, receives exploration here. It touches on various methodological strategies used to unravel the topic at hand. Mention could be made of a qualitative, grounded theory approach, which may serve as a framework for analysis and

interpretation of data, and literature review, which covers both published and unpublished work. The chapter also dealt with the research population, which was targeted for the attainment of the central goal and objectives of the study. The study sites were not left untouched, and they were illustrative of the areas covered by the study. The tools used to collect data were also touched on, and these comprised interviews with the tourist population, who provided vital insights into the question of how Durban is perceived to be a tourism destination. The role played by the key informants warranted attention as well. The latter provided insightful information on the topic of disasters, crises and risks affecting the tourism sector, the tourists themselves and the city as a whole. The chapter further illustrated not only the tools and strategies used to gather data pertaining to the topic, but also delved into its merits and demerits. It also highlighted the efforts the researcher took to deal with some of the limits inherent in certain methodological strategies to enhance the validity and reliability of the research results.

CHAPTER 6

The impact of disasters, crises and risks on the tourism sector in Durban

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the data captured from the qualitative and quantitative approach is presented, analysed and systematically interpreted, along with the methodology and major categories and themes emerging from the data. The chapter offers a discursive analysis of the subject matter at hand – tourism disasters, crises and the risk-fear nexus, as well as the tourists' perception of Durban as a tourism destination. Furthermore, the chapter sought to highlight the study's most important aims and objectives, and indicate whether they had been realised or not. The documentation and analysis process sought to present data in an interpretable format, so as to identify trends, patterns and relations aligned to the research aims and objectives (cf. par. 1.4, p.14-15). In turn, the identified trends and relations, in accordance with the research aims, sought to elucidate tourism disasters, crises and the risk-fear nexus in the context of how tourists perceive Durban as a tourism destination.

The study drew on four theories that served as a guiding framework to expedite analysis and interpretation of data (cf. par. 1.10, p.26). These theories were employed as an instrument to enhance explanation and understanding of the research findings, and to illustrate the general conditions under which the study was conducted. In order to achieve its intended objectives, the study revolved around literature and empirical research. The latter was unpacked hereunder.

6.1.1 Demographic characteristics of the tourists

Statistics describe the basic features of the data in this study. The statistics provide simple summaries about the sample and measures. This method is performed to enhance knowledge, comprehension and application related to this study. The analysis involved the description of data in terms of frequencies, proportions, mean, median, and the like (<https://www.investopedia.com/terms/d/descriptive statistics.asp>).

The research respondents' demographic characteristics presented here had a direct bearing on the subsequent tests done (the computation of the median; mode and confidence intervals depicting the risk factors influencing travelling in Durban; and the Kruskal-Wallis test and Pearson-Chi square statistics for risk assessment devices). Therefore, the presentation of the demographics factors expedited an understanding of the relationships between the variables probed, and further enhanced an element of clarity and conciseness. The table below served to illustrate this analysis.

Table 6.1: Demographic characteristics of the tourists

Characteristics	Category	Frequency	Percentage % (N=399)
Gender	Male	160	40.10
	Female	239	59.90
	Total	399	100.00
Age	under 20 years	53	13.28
	20-39 years	239	59.90
	40-49 years	58	14.54
	50-59 years	42	10.53
	60-69 years	6	1.50
	above 69 years	1	0.25
	Total	399	100.00
Marital Status	Married	76	19.05
	Single	288	72.18
	Divorced	15	3.76
	Widowed	12	3.01
	Other	8	2.01
	Total	399	100.00
Level	No schooling	24	6.02

of education			
	Primary	16	4.01
	Secondary	110	27.57
	Tertiary	249	62.41
	Total	399	100.00
Country of origin	Local	266	66.67
	Regional (including rest of Africa)	90	22.56
	International	43	10.78
	Total	399	100.00
Occupation	General worker	81	20.40
	Retired/Pensioner	13	3.27
	Self-employed	57	14.36
	Unemployed	194	48.87
	Other	51	12.85
	Missing	3	0.25
	Total	399	100.00

The discussion on the demographic characteristics of the tourists is not an exhaustive one. It just dealt with the following major attributes: The majority of the tourists to whom the questionnaire was administered were female (59, 90%), while the males constituted a low proportion (40, 10%). Their age ranged from 20 to 69 years. The dominant age group was between 20 to 39 years (59, 60%). As far as their marital status was concerned, the majority of the respondents were single (72, 18%). A high proportion of the travelers had a secondary (27, 57%) and a tertiary qualification (62, 41%). In terms of their country of origin, the majority were locals (66, 67%) followed by the regional tourists, who included those from the rest of Africa (22, 56%), and international visitors (10, 78%).

6.1.2 Frequency distribution of the risk factors by tourists visiting Durban

The frequency distribution was given in a tabular format. It is a mathematical function showing the number of instances in which a variable takes each of its possible values. It depicted the frequency of occurrences of values within a particular group or interval. The tourists were

therefore asked to rate risks (socio-environmental/political, economic and personal risks on a 1-5 point Likert scale measuring the prevalence of the risks associated with travelling in Durban. The table below therefore summarised the way in which the values in the population sample were distributed.

Table 6.2: Percentages for common risk factors by tourists visiting Durban

Risk factor	N	Extremely low risk	Low risk	Moderate	High risk	Extremely high risk
Socio/environmental/political risk factors						
Xenophobia	399	15.29	12.78	25.81	23.56	22.56
War	390	25.38	21.79	26.41	16.92	9.49
Terror	381	29.40	19.95	25.98	15.75	8.92
Poor infrastructure	393	19.08	14.25	29.52	22.90	14.25
Security	393	11.96	23.92	27.74	20.61	15.78
Poor service delivery	399	12.28	13.53	21.30	26.07	26.32
Airport safety	389	22.22	20.71	28.54	17.93	10.61
Port safety	389	18.25	5.58	12.18	23.35	50.51
Crime	394	8.38	5.58	12.18	23.35	50.51
Pollution	392	9.44	11.73	21.43	27.30	30.10
Health systems	393	7.38	11.96	28.50	26.21	25.95
Political instability	388	6.44	5.67	21.39	28.09	38.40
Earthquakes	395	34.18	21.01	26.84	10.63	7.34
Poverty	396	6.82	6.82	15.15	25.00	46.21
Unemployment	396	5.30	5.30	10.61	23.74	55.05
Decaying municipal infrastructure	391	10.74	13.30	29.92	27.88	18.16
Floods	397	20.40	14.86	20.40	28.21	16.12
Drought	398	14.82	12.56	26.88	26.63	19.10
Diseases	396	11.87	7.83	19.19	22.22	38.89
Economic risk factors						
High transport costs	397	35.52	19.14	22.17	11.34	11.84
High commodity prices	395	32.91	23.54	25.57	9.62	8.35
Increased infrastructure cost	396	19.19	34			
Negative exchange rate	396	19.19	34.09	29.04	10.10	7.58
Low economic growth	395	31.65	29.37	21.27	10.89	6.84
Export leakages	392	21.17	22.96	38.27	11.48	6.12
Import leakages	396	27.27	23.74	31.82	11.11	6.06
Stiff competition	394	26.65	26.90	29.19	11.68	5.58
Lack of funding	395	37.47	26.33	18.48	8.86	8.86
Economic dependence of locals on tourism	396	25.25	28.03	27.78	13.13	5.81
High taxes	394	36.04	23.86	24.87	8.88	6.35
Theft	397	48.61	18.14	16.12	7.05	10.08
Labour instability and strikes	395	43.80	22.78	16.71	9.11	7.59
Corruption	397	65.24	19.40	8.06	3.02	4.28
Personal risk factors						
Death	399	28.57	16.54	23.81	19.55	11.53
Personal injury	395	20.25	31.14	25.82	17.72	5.06
Assault	396	35.35	26.77	18.43	11.87	7.58
Loss of personal belongings	396	28.28	30.30	22.22	12.12	7.07
Housebreaking/robbery	397	34.01	28.46	19.65	9.32	8.56
Street robbery	398	37.69	29.65	18.34	6.53	7.79

Car hijacking	397	36.02	28.97	18.89	7.81	8.31
Rape	399	34.09	24.56	19.30	13.78	8.27

6.1.2.1 Socio/environmental/political risks

Of the 399 respondents polled, xenophobia was regarded as a moderate risk, at 21.81% to an extremely high risk at 22.56 percent. War is regarded as a moderate risk, at 26.41% to an extremely low risk at 25.38 percent. This applied equally well to terrorism and earthquakes, which were rated as extremely low risks at 29.40% to 34.18%, respectively. The factors which seemed to constitute high to extremely high risks were summed up as follows: port safety at 23.35% to 50.51%, crime at 23.35% to 50.51%, and unemployment at 23.74% to 55.05%, political instability at 28.09% to 38.40% and diseases at 22.22% to 38.89 percent. The remainder of other factors constituted moderate to high risks, and they were: poor service delivery at 21.30% to 26.07%, decaying municipal infrastructure at 29.92% to 27.88%, drought at 26.88% to 26.83% and floods at 20.40% to 28.21 percent.

6.1.2.2 Economic risks

Concerning economic factors (see Table 6.2), a substantially high proportion of the tourists did not regard these as serious threats or hazards. Their ratings gravitated between extremely low and moderate risk. Mention could be made of high transport costs, exchange rate, high taxes and the like. The expected outcome of the ratings for variables such as theft and corruption was high, but the test conducted indicated otherwise. Nevertheless, corruption, theft and labour strikes would not deter travellers from visiting the city. This might be attributed to the fact that the advantages of visiting the city far outweigh the disadvantages or threats posed by these factors. The striking feature here was corruption – which was rated between extremely low and

low risk. This rating could, in the main, be regarded as negative given the topical nature of corruption in the country as a whole. This matter is unpacked further in the subsequent sections.

6.1.2.3 Personal risks

Personal risk factors were also rated by travellers. The ratings here were similar to those given to the economic risk factors. Broadly speaking, the tourists regarded personal risk factors as extremely low, to moderate. The classic examples include rape, death, street robbery, loss of personal belongings, and the like. These factors were also subjected to other statistical tests which were given in the subsequent sections.

To sum up, the most pertinent extremely high risks faced by tourists undertaking their travel in Durban included, but were not limited to the following: port safety, crime, unemployment, poverty, xenophobia, pollution, political instability, and unemployment. Other variables perceived to be moderate to high risks comprised, inter alia, poor service delivery, decaying municipal infrastructure, drought, and floods.

6.1.3 Median, mode and confidence intervals associated with risk factors influencing travelling in Durban

The above statistical measures are typical values around which other figures congregate (Simpson et al., 1957). They are used to describe the position of a distribution. Most importantly, they are the statistics of location which give vital information pertaining to the variance or distribution of observations. Furthermore, the other reason which necessitated their use in this study was that they provided simple quantitative summaries about the sample and

the measures. The results in Table 6.3 below summarised the distribution of response data using a 1-5 point Likert scale, ranging from “extremely low risk” on the one hand, to “extremely high risk” with “moderate” in the middle. Each level of the scale was assigned a numeric value or coding, starting at 1, and incremented by 1 for each level.

Table 6.3: Median, mode and confidence intervals associated with risk factors for travelling in Durban

	Median			Mode			Confidence Interval (CI 95%)		
	South African	Regional	International	South African	Regional	International	South African	Regional	International
Socio/environmental/political risk actors									
Xenophobia	3	3	3	3	5	4	3.08-3.41	3.08-3.63	2.69-3.49
Energy crises	3	3	3	3	3	3	2.79-3.06	2.76-3.26	2.44-3.28
Wars	3	3	3	1	3	3	2.44-2.75	2.42-2.97	2.37-3.11
Terrorism	2	3	3	1	3	3	2.32-2.64	2.40-2.94	2.31-3.11
Poor infrastructure	3	3	3	3	4	3	2.78-3.10	2.77-3.34	2.75-3.53
Security	3	3	3	3	3	2	2.90-3.20	2.80-3.33	2.54-3.38
Airport	3	3	3	3	1	3	2.53-2.84	2.44-2.99	2.71-3.51
Port safety	3	3	3	3	3	3	2.44-2.72	2.55-3.02	2.86-3.52
Natural disasters	3	3	3	3	3	4	2.82-3.14	2.76-3.28	2.72-3.56
Poor service delivery	3	4	4	4	3	4	3.15-3.48	3.29-3.86	3.24-4.00
Pollution	4	4	4	5	4	5	3.41-3.72	3.09-3.68	3.59-4.37
Crime	5	4	4	5	5	4	3.95-4.25	3.51-4.12	3.58-4.32
Political instability	4	4	4	4	5	5	3.71-3.98	3.46-4.99	3.49-4.36
Poverty	4	5	5	5	5	5	3.78-4.07	3.68-4.32	3.92-4.59
Unemployment	5	4	5	5	5	5	4.10-4.37	3.77-4.29	3.77-4.51
Health system	4	4	4	3	5	5	3.35-3.63	3.25-3.78	3.26-4.10
Earthquakes	2	3	3	1	3	3	2.06-2.34	2.35-2.87	2.47-3.26
Floods	3	3	3	4	4	4	2.86-3.19	2.73-3.34	2.84-3.62
Drought	3	3	3	4	3	3	3.09-3.40	2.78-3.35	3.01-3.82
Epidemics	4	4	4	5	5	5	3.60-3.91	3.30-3.94	2.91-3.83
Economic risk factors									
High transport costs	2	2	2	3	1	1	2.26-2.58	2.22-2.83	2.02-2.19
Negative exchange rate	2	2	2	2	2	3	2.41-2.68	2.28-2.80	2.03-2.73
High interest rates	2	2	2	1	2	1	2.27-2.58	2.07-2.62	1.76-2.43
Low economic growth	2	2	2	3	1	1	2.27-2.57	1.92-2.42	1.64-2.36
High commodity prices	2	2	2	1	1	3	2.25-2.54	1.96-2.46	1.83-2.49
Export leakages	3	2	2	3	3	1	2.53-2.79	2.12-2.59	2.17-3.02
Economic dependence of locals in tourism	3	1	2	3	2	2	2.40-2.68	2.09-2.59	1.89-2.62

High taxes	2	2	2	1	3	3	2.04-2.34	2.16-2.65	2.01-2.69
Import leakages	3	2	2	3	2	1	2.31-2.59	2.18-2.67	2.09-2.94
Theft	2	2	2	1	1	1	1.65-2.28	1.90-2.48	1.61-2.39
Labour instability and strikes	2	2	1	1	1	1	2.02-2.34	1.88-2.40	1.48-2.28
Corruption	1	1	1	1	1	1	1.57-1.79	1.34-1.78	1.25-1.77
Personal risk factors									
Death	3	3	3	1	1	1	2.55-2.87	2.31-2.93	2.27-3.12
Personal injury	3	2	2	2	2	2	2.53-2.80	2.10-2.57	2.04-2.72
Loss of personal belongings	2	2	2	2	2	2	2.32-2.63	2.09-2.55	1.74-2.35
Housebreaking/robbery	2	2	2	1	1	1	2.25-2.57	1.86-2.35	1.73-2.36
Street robbery	2	2	2	1	1	2	2.04-2.34	1.85-2.35	1.85-2.57
Car high jacking	2	2	2	1	2	1	2.09-2.40	2.05-2.59	1.67-2.33
Rape	2	2	2	1	1	2	2.24-2.55	2.07-2.60	1.94-2.76
Assault	2	2	2	1	1	1	2.24-2.55	1.78-2.26	1.83-2.63

The discussion of the results is as follows.

6.1.3.1 Socio/environmental/political risks

Xenophobia seemed to be an extremely high risk, where the mode response amongst the regional tourists was 5, which represented an extremely high risk (3.08-3.63); whereas amongst the local tourists it was 3, which represented a moderate risk (3.08-3.41); and amongst the international visitors it was 4; which represented a high risk (2.69-3.49). The difference in mode of response was likely accredited, in part, to the following: the main victims of xenophobia in Durban were foreigners, particularly those who came from other African countries.

This finding confirmed the findings of earlier studies by Soyombo (2011), Palmary (2004), and Mamabolo (2015). For this reason, regional tourists were, by virtue of being the prime victims of xenophobic attacks, most likely to rate it higher on the Likert scale than the other two categories of tourist. This is what Mamabolo (2015:144) refers to as Afrophobia. An extremely

high rating by the regional tourists was traced to the following observations as posited in the literary section of the study: the discrimination meted out on the foreign nationals; a threat that the foreign nationals pose to the local people's economic prospects; high unemployment in the country; competition for scarce resources and job opportunities; the widely-held perception that the immigrants cause crime in the city; and inadequate service delivery (Mamabolo, 2015). The results substantively affirmed what Palmay (2004) called a 'gradation of prejudice' – where immigrants from other African countries are judged on the bases of their skin colour. This is compounded by discrimination, according to which people are treated unevenly, where those who originate from Asia, and by implication, other Western nations, are not victimised because their presence is considered benevolent, such as for tourism or economic investment.

Xenophobic attacks lead to violence and death (see Chapter 4, par. 4.8). The results of this study also corroborated McConnell's (2009) proposition regarding the main factors which trigger xenophobia in Durban, namely, the country's migration policies, low economic growth, and increasing levels of poverty and inequality between the rich and the poor. Xenophobia has a devastating impact on the tourism sector, which requires a climate of safety and security. It affects tourists' perceptions of the city, which the mode responses bore out. The study reinforced the assertion of Adeleke et al. (2011), who maintain that the majority of tourists consider safety when choosing a vacation destination. An unsafe destination therefore invariably acts as a push factor, which repels them. The opposite holds true for a safe destination, which attracts more tourists. The perceptions and the ratings of the regional and international travellers were also in line with mobility theory, as postulated by Cohen and Cohen (2012), which regards safety and security as key prerequisites to sustainable tourism. The theory asserts that tourists' fright, frustration, confusion, and perplexity can be sparked off

by the prevalence of human-made disasters and risks, such as xenophobia, natural disasters, terrorism and the like.

Another variable tested was war (see Table 6.3). It drew out a mode response of 1, which stood for an extremely low risk amongst the locals (2.44-2.75); 3 which represented a moderate risk amongst both the regional tourists (2.42-2.97); and international tourists alike (2.37-3.11). This anomaly was most likely accounted for by the fact that South Africa had never experienced a full scale war in the same way as other African or European countries.

The question of port safety yielded interesting responses from the three categories of tourists. It evoked a mode response of 3 across the board, and this represented a moderate risk for the local tourists (2.44-2.72); regional tourists (2.55-3.02); and international ones (2.86-3.52). The question of dredging in the Port of Durban is most likely going to cause anxiety and fears amongst its users in future. This problem is exacerbated by tropical cyclones, which originate in the warm Mozambique Channel. They pose a threat to the port, as they unleash violent storms and rain along the coast as well as inland, as have only just recently caused wide scale devastation to the country.

Another response enjoying analysis in this study concerned terrorism as a risk factor influencing travelling patterns in the city (see Table 6.3). It elicited a mode response of 1, which represented an extremely low risk for the local tourists (2.32-2.64), 3 which stood for a moderate risk for both the regional travelers (2.40-2.94), and international visitors (2.31-3.11). The difference noted here has its genesis in the following realities: firstly, Durban had never experienced terrorist attacks, which could instill a long-lasting element of fear and anxiety amongst the tourists. Secondly, regional and international tourists rated terrorism to be

relatively high, owing to the fact that some of them originated from the countries that experienced terrorist attacks at one stage or another. Mention could be made of countries such as Kenya, Rwanda, Spain, Turkey, Britain, America, and Asian nations.

Over and above the arguments propounded above, an extremely low risk rating, as revealed by this study, is in concordance with the earlier findings by Croucamp (2014), who asserted that the terrorist acts in South Africa in general were largely criminally-driven, and/or perpetrated by the Muslim fundamentalist groups and minority, white right-wing groups (see Chapter 4, par. 4.8). Croucamp (2014) further reasoned that South Africa had never experienced international terrorist attacks. Notwithstanding the low risk of terrorism, key trigger factors comprise, inter alia, the current weak political and administrative leadership, poor functioning of State-owned enterprises (SOEs), and escalating levels of crime (Gambari, 2004); the country's porous borders, globalisation, advancement in Inter Communication Technology (ICT); the free flow of people, money and goods across the borders (Malgas, 2006); weak security, internal political strives, the proliferation of illegal arms and poverty, and Africa's appraisal as a tourists destination. All these factors can encourage the terrorist to attack tourists in Durban to gain popularity and media coverage (Yousfi, 2006; Adekanye, 2006).

In summation, the tourists assigned low ratings to terrorism as a factor that could potentially affect their travelling in the city. However, it should not be ignored due to these ratings. The political and socio-economic environment that exists in the country serves as a potential factors that can lead to terrorist attacks. More surveillance and intelligence gathering ought to be done on an ongoing basis to keep it under check. This is more so the case as it can scare tourists away from visiting the country, who can cancel their trips to the city as a result. It is a manmade disaster, with a dire consequences; not only for the tourists, but also for the local people,

because it can cause death, destruction of tourism infrastructure, human suffering, displacement of people, migration of business, and the like.

Concerning the question of poor service delivery, the mode response generated showed that it was a high risk. It was perceived as such by both the local and international tourists. The response was 4, and this translated into a high risk for the local tourists (3.15-3.48) as well as their international counterparts (3.24-4.00). The regional travellers rated it as a moderate risk, with a mode response of 3 (3.29-3.86). There is an explicit connection between the findings of this study and those of South African Cities Network (2016) and the Institute of Risk Management South Africa (IRMSA Risk Report, 2015). The high rating by local and international tourists could be reasoned out from the following angle: There are many service delivery-related problems in Durban which create a perception that the local government of the day is unable to deliver essential basic services like roads, water, electricity, telecommunications, and health facilities. The recent water shortage in the Western Cape is a classic example of the government's failure to provide essential basic services. This problem had its genesis during the apartheid era during, which the regime then provided critical infrastructure in a skewed manner, with the white residential areas receiving better treatment than their African counterparts. Many people experienced economic losses during the 99 days of load-shedding in 2015 (South African Cities Network, 2016), and this perception was entrenched in the minds of the tourists as a failure on the part of the government. This lead to socio-economic losses, public discontent, escalation in crime, and the like.

One of the major risks facing the tourism sector in the city is crime (see Table 5.3). The majority of the tourists were of the firm belief that it is an extremely high risk. The following tourists' responses bore testimony to this fact: amongst both the local and regional tourists, crime

elicited a mode response of 5, which amounted to an extremely high risk (3.95-4.25 and at 3.51-4.12 respectively), and a mode response of 4, which represented a high risk for the international travelers (3.58-4.32). The difference in responses was marginal and as such, it could be inferred from these statistics that crime is an extremely high risk. The tourists' ratings could be informed by the following realities, which were also confirmed by the Institute for Security Studies (ISS, 2001). Firstly, both the local and regional travelers could have become actual victims of crime in the country. Secondly, the tourists could be having first-hand experiences of crime and violence, impressions and opinions of the city environments, the media, interaction with the colleagues, friends and family, perceptions about the role, and the ability of the government to provide safety and security. Thirdly, they have a sense of how helpless people feel in protecting themselves against crime. Therefore, if tourists perceive a particular destination to be crime-infested and unsafe, they will avoid visiting it. The issue of safety is also encapsulated in the model of International Tourism Decision Making, as postulated by Sonmez and Graefe (1998). The model argues that safety is one of the main factors that the tourists consider when taking up the decision to travel. It maintains that risky destinations are therefore substituted with those that are perceived to be safe.

The ratings above substantively validated the findings of Croucamp et al. (2004); George (2012), South African Cities Network (2016); Perry et al. (2012); the Institute of Risk Management South Africa (IRMSA Risk Report, 2015); the Road Traffic Management Corporation (RTMC Report, 2016); the Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSVR, 2007); Ferreira (1999); Ferreira et al. (2000); Mudzanani (2017); and Moyo et al. (2013). These scholars all argued that South Africa is the crime capital of the world. They added that crime manifest itself in various forms, and these include, amongst others, the following: murder; car hijacking; personal and property crime (involving the use of weapons);

muggings; rape; ATM scams; home invasions; violence; attacks on cash-in-transit vehicles; cyber-crime; financial and transport-related crimes (involving road fatalities, dangerous driving practices, and smash and grab robberies). Crime occurs because there is an interface between tourism and safety. Mudzanani (2017), Moyo et al. (2013) and Ferreira (1999) have argued that tourism thrives in an environment of peace and tranquility, and as such, it drives tourists towards safer destinations. On the other hand, they admit that the media tend to sensationalise issues around certain forms of crime. Subsequently, the stories on crime, transmitted by the media scare away the tourists. Therefore, the tourism destinations that are invariably risky are substituted with safer ones. The question of image is also relevant, where crime creates a negative image of any destination. Image, in turn, shapes tourists' perceptions of any destination. It is therefore the perceptions alluded to here, which makes the tourist regard crime as an extremely high risk factor in the city.

The spatial distribution of crime warrants attention (see Table 6.3). It is a serious crime in the country's major metropolitan areas, such as Gauteng, Cape Town, Durban and Port Elizabeth (George, 2012; Perry et al, 2012; Croucamp et al, 2004). The crimes that have a significant impact on tourists (South African Cities Network, 2016) are financial, and identity-theft crime, which include amongst others: debit and credit card crime, and advance-fee scams. Many businesses have portable credit card services, where the tourists can swipe their cards when making purchases. Notwithstanding the provision of built-in safeguards mechanisms on the part of banks, using these devices, their cards can be 'cloned' for the purposes of fraud. The skimming devices fitted in some automatic teller machines (ATMs) exacerbate such manner of fraud as well. Criminals also bomb these machines quite often to access stored cash.

Other forms of crime that reinforce the tourists' negative perceptions of the city are committed on the roads. Some motorists drive under the influence of alcohol, use un-roadworthy vehicles, drive at high speed, and cause unnecessary accidents, which claim the lives of other drivers and pedestrians (Road Traffic Management Corporation Report, 2016). Motorists, including tourists, fall victims to smash-and-grab robberies committed at the road intersections or highway off-ramps. In certain cases, bricks are thrown from overhead bridges onto passing tourists, causing serious injury or death, and doing great damage to cars. Blue Light robberies (where criminals pose as policemen and rob motorists at gunpoint) are quite common on the city's roads. It is, in sum, the problems elucidated above which make potential visitors to cancel their envisaged trips to the city, postpone them, or focus on visiting other safer tourism destinations.

Political instability (see Table 5.3) is another variable deserving of attention in the disaster, crises and risk-fear nexus in Durban. There is a high level of political instability, which characterises the political landscape in the country. It is against this backdrop that it is perceived as a high risk by South African tourists (3.71-3.98), and an extremely high risk by both regional (3.46-4.99) and international ones (3.49-4.36). This results therefore authenticated the findings of South African Cities Network (2016), Arekzi et al. (2011), Saha et al. (2014), Alberto et al. (1996), the Institute of Risk Management South Africa (IRMSA Risk Report, 2016), and Santana-Gallego et al. (2016) on political instability and the dynamic factors that can cause it. The tourists' perceptions therefore implicitly reflected a high propensity for a change of government, which leads to an element of uncertainty, anxiety, and fear, as highlighted in mobility theory (Cohen et al., 2012). Unfavourable policies of the government may force risk-averse tourists to undertake their travelling elsewhere.

There are of course a number of factors that may lead to an unfavourable political rating by the tourists. The classic examples includes inter-party political rivalry; the “greed for power and economic wealth” (South African Cities Network, 2016); high unemployment; escalating food and commodity prices; inequalities between the rich and poor; disenfranchisement with rule of the government; political corruption; and low social cohesion (IRMSA Risk Report, 2016). The results also reaffirmed the findings of the study conducted by Twala (2014), which indicated that political instability might also be caused by people’s dissatisfaction with the delivery of basic services.

In addition to the factors highlighted above, there are others that create a negative image of the city politically. The emergence of new political parties such as the Economic Freedom Fighters (EFF), and labour unions such as the Association of Mineworkers and Construction Union (AMCU); South African Federation of Trade Unions (SAFTU); and the growth of the Democratic Alliance’s (DA) supporters in the recent local government elections, were indicative of increasing political dissatisfaction. This creates anxiety and instill fear amongst tourists, who might end up choosing and travelling to politically-stable tourism destinations over Durban.

Poverty as a factor that can influence travelling in the country, yielding a mode response of 5 across the board. This represented an extremely high risk for the local tourists (3.78-4.07), regional tourists (3.68-4.32) and the international travellers (3.92-4.59). This response applied equally well to unemployment, eliciting a mode response of 5, which translated into high-risk for the local tourists (4.10-4.37); regional travellers (3.77-4.29); as well as international ones (3.77-4.51). These two risks, as jointly discussed here, were not unpacked in the literary section of the study. Therefore the QUAL-QUAN approach was employed to probe them further.

These two approaches encapsulate qualitative and quantitative components, which would most likely add significant depth and breadth to the understanding of poverty and unemployment as risk factors. Furthermore, they yielded information-rich cases and corroboration of the findings of the study (Bryman, 2006; Wisdom et al., 2012; Halcomb, 2015; Teddlie et al., 2007). For the purpose of gaining more clarity on these two risks, the key informant interviews were conducted (cf. the results of the key expert interviews in the subsequent section).

Regarding earthquakes as the risks that can influence tourists' travel patterns in the city, the responses could be summed up in the following way: they are regarded as extremely low risks by the local tourists, who allocated them a mode response of 1 (2.06-2.34); moderate risks by both the regional tourists (2.35-2.87), as well as international tourists (2.47-3.26). The differences in the mode responses were mainly due to the following rationales: South Africa occupies the southern tip of the African continent, which is relatively more stable and not subject to intense tectonic movements. Therefore no major earthquakes had occurred in the country and in Durban, and as such, its citizens have no first-hand experiences thereof, as their regional and international counterparts. This line of reasoning tallies with the assertion in South Africa-Disaster Statistics (2010), which indicate that the country is not known for its frequency of severe natural disasters. These statistics contend that, with the exception of floods, drought, and mild earthquakes, the southern tip of Africa has been relatively free of severe natural disasters. On the other hand, the responses assigned to these risks by both the regional and international tourists suggest that they might have had an exposure to them, probably in their own countries of origin.

Floods are high-risk factors influencing the tourists' visitations to various destinations in the country. Local, regional, and international tourists collectively assigned them a mode response

of 4, which represented a high risk (2.86-3.19, 2.73-3.34 and 2.84-3.62, respectively). The results reinforced the information gleaned from the work of Grobler (1996); Caelum (1991); Alexander (1993); Van Zyl (2006); Msengana-Ndlela (2008); Chagutah (2009); Tempelhoff et al. (2009); and the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies, regarding the common occurrence of floods in Durban (Grobler, 1996). Grobler (1996) argued that the natural meteorological catastrophes affecting Durban include cyclones, floods, tornadoes, and hailstorms. South Africa (2007:16-17) concurred that of the 946 catastrophic events recorded thus far, “wet” events such as floods, hailstorms, cloudbursts and torrential rain accounted for 59% of cases, while “windy” ones such as the hurricanes, gale-force winds, tornadoes, thunderstorms, whirlwinds, sandstorms, storms and waterspouts made up 33% of the cases. In summary, floods cause massive damage to the infrastructure, destroy property and homes, claim people’s lives; causing epidemics, landslides, and economic losses. It is this impact which create negative perceptions about the city. Floods interfere with the tourists’ travelling behavior, and force them to cast their visits elsewhere.

One of the major risk factors that influence travelling in the city is drought (see Table 5.3). It is perceived by the tourists to be a moderate to a high risk. Local tourists assigned it a mode response of 4, which represented a high risk (3.09-3.40), while the regional and international tourists perceive it to be a moderate risk, which collected a mode response of 3 (2.78-3.35 and 3.01-3.82), respectively. Its main cause is rainfall variability. The results resonated well with the assertion of Backenberg et al. (2003), Austin (2008), and Sing (2006), who argued that droughts are endemic in many parts of the country, and by implication, in Durban. These scholars argued that they are the end product of a complicated array of biophysical and socio-economic factors, with multi-sectoral impacts and multiplier effects that also affect tourism and the tourists, and these include the following: significant food and water scarcity; social

disruption; population displacement; pronounced agricultural losses to the farmers; reduced income; drastic food price increases; malnutrition; and unemployment. Issues such as food shortages and the concomitant high prices affect the tourists. Losses in the agricultural sector spill over to the tourism industry whose accommodation establishments, hotel chains, guesthouses, airlines and the like are all adversely affected. The current observations, as cited in the Mercury newspaper (9 February 2018), lends credence to this observation thus, “Southern Africa is already warming at an alarming rate, twice the global mean. Cape Town, one of the world’s most popular tourist destinations, is suffering through its worst drought yet.” Other destinations like Durban used to have the same problem, and it is not solved as yet. Some of the Durban residents have first-hand experiences of the severe impact of drought, because they live near Hazelmere Dam, which often had water cuts when the drought in KwaZulu-Natal was at its worst (Mercury, 26 January 2018).

Epidemics are also prevalent in the city. The tourists reasoned out their common occurrence in the following manner: all the three categories assigned them a mode response of 5, which stood for an extremely high risk (3.60-3.91; 3.30-3.94 and 2.91-3.83), respectively. The results substantively lend credence to the findings of earlier studies conducted by Liu et al. (2013); the World Health Organisation (WHO, 2014); United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Reduction (UNISDR, 2004); Henderson (2007); Laws et al (2007); Lerbinger (2012); and Maditinos et al. (2008). According to the above scholars, epidemics are triggered by the increase in the number of foreign travelers in the city; lack of health care facilities to cure diseases, the process of globalisation; the attitudes of the tourists themselves; lack of money; and an increase in the use of cruise ships, wherein gastrointestinal diseases are frequently recorded. To this end, Laws et al. (2007) has argued that the travelers from Hong Kong also carry diseases such as avian influenza, which is very deadly, and can discourage visitations to

tourism destinations. On the other hand, Lerbinger (2012) contended that bioterrorism also causes epidemics, adding that countries like Iraq, Iran, Libya, and North Korea are well known for using biological weapons. Severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS), foot and mouth disease, anthrax, smallpox, and ebola affect tourists too.

It is, in sum, the perceptions highlighted above which are entrenched in the minds of the tourists that contributes to the ratings given. Diseases therefore have the potential to discourage visitation to tourism destinations; evoke cancellation of planned trips; impede investment opportunities; and oblige the visitors to choose travelling to relatively disease free-destinations.

6.1.3.2 Economic risks

As far as the economic factors were concerned (see Table 5.3), the tourists' reactions vacillated mainly between 1 (an extremely low risk) and 3 (moderate risk). The premier examples of these economic factors included high transport costs; high interest rates; low-economic growth; high taxes; labour instability; and the like. The tourists rated themselves lower than the political/environmental factors. The findings indicated that, conversely speaking, the travellers were less likely to be deterred from travelling to Durban by economic factors.

Regarding the economic factors, the most unexpected outcome hinged around corruption. It elicited low median, mode, and confidence intervals. This finding was peculiar and diametrically contradicted by an overwhelming body of knowledge produced by many experts. The contradiction was embedded in the following rationales, as put forth by Drury et al. (2006); The Public Protector South Africa (2015); Croucamp et al. (2014); Bruce (2014); and the Institute of Risk Management South Africa (IRMSA Risk Report, 2015); namely that the perceived level of patronage, nepotism, influence peddling, the use of one's position for

aggrandisement, or bestowing favours on relatives and friends is currently high; there is a high perceived lack of accountability by the leadership both in government and the private sector; a culture of impunity; lack of policies to enforce accountability; skills deficit; a lack of openness and transparency.

The results even ran counter to some observations, indicating that (Bruce, 2014:56) corruption in the city is not new, as it predated apartheid, during which time power and supremacy was used to ensure that the state's resources were used to benefit the white minority only. To this end, Many-Gilbert et al. (2013) added that even the country's former homelands used to be led by corrupt leadership and weak administration. Corruption is also closely related to governance failures (IRMSA Risk Report, 2016), which are mainly caused by a lack of substantive regulations to enforce accountability, openness, and transparency. It is a scourge with profound ramifications, which comprise, inter alia, trade sanctions, economic down ratings, loss of membership of international organisations, inability of state institutions to access vital information globally, economic disinvestments, and emigration. Moreover, it affects tourism negatively (Santana-Gallego et al., 2016). The latter scholars argued that crimes like bribery and fraudulent business transactions can damage the city's social, cultural images and tourism competitiveness. This compels tourists to travel to destinations with minimal corruption, and this is particularly the case with travellers who come from countries where it does not exist. It makes the tourists incur high costs, which manifest themselves in the form of bribes – for example, to obtain a visa, to bribe law enforcement officers, to let them through a road block, or to get a preferential treatment in eateries (Santana-Gallego et al., 2016). In sum, even though corruption, alongside state capture, is a topical issue predominating all other news items that appear in print, electronic and social media platforms, this will not discourage travellers from visiting Durban.

6.1.3.3 Personal risks

Insofar as personal risk factors are concerned (see Table 5.3), there were no statistically significant responses offered by tourists. This could be ascribed, but not limited, to the following practical rationales: firstly, tourists did feel that issues like death, injury, assault and the like are difficult to avoid. Secondly, personal risk factors can affect anyone at any given time. Therefore the tourists just learn how to be resilient to them, all the more so as Durban is still regarded as a developing city, with no resources to deal with all the social ills. The tourists who visit risky destinations like Johannesburg, Durban, and Cape Town exemplify this scenario. The results corroborated the assertion of Saha et al. (2014), who argued that tourists might adopt what is called “inward-oriented rationalisation” – a strategy whereby they reduce the perceived risks prevailing in any destination by emphasising the provision of security and safety, or an “outward-oriented rationalisation”, whereby they stress that risks occur anywhere, and anyone can be a potential victim. To sum up, the tourists’ responses seemed to be statistically insignificant as they found personal risk factors to be unavoidable.

6.1.4 The Kruskal-Wallis test for risk factors

The Kruskal-Wallis test is a rank-based nonparametric test that can be used to determine if there are statistically significant differences between two or more groups of an independent variable on a continuous or ordinal dependent variable (statistics.laerd.com). In this study, this was used to compute, quantify, and compare the mean responses of tourists by their country of origin to assess the null hypothesis: H_0 . The results were captured as illustrated by the table below:

Table 6.4: Kruskal-Wallis Test for risk factors

Risk factor	Observations	Rank Sum	Chi-square H-Statistic with 2 df	Probability
Socio/environmental/political risk factors				
<i>Xenophobia</i>				
South African	266	53063.00		
Regional	90	17993.00	0.505	0.7639
International	43	7912.00		
<i>War</i>				
South African	259	49718.50		
Regional	89	17888.00	0.808	0.6675
International	42	8638.50		
<i>Terror</i>				
South African	254	46972.00		
Regional	85	17174.50	2.341	0.3103
International	42	8624.50		
<i>Poor infrastructure</i>				
South African	262	50543		
Regional	88	17931	1.286	0.5257
International	43	9036		
<i>Security</i>				
South African	260	51476		
Regional	90	17871	0.322	0.815
International	43	8073		
<i>Poor service delivery</i>				
South African	265	50666.00		
Regional	90	19301.00	3.691	0.1580
International	42	9036.00		
<i>Airport Safety</i>				
South African	265	51392		
Regional	88	17506	3.786	0.1506
South African	43	99707		
<i>Port Safety</i>				
South African	259	47677		
Regional	88	17983	10.618	0.004***
International	42	10194		
<i>Crime</i>				
South African	263	53523		
Regional	89	16607	2.233	0.1506
International	42	7684		
<i>Pollution</i>				
South African	260	50616.00		
Regional	89	16289.00	2.233	0.3274
International	43	10123.00		
<i>Health Systems</i>				
South African	263	50851.00		
Regional	89	17700.50	1.483	0.4764
International	41	8869.50		
<i>Political Instability</i>				
South African	261	49599		
Regional	87	17503	1.401	0.4964
International	40	8364		
<i>Earthquakes</i>				
South African	263	48122.50		
Regional	89	19696.00	14.551	0.0007***
International	43	10391.50		
<i>Poverty</i>				
South African	263	50698		

Regional	90	18231	3.086	0.2137
International	43	9677		
<i>Unemployment</i>				
South African	264	53320		
Regional	89	16546	1.436	0.4877
International	43	8539		
<i>Decaying municipal infrastructure</i>				
South African	261	50391		
Regional	88	18093	0.823	0.6628
South African	42	8151		
<i>Floods</i>				
South African	266	52351.50		
Regional	88	17512.50	0.695	0.7064
International	43	9.139.00		
<i>Drought</i>				
South African	265	53328		
Regional	90	16826	1.921	0.3826
International	43	9248		
<i>Diseases</i>				
South African	264	53391		
Regional	89	17661	1.994	0.3690
International	43	7553		
Economic Risk factors				
<i>High Transport Costs</i>				
South African	264	52170		
Regional	90	18296	0.165	0.9208
International	43	8537		
<i>High commodity prices</i>				
South African	262	53583		
Regional	90	16763	2.536	0.2814
International	43	7594		
<i>Increased infrastructure cost</i>				
South African	262	51872		
Regional	90	17838	0.001	0.9997
International	43	8499		
<i>Negative exchange rate</i>				
South African	265	53463.50		
Regional	89	17345.00	0.831	0.6600
International	42	7797.50		
<i>Low economic growth</i>				
South African	263	54645.50		
Regional	89	16368.00	6.381	0.04***
International	43	7196.50		
<i>Export leakages</i>				
South African	263	53790.00		
Regional	87	15210.50	4.595	0.08
International	42	8027.50		
<i>Import leakages</i>				
South African	265	52755		
Regional	90	17602	0.008	0.9570
International	41	8248		
<i>Stiff competition</i>				
South African	263	51428		
Regional	90	18024	0.263	0.8709
International	41	8362		
<i>Lack of funding</i>				
South African	264	51096		
Regional	89	19344	3.502	0.1736

International	42	7770		
<i>Economic dependence of locals on tourism</i>				
South African	263	54250		
Regional	90	16763	3.821	0.1480
International	43	7592		
<i>High taxes</i>				
South African	264	53667		
Regional	89	17124	2.250	0.3246
International	42	7418		
<i>Theft</i>				
South African	265	52435.50		
Regional	89	18309.50	0.489	0.7830
International	43	8258.00		
<i>Labour instability and strikes</i>				
South African	263	53024		
Regional	90	18006	2.652	0.2655
International	42	7179		
<i>Corruption</i>				
South African	264	53588		
Regional	90	17102	0.974	0.6143
International	43	8313		
Personal risk factors				
<i>Death</i>				
South African	266	53813.50		
Regional	90	17367.00	0.442	0.8018
International	43	8619.50		
<i>Injury</i>				
South African	263	54864.00		
Regional	90	15766.00	6.856	0.03***
International	42	7580.00		
<i>Assault</i>				
South African	264	54763.50		
Regional	89	15595.00	5.437	0.05***
International	43	8247.50		

6.1.4.1 Hypothesis test

H_0 - There was no statistically significant difference between the mean responses on risk factors by local, regional and international travelers in Durban. In short, the null hypothesis stated that the population medians were all equal. In this Kruskal-Wallis test, we computed and compared means responses of tourists by origin (i.e., with p-values significant at 95% significance level), to assess the null hypothesis. As a default setting, a significance level (denoted as α or alpha) of 0.05 indicated a 5% risk of concluding that a difference exists when there was no actual difference.

If the H-statistic was below 0.05, we rejected the null hypothesis and concluded that there was 95% chance that at least tourists had statistically significant differences in their perceptions to risks. The results in Table 5.6 present the H-statistic with a subsequent chi-square distribution with $k-1=3-1=2$ df (degrees of freedom). Thus, we can reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level and state that South African, regional and international tourists are significantly different in their opinion of key risk factors to consider when travelling to Durban. For instance, there is significant difference in the regard of personal risk factors (i.e. assault ($H=5.437$), 2 df, $p=0.05$ and injury ($H=6.856$), 2 df, $p=0.03$ among tourists as well as socio/environmental/political risk factors, such as low economic growth ($H=6.381$) 2 df, $p=0.04$, port safety ($H=10.618$), 2 df, $p=0.004$ and earthquakes ($H=14.551$), 2 df, $p=0.0007$, respectively.

Table 6.5: Pearson Chi-square statistics for the association between source of information and origin of tourist

Source of Information	South African	Regional	International	Degrees of freedom with 2 df	X ² Pearson's Chi-Square Statistic	Probability
Media	215	72	36	4	0.7912	0.940
Travel agents	148	51	21	4	1.4521	0.835
Tour Operator	151	53	21	4	2.6739	0.614
Forecast	133	43	29	2	4.9089	0.08
Friends and relatives	216	76	40	2	3.2686	0.195

Law enforcement agencies	186	57	30	2	1.3987	0.497
Crime statistics	177	59	24	4	2.5930	0.628
Tourists	163	57	25	4	0.7539	0.945
Complains	158	50	20	2	1.9175	0.383
In loco	136	43	19	2	0.7204	0.698
Home affairs	165	46	43	2	3.6736	0.159
Embassies	139	50	28	2	2.4079	0.300
Department of Trade and Industry	152	45	21	2	1.8940	0.388
IGP	189	56	29	2	1.7568	0.415
South African Police Service	203	68	36	2	1.0797	0.583
National Department of Tourism	184	63	28	2	0.4388	0.803
Word of mouth	221	72	33	2	1.0827	0.582

The results in Table above showed that there was no statistically significant relationship between the type of preferred source of travel information to Durban and origin of tourists. However, there is a clear trend towards significance in the relationship between origin of the tourist, and relying on political and economic forecasts for information regarding risks in Durban (chi-square with 2 degrees of freedom = 4.9089, $p = 0.08$).

6.1.4.1 Summary

This chapter delved into a discursive analysis of the impact of disasters, crises and risks on the tourism sector in Durban. The data obtained from both qualitative and quantitative approaches was presented, analysed, and interpreted. To achieve this, the demographic characteristics of the travellers was dealt with, and in addition to this, the tests were done to unpack the results. Mention could be made of the computation of the median, mode and confidence intervals showing the risk factors influencing travelling in Durban, the Kruskal-Wallis test and Pearson-Chi square.

The chapter furthermore treated the frequency distribution of the risk factors by tourists visiting the city's destinations. The distribution covered three main categories of risk, namely, the

socio/environmental/political, economic, and personal risks. Of the 399 tourists surveyed, the emergent picture could be summed up as follows: xenophobia was regarded as a moderate to an extremely high risk; war as a moderate to an extremely low risk; while terrorism and earthquakes fell in the category of very low risk. The results showed that port safety, crime, unemployment, political instability and diseases were extremely high risk; while poor service delivery, decaying municipal infrastructure, drought and floods constituted moderate to high risk. A substantive number of the respondents did not rate economic factors such as high taxes, high transport costs etc. as serious threats. Even though the ratings assigned to corruption were low, the study revealed that this factor can have serious consequences for the tourism industry in general. Personal risk factors such as rape, death, and street robbery elicited low ratings.

The ratings elicited by the risk factors posited above could be ascribed to a number of variables, some of which are captured as follows: xenophobia, for example, elicited very high ratings due to the diverse experiences of the regional and international tourists, who had had first-hand experience thereof, as compared to local travellers. The main victims of xenophobia in the city were foreign nationals. War conveyed different meanings to the tourists – hence the local tourists regarded it to be low risk, while their regional and international counterparts viewed it as a moderate risk. This could be attributed to the fact that South Africa has recently never experienced a crisis such as coup de' tat as have other African or some European countries. The latter applied equally well to terrorism, for which the locals had no practical experience bar the harsh attacks meted out on them during the apartheid era, and isolated terrorist attacks carried out by the minority white, right wing groups. Nevertheless, the study cautioned that terrorist attacks in the city should not be totally discounted, as the current geo-political climate may serve as a potent force to trigger them.

The other high risk factors worth considering in the risk-fear nexus in Durban is crime, and its various manifestations, which comprise, inter alia, hijackings, murder, violence, home invasions, cash-in-transit heists etc. Political instability in the city is high, and is attributed to perceived poor leadership and governance. Poverty and unemployment are other risk factors that influence the travelling patterns in the city, and this holds true for both floods and drought. Epidemics could not merely be left untouched – they are rated as high-risk factors as well. This is ascribed to a lack of money; inadequate health facilities; globalisation, and the like. Corruption generated statistically low responses. This finding is negative, and runs contrary to findings posited in the literary section, which illustrate otherwise.

The Kruskal-Wallis test was employed to gauge whether there were any statistically significant differences with regard to the way the three categories of the travellers viewed risks. It illustrated that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean responses on the risk factors as viewed from the tourists' vantage point. The Pearson-Chi square test was also used to assess the association between sources of information and the tourists' country of origin. This too showed that there was no statistically significant relationship between the sources of information that the tourists utilise to assess safety and security in Durban, and their country of origin. However, some tourists rely on political and economic forecasts for risk-pertinent information in the country.

In sum, the high risk factors which influence travelling patterns in the city are xenophobia, political instability, terrorism, diseases, unemployment, poverty, drought, and floods. These factors cumulatively heighten the risk-fear factor amongst the tourists, and yield diverse impacts which include but are not limited to death, destruction of property, tourism infrastructure, human displacement and suffering, low economic growth, proliferation of arms, cross-border flow of illegal goods and services. They have the potential to destroy the city's

social and cultural image, tourism functionality, sustainability and competitiveness. They can affect the tourists' perceptions of the city adversely and propel them to visit the relatively safer cities. They destroy a climate of peace, safety and security which are key ingredients for successful tourism industry.

CHAPTER 7

Discussion on tourism disasters, crises and risks

7.1 Introduction

Disasters, crises and risk are the social constructs that occur at the intersection of humankind and the environment. They manifest themselves mainly as natural and manmade, and have both positive and negative connotations for the tourism industry. This chapter therefore seeks to present the empirical results examining the disasters, crises, and risk perception, and how the tourists perceive Durban as a tourism destination. It will draw on the literary section and the theoretical framework provided in Chapter 1 and 3, respectively, to unpack the risk-fear nexus, thus bringing to the fore the new emergent trends in respect of the disasters, crises and risk affecting the tourists in the city. Furthermore, it will deal with the input of key informants to shed more light on the subject matter at hand. Finally it will briefly present the key findings of the previous studies conducted with a view to investigate crises affecting the tourists in South Africa, and reveal some convergent and divergent views between these studies.

7.2 The impact of xenophobia on destination image

The results presented in Chapter 6 indicated that xenophobia is a moderate to high risk. In this regard, the findings are situated within the core propositions of the mobility theory as postulated by Sheller (2011) and the new mobility paradigm (Sheller et al., 2005). The proponents of these theories argued that tourism constitutes a sub-set of a vast and heterogenous complex of global mobilities, which comprise, inter alia, migration, return migration, transnationalism, diasporas, obligatory (e.g. xenophobia); and voluntary forms of

travel. McConnel's (2009) strand of analysis on the causes of xenophobia also tally with the central tenets of the Mobility Theory. The scholar argued that since the advent of formal democracy in South Africa in 1994, its citizens enjoyed freedom, which they felt had to be guarded from foreign nationals with a view that the latter should not enjoy it. Consequently, the government was pressurised to put the priorities of its citizenry first for both transformation and change. McConnel (2009) reiterated that the country's migration policies, low economic growth, and poverty, coupled with inequality, were some of the causal factors of the xenophobic attacks. Freddy, a local tourist, had this to say regarding some other causes of xenophobia: "It is mainly ascribed to a stiff competition for jobs whereby the local people complaint that the foreigners are taking over the jobs which could potentially be given to them, e.g. in the transport industry (truck driving), manufacturing, and security and textile industries. What compounds this problem further is that the foreign nationals provide cheap labour while their local counterparts are expensive. Consequently the potential employers tend to ignore the latter, thereby causing more strained relations between the two parties".

The results also indicated that xenophobia was more of a concern to the travelers particularly those who come from other African countries. This resonates with the analysis provided by scholars such as Soyombo (2011); Palmary (2004); South Africa (2014); Masuku (2006); Matsinhe (2011); McConnel (2009); Adeleke et al. (2011); and South African Cities Network (2016), who argued that xenophobia is a discriminatory practice, meted out on the foreigners and strangers. Its main causes, include amongst others, a high number of immigrants; competition for critical resources like health facilities (South African Cities Network, 2016); the current political friction (South Africa, 2014); and poor service delivery (Mamabolo, 2015). Some of its causes are implicitly ingrained in the Mobility Theory as postulated by Cohen et al. (2012). For example, the terrorist attacks which occurred on September 11, 2001 in

Washington DC have led to strong anti-immigrant sentiments worldwide (regarded as one of the causal factors), where as a resultant, the states have reinforced security at their boundaries to keep immigrants in check. These scholars argued that this scenario is exemplified by the Shengen states in Europe, who have stringent entry requirements on potential tourists from outside. This crisis is implicitly captured in the paradigm of contemporary (im)mobilities, as postulated by Sheller (2011:3), who argues that “mobility is not only concerned with power relations but also with friction, turbulence, immobility, dwelling pauses and stillness, and illustrates how these variables are practiced in relation to the gendered, raced and classed mobilities of particular others”. It is against this backdrop that the researcher opines that xenophobia has dire consequences for its victims: causing cultural displacement; leading to the loss of temporary residence; and rendering them highly immobile. The periods of xenophobia in South Africa (see Chapter 3, Table 2.8), as advanced by Matsinhe (2011), also captured the concomitant impacts of these attacks, which are in line with the cardinal pronouncements of the risk perception theory. Death, violence, property destruction, displacement, and immobility were experienced by the foreign nationals from Senegal, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, and Somalia. These attacks were carried out across the breadth and the length of the country, and affected in the main the foreigners, who were stationed in Gauteng, Western and Eastern Cape, North West, Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal and Free State.

The impact of xenophobia, as illustrated above, are echoed by the cardinal tenets of protection motivation theory, in which the model of international decision-making process postulated by Sönmez et al., (1998) is rooted. According to this theory, people tend to respond to threats, anxieties and hazards in various ways, and their intention to protect themselves is contingent upon the following: firstly, the perceived severity of a threat; secondly, the perceived probability of occurrence or vulnerability; thirdly, the efficacy of the recommended behaviour

and fourth, perceived self-efficacy. The theory maintains that there is a relationship between risk perception, injuries and incidents, and that people take protective action when they are motivated, and have the agency to execute this task. On the other hand, Maddux et al. (1982) argued that people employ two decision-making strategies when confronted with fear appeal, namely, a precautionary strategy, and a hyper defensive strategy.

The scenario painted above by the latter scholar was exactly what transpired in South Africa during the xenophobic attacks, where the foreigners perceived the attacks in a very serious light, subsequently taking the law into their own hands, and protecting themselves against the locals, thus leading to a further spiraling of more violence (South African Cities Network, 2016; Palmary, 2004; Masuku, 2006). The theory further contended that risk perception and perceived severity lead to travellers changing their intentions and behaviour towards risk; for example, the visitors from other parts of Africa have had a personal exposure to xenophobia, and therefore felt less safe and displayed a heightened risk perception than those who have not. Risk perception theory also added more credence to the above assertion, by stating that when people are confronted by a disaster, crisis or risk, they respond in the following ways: they either confront the problem; or they escape from it (escape paradigm), travelling to safer destinations or employ avoidance strategies.

Protection motivation theory argue that some hazards, albeit being perceived to be too dangerous, are not well communicated to the tourists, due to the lack of concern by the society in general; the classic example of this being climate change (Rainer et al., 2017). The disregard therefore leads to useful countermeasures being disregarded. This low-level societal concern has, from a communication perspective, the following practical implications: firstly, useful measures are not implemented to deal with the hazard in question. Secondly, the hazard in

question does not enjoy news coverage and scientific processes that deal with it. Thirdly, it becomes awkward to be more pro-active in strategies to deal with a certain crisis, because people tend not to face hazards that do not affect them psychologically (Rainer et al, 2017). These scholars argued that people have a dim view of a hazard such as climate change in many respects – geographically, temporally, socially and probabilistically (Rainer et al., 2017:140). To this effect, a key informant, Eliza, reiterated that most tourists are not well conversant with climate change issues, what it actually entails, and what dangers it holds for people in general”. This scenario leads to decreased risk perception, and lowered protective measures. This is the main reason why risk scholars have called for the design of future communication campaigns and interventions to be driven by theoretical frameworks that are underpinned by protection motivation. Rainer et al. (2017) further added that protection motivation theory, as postulated by Carl Rogers in 1975, is a useful model to elucidate the adoption of pro-environmental behaviours. These scholars posited that it is a persuasive tool that generate some insights into how fear appeals affect attitudes and behaviour, and is anchored around two key pillars, namely, threat appraisal and coping appraisal.

Westcott et al. (2017) argued that even though prevention and preparedness are key prerequisites for disaster management they are poorly implemented across all disasters, crises and risks. This is in part attributed to the fact that messages of hazard mitigation and preparedness are inconsistently received despite the escalation of emergency services’ public education campaigns. These scholars added that awareness-preparedness gap in community and individual residents’ survival plans is decreasing disproportionately slowly when compared to the amount of resources utilised to reverse this trend (Westcott et al., 2017:2).

Protection motivation theory's main objective is to recognise and assess the danger posed by disasters, crises, and risk in relation to the tourists' movements. Westcott et al. (2017) added more credence to this assertion, by pointing out that this theory is applicable to many social problems, and added that it has been successfully applied to the studies of natural hazards: the earthquakes in the United States; the floods in Germany and France; the wild bushfires in Australia, as well as adaptations to climate change are classic examples. According to Westcott et al. (2017), the model is also relevant and useful in disaster discourse, where it can shed more light to mass human turmoil and displacement associated with disasters, crises, and risk. Furthermore it serves as a catalyst for passing of some policies that deal with disasters in the wake of public outcry over the human impact. It is used to achieve improved safety for humans, and encourages them to evacuate dangerous environments in a timely manner (Westcott et al., 2017).

In line with the tenets of protection motivation theory research, other crises like crime can also be discussed. Clubb et al. (2015:336), argue that some people adopt 'constrained behaviour' as a protective response to crime, but cautioned that this has a boomerang effect, where people do not want to be exposed to crime out of fear that it will lead to a decreased quality of life; hence, they adopt avoidance or defensive behaviours. They posited that an engagement in constrained behavior heightens, rather than alleviates fear, and is at best counterintuitive. The scholars propounded that "constrained behavior [sic] serves as a reminder of the risk of crime," (Clubb et al. (2015:336) for example, the issue of having to arm and disarm an alarm system daily intensifies fear by providing a constant reminder of the threat of home victimisation. This behaviour has both monetary costs, and reduces quality of life. In the context of this study, people tend to assess the level of safety and security in various destinations so as to avoid possible exposure to crime. They gather information from friends, family members, the media,

neighbours, and the like regarding victimisation threats and potential strategies that they could utilise to ensure their protection (Clubb et al., 2017).

In the context of crime-related threats (Clubb et al., 2015) the sources of information are critical in providing the individual with intelligence in respect of the potential criminal threats, to which the individual could be exposed, and the probable mitigation measures. The information too can serve as a tool to increase or decrease perceptions of potential crime, spur on or discourage the usage of protective strategies. The scholars argued that the media, including verbal persuasion, plays a key role in cascading information pertinent to the environmental threats like crime, floods, and drought to tourists. Consequently, the more exposure that one gets to the media, the more heightened the fear of crime (Callanan, 2012; Weitzer et al., 2004; Chiros et al., 1997).

Even though the information sources tend to worsen concerns about crime in tourism destinations by shedding light on crime incidents, crime statistics, and its graphic visual images (Clubb et al., 2015), they also assuage fears about it by providing effective countermeasures against it. In the context of the protection motivation model, the media ought to play a primary role to make people aware of the presence or absence of crime problems, suggest possible mitigating and protective strategies, and encourage or discourage their use (Clubb et al., 2015). This scenario is equally applicable to other key sources of verbal persuasion, which include conversation with significant others such as the family; neighbours; friends; and community members. They too cascade information they know about crises like crime, and this by implication, finally reaches even tourists. These scholars argued that sound communication and

social interaction with others often leads to decreased fear of crises like crime (Kruger et al, 2007).

Information integration theory holds that the decision-making process consists of five stages, which comprise: problem recognition; information search; alternative evaluation and selection; outlet selection and purchase; and post-purchase processes (Hawkins et al., 1995; Sirakaya et al., 2005). These stages are all driven by socio-psychological processes, tourist beliefs, motives, and attitudes. In this context tourists are seen as people who search, evaluate and store information (Sirakaya et al., 2005). This effectively implies that the information could be utilised by the tourist in terms of deciding which tourist destination to visit and vice versa. The destinations that carry a negative image and which are often affected by disasters, crises and risk would be avoided. The opposite holds true for those with a positive image – they would attract many travellers in search of good quality touristic experiences.

Sirakaya et al. (2005) is of the view that travelling and the related decisions involve many risks, which are ascribed to the very nature of tourism services, arguing that it is imperative to put in place risk reduction strategies, such as extensive information search strategies. The tourists therefore would select a destination, which offers the greatest utility depending on the individual or social constraints. These scholars maintained that the visitors' selection process is a funnel-like, where (Clubb et al., 2015) they tone down the choices amongst alternatives, as contingent upon socio-psychological and non-psychological variables (Sirakaya et al., 2005:823).

According to Sirakaya et al. (2005:823) the tourists' destination choice decisions can be categorised into four groups: "internal variables (i.e. attitudes, values, lifestyles, images, motivation, beliefs and intentions, personality characteristics of a buyer, lifecycle stage, risk reduction methods, information search behavior); external variables (i.e. constraints, influences of the family and reference groups, cultures and subcultures, social class, household-related variables such as life-cycle, power structure, role, group decision-making style); the nature of the intended trip (i.e. party size, distance, time, duration of the trip); and trip experiences (i.e. mood and feelings during the trip, post-purchase evaluations)." These variables must be understood by travel marketers and destination managers so as to develop and deepen sound marketing strategies, and to enhance their destination sustainability, functionality, and competitiveness.

Xenophobia has serious consequences for the tourism industry, which succeeds in a climate of peace, safety, and security. It affects the tourists' perceptions of the country and invariably their choice of destinations. A safe destination pulls more tourist while the unsafe one repels them. In other serious impacts on the tourism industry, comprise, inter alia, increased expenditure during the tourist peak season, vandalism to property, a sharp decline in products and tourism services.

7.3 The ramifications of war on destination image

War is another risk deserving of attention in the study. The findings here revealed that tourists regard it as a low to a moderate risk. A key informant, Eliza, corroborated this rating by saying that "South Africa, as a country, enjoy good diplomatic and economic ties with her partners in the SADAC region. This applies equally well to her relations with many countries in Europe

and Asia, thus the possibility of the outbreak of war is very low indeed". War is implicitly encapsulated in the core doctrines of the model of international tourism decision-making process, whose genesis are rooted in international terrorism and political instability. The model basically purported that people gather and analyse information, and finally choose an optimal solution from a wider range of possible alternatives (Smallman et al., 2010). When they engage in this process, they weigh up the advantages and disadvantages of each possible outcome, selecting the most relevant one to realise their set goals and objectives. This 'choice set', which is optimal, is largely based on subjective utility as tourists are "homo economicus" (Smallman et al., 2010:401), who maximise the utility of their actions prior to purchase, through minimising risk with extensive problem solving and advanced planning. The model argues that in most instances war is sparked off by a high level of political instability, which prevails in any country. Prior to February 2018, South Africa had the hallmarks of high political instability, where the possibility of internal war was high.

It could therefore be safely argued that in context of war, the tourists' quest to derive maximum utility from their touristic actions is low. The disadvantages of travelling to a war-afflicted destination far outweigh the advantages, and such destinations would invariably carry a massive negative image. They are therefore in the main avoided by the tourists particularly in developing economies with limited resources to manage the dire consequences of war which comprise, inter alia, death of the people, large scale human displacement and suffering, destruction of physical infrastructure, loss of fauna and flora, discernable socio-economic losses, and the like.

7.4 The impact of terrorism on tourists' travel patterns

Terrorism, as a risk factor influencing travelling patterns in the country, was considered. Local tourists viewed it as an extremely low risk, while their regional and international counterparts regarded it as a moderate risk. The differences in tourists' perceptions in this regard could be reasoned out from two possible angles: firstly, South Africa had no experience of international terrorist attacks and therefore its people had no idea of it. Secondly, regional and international tourists may have had personal experiences of terrorism in their respective countries.

Croucamp (2014), Gambari (2004), Malgas (2006), Yousfi (2006) and Adekanye (2006) argue that the views expressed by the local tourists, as in the paragraph above, tie in with Croucamp's (2014) assertion that the terrorist acts in South Africa were perpetrated by the Muslim fundamentalist groups who were mainly minority white right-wing groups. Croucamp (2014) further noted that the country had never experienced international terrorist attacks. Nevertheless, the key factors that might trigger this are there, notably, the perceived political turmoil in the country, poor operations of state-owned parastatals, escalating crime levels (Gambari, 2004), the country's porous borders, the process of globalisation, advancement in communication technology, the free flow of goods, people and money across the borders (Malgas, 2006), weak security, internal political squabbles, proliferation of illegal arms, and poverty. Yousfi (2006) and Adekanye (2006) contend that the above factors serve as a 'fertile ground' for the terrorist to launch their attacks in South Africa. Sheller (2011:4) has argued that the increase in cross-border transactions and of 'capabilities for massive geographical dispersal and mobility are related to 'territorial concentrations of resources necessary for the management and servicing of that dispersal and mobility'. Sheller et al. (2005) have also noted that over and above this, there are new places and technologies that enhance the mobility of some people and places and heighten the immobility of others, for example, as some cross borders. People's mobility does not show any sign of abating. These scholars cite the

September 11, 2001 attacks in Washington DC, SARS, and multiple suicide bombings of transport networks, as classic examples. They further posited that the internet enables people to communicate on the move enabling them to be simultaneously present, while apparently absent. This sets in motion coordination of people, meetings and events. Sheller et al (2005) indicate that the movements of goods, people, services etc. has become increasingly rapid across the globe, including drugs; counterfeit products; alcohol; and illegal guns. Mass media adds more gadgets, such as videos, radio, televisions, camcorders, and mobile phones, which get passed from one person to the other. The scholars contended that this mobility is often associated with disasters and crises such as oil wars in the Middle East, train crashes, and global terrorism (Sheller et al., 2005).

Concerning terrorism, the findings of the study are also located within the core propositions and central tenets of almost all the theories that underpin it. Mention could be made of the protection motivation-, mobility- disaster risk- and risk-perception theories. All these theories dealt mainly with the terrorist attacks that occurred on September 11, 2001 in Washington DC as their point of departure. They collectively argued that when people are exposed to terrorism, their fear and anxiety level will be heightened. A certain Gerhardt (an international tourist from USA) said: "The Americans are, generally speaking, more averse to terrorism threats than nationals from other countries which never experienced it before. This is attributable to their personal experience of September 11, 2001 attacks in Washington D.C. where many people were killed. The killings were unprecedented and left many perplexed". The disaster risk theory indicated that the attacks in America highlighted the rise of militant fundamentalist Islam, which inadvertently caused the wars in Afghanistan and Iraq, followed by terrorist attacks on the tourist facilities elsewhere. The attacks further demonstrated the interface between tourism and terrorism, heightened an element of risk inherent in travelling, and led to more tight security measures in global tourism. According to mobility theory, the attacks in

America demonstrated the fact that boundaries between states have become obsolete, that borders have become permeable, and the distinction between ‘domestic’ and ‘international’ tourism has become insignificant. This points to a notion of “supraterritoriality” (Cohen et al., 2012). The peace, comfort and easy movements of the tourists has been greatly disrupted. These events have drastically changed the entire tourism landscape, tourist flows, the motives and forms of travel (Cohen et al., 2012).

When the tourists are likely to be exposed to disasters, crises and risk, in general, they will begin to gather information on the safety and security of their prospective destinations. According to information integration theory, as postulated by Sonmez et al. (1998), information search is a common risk reduction strategy adopted by travellers. The theory concerns how tourists’ attitudes and perceptions are shaped through integration of new information with pre-existing ideas. This information, which the tourists might have of certain disasters, crises, fears and anxieties, has two important attributes, namely, it carries a great deal of weight and value. Both variables have a bearing on their perceptions. Information that carries a lot of weight and value will invariably have more influence on their perceptions than the one of low weight or value. This implies that if information on some destinations is highly positive, then the visitors might have a positive view of it, as juxtaposed to a place of attraction that is unpopular, or carries a negative image.

Successful information search is of course contingent upon attitude, risk perception level, income, time, and budget. The tourists who possess a positive attitude are likely to devote a lot of time and effort in checking magazines, videos, consulting travel professionals, reading guides, books, and study brochures to evaluate safety and security in various destinations.

Those with a risk-seeking behaviour (Plog's (1973) 'allocentrics') may travel to risky destinations, for example, adventure tourists, while those who are risk averse ('psychocentrics') may choose safer destinations. Those with a positive attitude are less concerned with safety, even in terrorism-afflicted destinations. Sonmez et al. (1998) has argued that the latter is ascribed to the power of "optimism". This effectively implies that risk perceptions influence the attractiveness of destination choices and their valuation. Those who believe (Sonmez et al., 1998) that international tourism carries terrorism risk are more concerned about the safety of the destinations. Therefore, to choose a safe destination, tourists may rank substitutes according to subjective perceptions of terrorism threat. Negative information gained after a destination has been chosen can alter the tourists' decision outcome (Sonmez et al., 1998).

Korstanje's (2009) discusses the role played by the type of travel and nationality of the tourist as important factors in risk perceptions. He argued that the business travelers are less sensitive to tragic events than are holiday makers. He propounded that the American travellers, for instance, are predisposed to perceiving more risks than travellers of other nationalities, on account of the September 11 attacks in America. According to Korstanje (2009), risk perceptions is also dependent on issues of proximity where, for instance, Americans display a high level of anxiety and fear as they were close to the World Trade Centre than tourists from other nations. Furthermore they perceive more risk in international flights than others. The scholar maintained that culture also heighten travel risk perceptions by means of uncertainty avoidance differences, where for instance, high risk of uncertainty may lead to the cancellation of trips or change thereof (where terrorism is implied). Disasters like terrorism and diseases such as SARS are perceived as more hazardous in more industrialised nations. Risks are negative attributes that jeopardise the positive dimensions of a trip, e.g. adventure tourism

(Korstanje, 2009). Korstanje's (2009) work deal with terrorism, traffic accidents and natural disasters, where he notes that a travel safety attitudinal scale reveals that risk takers are less likely to experience more risks than safety seekers. The upbringing of people also contribute to experiencing more anxieties later in life, for instance, those who were brought up in violent environments are more predisposed to high anxiety than those raised in safer environments (Korstanje, 2009).

Furthermore, risk perception studies over-valorise Western mainstream values (Korstanje, 2017) to the exclusion of the local cultures (ethnocentric in nature) – and this accentuate incorrect diagnosis or hypotheses that are difficult to be proved empirically. The classic example is terrorism, which gave rise to the new Anglo-centrism, which typically regard travellers from English-speaking countries as soft targets for terrorists due to their exemplary values, while those nations that do not fit the cultural criterion of the West are branded as criminals and psychopaths (Korstanje, 2017). Korstanje (2017) added that these studies assume an economic-centered approach to unpack disasters and crises, thus ignoring those risks that harm the tourism sector. Consequently, the complex nature of disasters, crises and risk is never well-comprehended. He also noted that many risk perception studies are based on the precautionary principle, which in turn gives rise to distorted evaluations of risk, as well as populist demands, which can never be satisfied by the government of the day.

In summation, tourists regard terrorism as a low to moderate risk factor that could potentially affect their travelling in Durban. The current political and socio-economic environment might serve as the probable trigger factors for terrorist attacks. To keep it under check, more surveillance and intelligence gathering ought to be sustained. This is more so the case as it has

the potential to make the tourists cancel their visits to the province. It can cause human displacement (immobility), suffering, and business migration, destruction of tourism infrastructure, and death of people.

7.5 The effect of crime on tourists' destination choices

The three segments of tourists, namely local, regional and international tourists all regard crime as an extremely high risk in South Africa and in Durban. These findings are situated within the model of international tourism decision-making, as put forth by Sönmez et al., (1998). The model proposes that there are a number of factors that influence a tourists' decisions from motivation to travel to destination choice to actual travel, and such factors are safety, travel experience, risk perception and demographic variables. According to this theory, the destinations perceived to be risky or crime-infested are substituted with those that are perceived to be safer. The theory maintains that the tourists' perceptions of what constitute a safe destination can be influenced by many variables, which in turn impact on potential visitation to a destination. The model furthermore deals with factors which might render certain places unsuitable for visitation.

Moreover, the findings are located within risk perception theory. Korstanje (2009) has argued that risk involves an exposure to certain threats or dangers, and added that it has the following manifestations: financial; social; psychological; physical; functional; situational; and travel-related. He further highlighted the point that risks inherent to travel are associated with health concerns, terrorism, crime, or natural disasters. He defined risk as the cognitive probabilities to be injured partially or totally, or to experience unexpected negative consequences. Similarly to other scholars, he indicated that when a person is confronted with fear, then the person can

respond in two ways, that is, to confront or escape it. Risk produce anxiety, which is experienced before the actual risk emerge. The scholar argued that anxiety is generated by fantasy, news or rumours, and added that the studies of risk perception and fear before the undertaking of actual trip merely explore anxiety. A person should in more practical terms not experience fright prior to travelling because this can in fact only be triggered by a real stimulus (Korstanje, 2009).

Regarding crime, the results of this study can be understood in terms of Sheller's et al. (2005) New Mobility Paradigms. These theorists argued that more generally, the mobility of money laundering, the drug trade, sewage and waste, infections, urban crime, asylum seeking, arms trading, human trafficking, slave trade and urban terrorism reveal the already existing juxtaposition of different spaces and networks. The results also tie in with the literary insights provided by the Institute for Security Studies (ISS, 2001), the Road Traffic Management Corporation (RTMC Report, 2016), the Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSVR, 2007), the Public Protector South Africa (2015) and South African Cities Network (2016). These scholars and reports indicated crime in Durban to be very high. They illustrated that crime can take various forms, which comprise, inter alia, murder, car hijacking and robbery (the most commonly occurring and serious ones), as well as attacks on cash-in-transit vehicles, and the like. Such crime occurs due to the low regard of the police by the people, the country's socio- political history, and the decline of law-enforcement agencies.

According to the Institute for Security Studies (ISS, 2001) other major causes of crime are high unemployment, poverty and racial inequities. On the other hand, South African Cities Network (2016) has argued that there is of course the relationship between safety and security and the level of crime, and added that crime is a key concern for the government, because it is violent

and closely linked with personal and property crime. South African Cities Network (2016) pointed out that criminals use lethal weapons in the commission of crime. Cyber-crime is another serious risk in the country, and affects mainly government departments and small businesses, which lack the requisite financial resources to circumvent it. The typical examples are guesthouses, food outlets, transport services, water and electricity (IRMSA Risk Report, 2015; The Public Protector South Africa, 2015). Small businesses, such as restaurants and petrol stations, are affected by financial and identity crimes (South African Cities Network, 2016).

One of the issues warranting attention in the risks and crime narrative unfolding in South Africa in general is the transportation-safety situation. According to South African Cities Network (2016) and The Road Traffic Management Corporation (RTMC, 2016), there are many factors which contribute to fatal traffic accidents on the roads, some of which are attributable to crime. These comprise, amongst others, dangerous driving behaviour like speeding, alcohol consumption, use of un-roadworthy vehicles, and the like. The presence of pedestrians and stray animals on the freeways in big cities compounds the problem even further. Risk perception theory maintains that one of the risks inherent in travelling is traffic accidents. Mobility theory lent more credence to this scenario by stating that accidents constitute the price that people pay for being highly mobile. However, deaths and other risks and crises on the roads are not attributable to human behaviour and crime alone. Some of them are caused by natural hazards. The new mobility paradigms (Sheller et al., 2005) explained the crises on the roads by invoking the concept of “militarised urbanism” and “the geographies of logistics”. It reiterated that disruptions of the air transport networks in Europe in 2010, for instance, was due to volcanic eruptions or severe snowstorms. This served to illustrate the complex nature of global mobility systems, which go hand-in-hand with sudden immobilisation. The theory cited

other hazards with the potential to torpedo human mobility, including hurricane Katrina, which collapsed the urban infrastructure of New Orleans, and the January 2010 earthquake in Port-au-Prince, Haiti, which required military intervention to restore the operation of the road system, airports, aid personnel and materials.

Tourists use various modes of transport (land, air, water) to travel to various destinations. The new mobility paradigms (Sheller et al., 2005) acknowledge that travelling is inherently risky, but also necessary for social life, enabling complex connections to be made, often as a matter of social and political obligation. The model maintained that people have a tendency for upward and downward social mobility which can be a source of status and power (e.g. round-the-world travellers) where movement is coerced and can generate deprivation and untold suffering (e.g. economic migrants to Europe from China or to Canada from Mexico) (Sheller et al., 2005). Mobility, as is the case with the use of transport networks where people die on account of crime, accidents and natural hazards, has many consequences for different people and places. This is also exemplified by the proliferation of places, technologies and 'gates', which enhance the mobility of some while causing the immobility of others, including those of children.

The media, and social media in particular (Facebook, Twitter, blogs etc.) play a key role in propagating the perception of fear and anxiety about crime in the public domain, and consequently influence touristic flows to Durban in a negative way (Croucamp et al., 2004; Perry et al., 2013). Tourists' risk perception is shaped by information gathered from travel advisory, mass media travelogue, social media network, and a word of mouth (Heung et al., 2000; Yang et al., 2015). The Institute for Security Studies (ISS, 2001) contended that public perceptions of crime are shaped by factors such as actual victimisation and first-hand

experiences of crime and violence; impressions of the city environments; the media, interaction with the colleagues, friends and family; perceptions about the government's ability to ensure safety and security; and the extent to which people feel helpless against crime. The media also influences perceptions on crime in the following ways: firstly, by informing the audiences; secondly, by setting the agenda; thirdly, by framing (selection of certain issues to highlight a particular aspect); and fourth, through pursuance (persuading the public in respect of issues they represent) (Collins et al., 2006). Crime enjoys much sensational coverage in the media (Perry et al., 2013) and crime-related information is easily disseminated (Nkosi, 2010; Perry et al., 2013). The media therefore reinforces images and concerns amongst the tourists, and exaggerates the fear of crime (George et al., 2003) at specific destinations (Donaldson et al., 2009; George et al., 2014).

The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSV, 2007) argued that the media (television, newspapers, magazines) do not assume a neutral role in shaping perceptions of crime. It reported that the media 'sells violence and crime' for not only maintaining its customer base, but also for its own survival. The media's role in hazard discourse is also captured in disaster risk theory, which maintained that it has the tendency to trivialise disasters, crises and risk. The theory postulated that tourists' personal lack of first-hand experiences of hazards such as political instability and terrorism etc. cause them to rely on the media, because it is critical in terms of informing them of the proliferation of hazards in vacation destinations. However, the media, more often than not, provides them with distorted information, which does not tally with the actual hazards on the ground. As a result, the theory urges the destination management officers (DMOs) to take cognisance of such distortions, and minimise their negative impact. This implies that they have to develop effective communication strategies as part of disaster response policies, to give the tourists the correct information. Furthermore, they are implored

to understand the characteristics of the tourists who receive such distorted information, and how to respond accordingly. The latter is born of out the realisation that crises and risks are subjective in nature and are subject to different interpretations, which are contingent upon the tourists' profile (age, gender, income, nationality, personality); e.g. an adventurous tourist is more confident than the psychocentric ones, and are therefore least likely to be affected by negative media coverage.

Mobility incorporates (Sheller et al., 2005) sociotechnical assemblages or human/material hybrids that perform mobile systems and support mobility regimes. It deals with circulations and media ecologies, which are both social and natural, technical, informational, human and non-human. Sheller et al. (2005) have argued that the new mobile media in particular is reshaping urbanism and its 'technospaces' and 'mediascapes' creating new possibilities for people to move in public places and build environments, giving rise to new forms of urban spatiality, transmediality and public interaction. These scholars added that the modern mobility incorporates contemporary urban development that involves the intimate recombination of urban space; the corporeal presence of people's bodies; physical mobilities; and complex, multi-scaled mediations by all sorts of ICT and mobility systems. Sheller et al., (2005) indicated that services like power data and transportation (ITS) will in future adapt to the evolving needs of the people. Sheller et al. (2005) also argued that the media is utilised by governments for their own ends, because mobile technologies have enhanced easy and fast communication between the people. This has in turn given rise to a rapid shift in action and power. This scenario has prompted governments to control the media while mitigating access, as well as heightened the 'mobile masses' need to seek access while circumnavigating the systems of control. These theorists cite the following scenario to illuminate their assertion further: the Philippine people used text messages for political activism, and finally overthrew

their president, Joseph Estrada, in January 2001, becoming nicknamed 'generation text'. This illustrated the interplay between society and technology, where mobile phones enabled protests to form almost instantly, in the Philippine coup d'text (Sheller et al., 2005).

Nevertheless, risk perception theory takes a contradictory stance with regard to how people assimilate information disseminated by the media with regard to hazards. It acknowledged the role of the media within social development of risk consciousness, maintaining that the media raise social awareness about the reality of hazards that would otherwise remain invisible to sensory perception. According to this theory, a great variety of media discourses on risk suggest a more complicated and socially unbalanced distribution of hazards. It furthermore argued that people are circumspect towards the information they receive about risks via the medium of television or the press. Some people are less impressed by the media reports they receive about certain hazards, suggesting that there is no direct link between the content of the media messages and the way in which the general public think and feel. For instance, the coverage of food scares in the media may not necessarily elucidate how people relate to information about salmonella in eggs within the social contexts of the day-to-day existence. Noteworthy is the fact that in certain cases, people are aware of the risks, such as global warming, for instance; but are not sure about the danger it poses to them personally. The theory drew on the impersonal impact hypothesis to suggest that people tend to separate issues identified by the media as problems for society from those they identify as personal problems. For example, they are aware of social problems relating to health and environmental risks, but they do not necessarily perceive themselves to be at risk from such hazards. Korstanje (2009) further asserted that people hold a range of partial, ambiguous and contradictory views about the benefits and wisdom of scientific knowledge, which bear very little resemblance to the critical risk rationality. This implies that people tend to perceive risks and crises differently; and this is

attributable to various meanings ascribed to the concept of crises and risks within the context of news media discourse (Korstanje, 2009). Mobility theory also deal with the interface between tourism and the media, cautioning that mediatized tourism cannot replace physical travelling; and that tourists are seen as passive media consumers, who are seen as mere users of media products.

The question of whether crime is high or low in Durban divided opinion in the study cohort. There were those key informants who felt it to be high – thus agreeing with the views of the tourists as outlined above. They noted crime to be caused mainly by a high level of unemployment and poverty, where its various manifestations are as outlined above. They acknowledged the role played by the media in informing tourists about crime. They argued that crime does have an impact on the movement of tourists, though this cannot be substantively proven.

They argued that perceptions around the high level of crime are shaped by certain political structures, which do so for their own gains. They are bent on despising the ruling party as being weak, and hardly able to deal with the scourge of crime ravaging the country. These key informants consolidated their argument that such political views find expression in the print and electronic media. In turn, this misleads unsuspecting and less-informed tourists that crime in Durban is a significant factor, which can torpedo their travel plans. The key informants stressed the role that social media in particular plays in propagating and shaping perceptions about the prevalence of high crime in the city. Firstly, they contended that there are many fake videos on social media that portray tourists as victims of crime in the city, and this unfortunately sends a false message abroad that the city is crime-infested. This is out of sync with the actual reality on the ground. Secondly, they vehemently indicated that the media content is not controlled, and that this damages not only the image of the country as a whole, but of the tourism destinations as well. Thirdly, they were of the opinion that most tourists do

not have first-hand information and experiences of crime in the city, as they read about this risk in the media. Some of them do not know the city well. Fourth, the informants reiterated the fact that the level of safety and security offered in the city is high, where people are protected against crime. They argued that risks like rhino poaching, for instance, were initially a source of concern to the government, civil society, non-governmental organisations, the international community, and the tourism sector, but this has since been resolved. This applied equally well to problems like cash-in-transit gangs, who have been arrested.

Another question put to the key informants was as to whether crime was really affecting the tourists' mobility and tourism demand adversely. Robert, who was supported by many other informants, affirmed that it does not negatively affect their mobility and tourism demand. He posited that as a precautionary measure, most of the tourists prefer to stay in their respective accommodations, whether resorts, hotels, or guest houses, to avoid venturing into the streets, especially at night. He added that this is a normal practice, which is done by everybody. However, he indicated that the fear and anxiety of the tourists and some destinations is exacerbated by the media, as illustrated above. Consequently, the negative messages carried by the media reach tourists via television, radio, print and social media networks, falsely entrenching the perception that crime is prevalent.

Jane, another key expert, consolidated the argument given above by advancing that crime does not really affect the tourists' mobility and tourism demand negatively, due to the following: Firstly, she argued that both the provincial and national government departments offer tourism programs, which deal with the safety and security issues to lessen the impact of crime on tourism demand (e.g. *Shot Left*). Secondly, she stated that the municipalities also support the

provincial and national campaigns so as to ensure that people including the tourists are safe. Thirdly, she pointed out that the police do their work to also ensure the safety and security of the tourists in various destinations, where they do regular patrols, search for potential drug dealers, weapons, prostitutes, drunk people, and effect arrest of criminals, where possible. Therefore the mobility of the tourists as well as tourism demand is not, in her view, adversely affected by crime.

The study also elicited some responses regarding how tourists deal with crime in various destinations. The key informants indicated that they deal with it in the following ways: they avoid isolated places which heighten their vulnerability to it; they carry less cash and use debit cards instead; they avoid displaying sheer wealth like wearing expensive jewellery and clothing, carrying start-of-the art cameras and cell phones; and tour guides and tour operators guide them in organised tours. They point out that if the tourists become the victims of crime, then the criminal justice system does not hesitate to take stern action to ensure that the perpetrators are arrested and prosecuted – the prime example is the Dewali case, which was handled without fear or favour. Furthermore, tourists control their movements, and avoid crime hot spots, where, to achieve this, they rely on the tour operators for accurate information about safety and security. Various destinations also provide them with information aimed at enhancing their overall sense of safety and security while travelling in the country.

Over and above the response measures highlighted above, the experts expressed views on counterstrategies against crime. They argued that various destinations ought to include into their planning process the following components to deal with risks like crime: they should offer reduced admission fees to the local tourists; implement corporate social responsibility

programmes like the establishment of arts and crafts; a small cheese-making factory, or fund the emerging tourism businesses owned by historically disadvantaged communities; control overcrowding in their destinations; provide and prioritise employment to the local people by utilising income from tourism activities; consume locally-produced food items and use locally-sourced building materials; implement design policies that enhance ownership of tourism ventures by local communities; provide investment opportunities by selling shares to the people around their businesses; as well as offer support to small, medium and micro-enterprises (SMME). They also felt that education is of paramount importance, noting that the people employed in the tourism sector ought to be provided with the necessary training and skills to empower themselves.

In summation, crime in Durban is controversially perceived to be very high. The literary information posited in Chapter 3 attests to this observation. However, it affects mainly government departments and certain small businesses, which do not have adequate financial resources to deal with it effectively. Mention here could be made of guesthouses, some food outlets and petrol stations. Tourists also indicated that crime in the city, although concerning, does not impede their travelling throughout the city. Even the key informants interviewed argued that crime has no bearing on tourists' movements in Durban. Their stance was that tourists devise their own means to deal with it, or to avoid crime spots. They often move around the city in organised tours, which are undertaken under the guidance of professional tour guide who know the various destinations well and crime spots, and how to avoid them as well. They also argued that various destination managers take concerted efforts to ensure the safety and security of the tourists in their destinations. Overall, safety and security provided by the law enforcement agencies also keep the tourists in various destinations at ease. Therefore, crime has no impact on the tourist' visitation to the city.

7.6 The risks of political instability in a destination

Political instability enjoyed much attention in the disaster-crises and risk-fear nexus in Durban. The results of the study revealed it to be one of the high risks faced by the country. The political landscape in the city is characterised by a high level of political instability, which is mainly attributable to a lack of political leadership. The results were confirmed by literary information provided by the Institute of Risk Management South Africa (IRMSA Risk Report, 2016), Santana-Gallego et al. (2016), Alberto et al. (1996), South African Cities Network (2016) and Twala (2014).

South African Cities Network (2016) highlighted the point that the country and its provinces has a relatively stable democracy, even though political violence and instability has increased in recent years, noting that it is ascribed mainly to political rivalry, the ‘greed’ for power and economic gain. A lot of this type of violence has claimed many lives in political hot spots such as KwaZulu-Natal. The Institute of Risk Management South Africa (IRMSA Risk Report, 2016) raised a number of factors that lead to political violence. Mention could be made of the following: political corruption; high unemployment; inequality between the rich and the poor; the neglect of the poor by the political elite; high income disparities and disenchantment of the growing number of the youth; the disjuncture between labour, private and public sector; and the emergence of new political formations. Twala (2014) ascribed this to the dissatisfaction with the delivery of basic services like water and electricity.

The impacts of this crisis are implicitly situated within the mobility theory. To this end, Sheller et al. (2011) have argued that mobility is not only concerned with power relations, but also with friction, turbulence, and immobility. The question of social unrest, war and terrorism

interfere with the mobility of people and have an element of injustices meted out on others, where for example innocent people also die in a war or ethnic and religious conflict. Conflicts in turn do not only impede the mobility of people, but also that of capital information, which is essential for global financial mobility and interregional commodity flows. This effectively implies that trading between countries is also jeopardised by political instability. This risk can lead to a destruction of the critical infrastructure that supports the mobility of the tourists. Furthermore it can accentuate forced migration and statelessness of certain people, including tourists. According to this theory, the sociotechnical assemblages such as people, space and transportation technologies, including roads, rail, subways and informational technologies and signs and, surveillance systems, radio signals, and mobile telephony, are destroyed by crises and risks such as war or terrorist attacks, which are the direct offshoot of political instability. Political instability, and its associated violence, is also implicitly dealt with in protection motivation theory, which argues that when people are confronted with threats (war, terrorism, conflicts) they are most likely going to shun (escape paradigm) or protect themselves. This form of instability is ingrained in the disaster risk model as well, albeit dealt with very briefly. The model posited that some of the factors making tourists vulnerable to hazards are those political factors which include bad governance issues, war and the like.

In sum, political instability is one of the serious risks facing the tourism industry in Durban. It has dire consequences, which might include civil strife (religious or ethnic in nature), war and terrorism, which all carry some elements of destruction of property, critical infrastructure that support tourism, displacement of people, statelessness, immobility and death. Political instability is therefore of serious concern to the tourists in South Africa as well as Durban.

7.7 The results of poverty and unemployment

The key experts indicated that poverty and unemployment are interlinked, and that they are indeed high risks. They argued that unemployment leads to poverty, and promotes many social problems like crime, prostitution, drug trafficking, rape, and homelessness. They further highlight the fact that both poverty and unemployment do affect the travelling patterns of the travelers in the following ways: firstly, the poor and unemployed tend to congregate in the central business district (CBD) of the towns and cities, thereby contributing to more crime and traffic-related accidents. Secondly, the poor and unemployed usually visit high-impact tourist areas to ask for things like food, clothing, donations etc. from tourists, and/or to rob them of their belongings like cameras, cellphones, and money, and this practice spoils the tourists' sought-after experiences. It instills an element of fear and anxiety on the part of certain tourists. The key informants also argued that the prospects of travelling for the poor and unemployed are relatively low, when compared to those who are rich. The rich can afford to travel unhindered by transport costs, food prices and accommodation costs. They reiterated that poverty and unemployment affect the poor of the poorest more in terms of travelling in the country.

However, another key informant, Jane, responded to the issue of unemployment from a completely different angle than did others. She argued that the majority of people can regard unemployment as a major stumbling block to their socio-economic, cultural, political and technological advancement, while relegating into oblivion other dynamics typical of it. She argued that it can also cause people to be creative and innovative in the sense that it forces them to create jobs for themselves so that they could survive. The creation of small, medium and

micro enterprises (SMMEs), small scale communal farming, as well as subsistence fishing are the direct offshoots of unemployment.

Another key issues that is closely related to unemployment is poverty. The researcher put the following question to the key informants to gauge their views: “the local, regional and international travellers regard poverty as an extremely high risk factor which affect their travelling endeavors in the country. Do you agree or not?” This question elicited some mixed responses, as appear hereunder.

Stanton: “No, I do not agree. Poverty can only be noticed by an experienced and well-informed tourists. It is not every tourist who can discern the prevalence of poverty in the country. Nevertheless, it is also incumbent upon the tourists to contribute to social development processes meant specifically to address the problems induced by poverty (e.g. they can make donations, or impart their knowledge and skill to the community).”

Other key informants were of the express view that poverty, as indicated above, is similar to unemployment, especially with regard to its diverse manifestations and impacts. It forces the poor of the poorest to go to various accommodations establishments to beg for an assortment of items such as food, money, clothing, jewellery or anything of value that the tourists can offer them. This practice has a tendency to irritate certain tourists and spoil their desired quality experiences, as some beggars end up stealing valuables from them. Overall, the informants were of the opinion that such habits can diminish if income and wealth disparities are addressed to close the gap between the rich and the poor.

The issue of unemployment and poverty is implicitly located in the disaster risk theory under factors that may increase the tourists' vulnerability to hazards. According to this model, social factors like age, gender, disability, and health play a critical role in contributing to people's poverty. The theory also maintained that economic factors such as a lack of capital, land, tools, options and information also increase the prospects of poverty amongst the people. The model of international decision-making processes lend credence to the argument posited by the disaster risk theory, where it notes that economic issues like time, budget and physical distance are considered by tourists before undertaking any travel.

Finally, the key informants argued that greater efforts are being implemented by the government to deal with unemployment and poverty. They propounded that the economic stimulus packages that the government is introducing have attracted foreign investment in South Africa, and many leading business companies from the United States of America (USA) and Europe guarantee economic investment in the country, the classic example being the German company BMW. They indicated that the government has ensured that there will be an inclusive economic growth and that socio-economic progress takes a center stage of its policy imperatives. Furthermore, they posited that the envisaged radical economic transformation agenda is going to ensure that even the historically disadvantaged masses of the country are included in mainstream economic activities, and that they own the land. It is hoped that the latter will add more impetus to improving the standard of living of all the people. These experts further argued that the involvement of South Africa in the Brazil, Russia, India and South Africa (BRICS)-led economy is indicative of the extent to which radical economic growth is being prioritised. The BRICS countries have established their own banks, and this will allow their member countries to access better and more financial aid than would be the case with International Monetary Fund (IMF) or the World Bank. Noteworthy is the fact that these

countries are going to co-operate with each other in the fields of education, trade, engineering, agriculture, health, tourism, science, technology and the like, and these measures will contribute towards economic growth and push back the frontiers of poverty and unemployment. Finally, the informants indicated that there is a multiplicity of factors that bolster local people's economic confidence, namely competitive economy, resource and wealth distribution, creation of opportunities for the poor, and an equitable access to health, education, and housing.

In sum, poverty and unemployment are significant factors which can hinder the tourists' movements in the country and in Durban. Tourists (as alluded to here above) need to have resources like money and time before they can decide on visiting any place in the country. A lot of information about the destinations they would like to visit is also crucial to enhance the easy travel, and lessen their anxiety and fear, as travelling is inherently risky. Distance is crucial, as it determines the extent to which they can travel – implying that far-flung tourist destinations will cost them more than the nearer ones. Poverty and unemployment are therefore significant factors that can stifle their travelling patterns and travel-related decisions in the country.

7.8 The effects of the prevalence of epidemics

Epidemics are a common feature affecting the tourism sector worldwide. The study arrived at the findings that diseases are high-risk factors in Durban. Their prevalence was confirmed by global institutions such as the World Health Organisation (WHO, 2014), and other scholars such as Maditinos et al. (2008), Henderson (2007), Laws et al. (2007), and Lerbinger (2012). According to these scholars, the diseases that affects the tourism industry are ascribed to the following factors: the increase in foreign visitors in the country; the process of globalization;

the lack of health care facilities and expert personnel; and a growth in cruise tourism, which is prone to gastrointestinal diseases.

The findings of the study are situated within the cardinal doctrines of mobility theory, which argues that mobility concerns the analysis of complex systems that are neither perfectly ordered, nor anarchic. The model stated that these systems possess emergent properties and develop with the passage of time, such that the national economies, corporations, and households are locked into stable 'path-dependent' practices. This theory, as postulated by Sheller et al. (2005), advanced the fact that the world has rapidly become more vulnerable to the eruption of, and to the global spread of both new and old infectious diseases. This is ascribed to the increased worldwide movement of people, goods, and information.

Tourists' concerns about diseases, as highlighted above, were also confirmed by the key informants. The overwhelming majority indicated that diseases like cholera are prevalent in the country, and that an outbreak of such a malady can lead to a situation where the hospitals and other health-facilities could potentially be inundated by a high number of people who take ill and who have to be medically treated. They further argued that consequently some tourists' attractions can even face the prospect of being closed down. This scenario could be compounded by other risks, such as fraud, crime, lack of money, as well as the heightened levels of poverty and unemployment that are afflicting the country and Durban.

The key informants were also asked as to what kind of recourse the tourists have when they are affected negatively by disasters, crises and risk. The dominant response was that the tourists would stop travelling when they are affected. Another dimension which the informants added

or highlighted was the role of the media in terms of sending out wrong messages (trivialization) to the tourists, where certain hazards can become distorted in terms of their scale. An example of this is the Cape Town water crisis, which was sensationalised to the degree that it affected visitation to this province adversely, as the travellers cancelled their bookings, put on hold their planned trips to this city, and channelled their visits elsewhere (e.g. Botswana and Namibia). Another expert indicated that the tourists go to their respective embassies to seek recourse in the advent of a major disaster, crisis or risk (e.g., an outbreak of xenophobia in KwaZulu-Natal in 2015). In other serious cases, the delegated authority, such as a provincial or national government, would declare an incident a ‘disaster’ and the government would then be called in to alleviate the plight of the tourists in accordance with the prescripts and injunctions of the Tourism White Paper and Disaster Management Act. Another informant argued that they usually contact the South African Police Services (SAPS), law enforcement agencies or tour operators to seek recourse. The last respondent said that ideally, the travellers need to have a personal insurance to put them in a strategic stead to handle any hazard, and added that the tour operator who handle their daily operations of the tour must also have access to emergency call centers, the police, and other risk management providers in order to seek recourse when the travellers are in dire need of it.

The question of recourse is closely tied to their rights when they are travelling in the city. On the question of whether their rights are respected when they are seeking recourse, this is what the key informant (Thabo) had this to say: “South Africa is a constitutional democracy – so the tourists’ rights are respected when they are seeking it. The country’s peaceful and successful transition to democracy is globally recognised as one of the milestone achievements of the 21st century, and this puts the city in a good position to continue to attract more tourists locally, regionally and internationally. Its constitution entrenches fundamental human rights, which extend to the touristic community; which include even vulnerable groups such as the physically

disabled, women, children, ethnic minorities and indigenous communities. The stakeholders in the tourism sector uphold and respect the political, social, religious and cultural rights of all the people. South Africa's human rights culture engenders respect for the tourists' diverse needs and tastes. The following bear testimony to this assertion: tourism and government authorities provide protection for the travelers including their personal belongings; the tourists have access to information which expedite their easy movements in the country; the travelers enjoy access to insurance or any other assistance they need; the attacks and assaults against them are outlawed and punishable by law; they have freedom to acquaint themselves with the local cultures, traditions, local circumstances consistent with their envisaged destinations. Lastly but not least, the tourist are free to travel into the country for a variety of purposes such as an engagement in religious, cultural, educational, business, sporting activities, visiting friends and family (VFR) and the like.”

Another key informant viewed this question quite differently from the rest. He indicated that it is a controversial issue. Some might contend that their rights are respected when they are in the country, but on the other hand, there are those people who do not take travellers seriously. They are seen as people who are relaxed, and who are just seeking pleasure, therefore people do not ensure that their rights are upheld and respected.

In summation, epidemics have the significant potential to disrupt the movements of the tourists in Durban. They are high-risk factors, which are caused by dramatic movements of people, goods and information into and within the country. A lack of money, health care facilities and personnel to prevent and cure the diseases exacerbate the scenario even further. Diseases therefore are significant factors that can discourage visitation to the city as a tourism destination.

7.9 The influence of floods on visitation patterns

Floods are other high risk factors influencing the tourists' travelling patterns to various destinations. The findings of the study in this regard are located within the literary information provided by the scholars such as Alexander (1993), Van Zyl (2006), Grobler (1996), Chagutah (2009), Tempelhoff et al. (2009), Msengana-Ndlela (2008) and the International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies. Floods are mainly caused by the La Niña effect, as confirmed by Grobler (1996), who indicates the natural meteorological hazards affecting the country to include cyclones, floods, tornados and hailstorms. South Africa (2007) had documented a number of weather related events, which affected the country from the period 1800 until 1995. It is argued that of the 946 of those recorded, the 'wet' events (floods, hailstorms, torrential rain) made up 59 of cases while the 'windy' events (gale-force winds, tornados, thunderstorms, storms etc.) accounted for 33% of the cases (South Africa, 2007:16-17).

According to Grobler (1996) the notable weather event that caused massive damage in South Africa included cyclone Domoina of 1984, which caused strong winds and torrential rainfall. It produced the most rain ever to be recorded in South Africa when about 597mm fell in KwaZulu-Natal. Grobler (1996) further argued that floods have far-reaching consequences, which include the following: monetary losses, infrastructural damage, and agricultural losses, while Van Zyl (2006) pointed out that floods are associated with homelessness, epidemics, landslides, economic losses, and death. Takura (2011) went a step further to enumerate a lot of the impacts of these, which include paralysis of the municipalities, compromised crop production, escalating food prices, reduced agricultural incomes, threatened food security, an

increase in farming debts, job losses, and decreased exports of farm products. The International Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC, 2011) argued that the floods, which occurred in the country in 2011, for instance, disrupted the provision of essential services, displaced people, and claimed many lives. The tourism industry is very prone to floods, due to the lack of the following: sufficient warning systems; proper infrastructure maintenance; local structures that deal with hazards effectively; and a comprehensive understanding of the disaster risk profile of the affected places (Tempelhoff et al., 2009). Therefore, floods affect the tourists psychologically, jeopardise their safety and security, damage the tourism infrastructure, cause monetary loss, and disrupt the provision of tourism services.

Birkholz et al. (2014) have argued that flood risk literature found its genesis in protection motivation theory, which revolve around cognitive factors such as the perception that flood events were on the decline, or that the current flood management strategies were adequate, thus impeding a willingness to adopt 'household-level protective strategies'. The latter was revealed by the studies conducted in Latin America and Europe. These scholars highlighted the fact that 'perception-related' strategies can stand communities in a strategic stead to deal effectively with flooding events and improve their adaptive capacity. They cite the following as good examples: an enhancement of the people's know-how relating to the causes and the possibility of flooding; improving social memory of the past flooding events; and curtailing people's dependence on public structural features (e.g. the construction of dykes). Kuhlicke (2013) lends more credence to this assertion by stating that people's strategies in this regard could be bolstered by improving their social capacity, and their preparedness for flooding hazards. The question of cultivating resilience can go a long way in addressing the plight of the victims of floods (Folke, 2006; Birkholz et al, 2014), and enabling them not to return to the status quo following a flood event. It can even add more impetus to their sustained and flexible adaptation

to changing circumstances. Some scholars such as Schelfault et al. (2011) advocated for risk communication as an effective tool in flood management techniques.

To sum up, floods are serious risk factors in Durban. They occur quite often and have dire consequences for the tourists and the tourism sector. They occur mostly on the eastern parts of the country, as they are associated with tropical cyclones, which occur in the warm Indian Ocean. They cause massive damage, displace people, destroy tourism infrastructure, and most importantly, claim the lives of the people.

7.10 The impact of droughts on tourism

Droughts are more or less in the same category as floods in terms of how they affect the tourists in the country. The study revealed that they are moderate to high risk factors. They are basically caused by a critical shortage of rain. The results resonated with information gleaned from Austin (2008), Singh (2006) and Backenberg et al. (2003). As indicated in the literature review, these scholars assert that droughts are the end product of an intersection between biophysical and socio-economic factors. This assertion is confirmed by mobility theory, which affirms that disasters, like droughts, are to a degree “happenings” which humans themselves construct. They are regarded as the end product of socio-cultural elements entangled within the vortex of natural catastrophes. The model stated that they are exogenic to society and their consequences are exacerbated by a ‘historically produced pattern of vulnerability’, which manifest itself in the location, infrastructure and sociopolitical organisation, production, and distribution systems of ideology of a society (Cohen et al., 2012).

As for their impact, they tend to affect a lot of economic sectors in the country. Their impact on the tourists can be summed up as follows: an increase in food prices is passed on to the consumers, who invariably include the tourists as well; the accommodation sector, which depends on good food supply, and which the tourists utilise during the stay in various destinations, is adversely affected by the shortage of water and food itself; the country loses its fauna and flora, which attract the tourists; where critical water shortage and unattractive landscape can shape up the tourists' perceptions about Durban in a negative manner; and discourage visitation to the various destinations in and around it.

7.11 The impact of corruption on tourists' economic well-being

The study probed the impact of economic risks on the travelling behaviour of the tourists in the city. Mention of these factors could be made of the high transport costs, high interest rates, high commodity prices, high taxes, and the like. The study revealed that economic risks were regarded by the tourists to be extremely low to moderate. Even risk-like corruption (a highly topical matter in the country at present) was statistically seen to be a low risk factor in relation to the tourists' movements, and their subsequent touristic endeavours in accommodations, participation in cultural, sporting activities and so on. The key informants concurred with the tourists with regard to the overall impact of the economic risks on tourists' travelling patterns and the tourism industry.

The informants argued that on the whole, South Africa is an affordable tourism destination, and this is due to favourable rand/dollar exchange rates. They indicated that international tourists, in particular, can afford high costs and expensive stay in hotels and other accommodation facilities. Furthermore, they consolidated their argument by stating that in

most instances, the tourists have, irrespective of their country of origin, surplus money that enhances their ease of flow into the city. The financial plans that they put in place before undertaking travel in the city stand them in a strategic stead to cushion them against the impact of the economic risks. Moreover, goods and services are cheaper in the country. Weaker economic growth seems to be a factor that favours the international tourists visiting various destinations in the city.

In a nutshell, economic risks are regarded by the tourists as low to moderate factors. The economic risks such as high taxes, corruption, high transport costs, theft, labour strikes etc. have no influence on the tourist travelling patterns in Durban. The tourists have strategic plans in place to ensure that they have adequate financial resources to expedite their easy movement throughout the city. The city's basket of tourism offerings, which include products and services, are affordable to both local and international tourists.

Corruption is reported as very high by the media sources in South Africa and in Durban. The tourists also perceived it to be high. The key informants were asked two fundamental questions on this risk: firstly, "what are its main causes"; and secondly "does corruption really affect the tourists travelling patterns and subsequent tourism demand adversely?"

An overwhelming majority of the informants argued that corruption is not a new phenomenon in South Africa. They indicated that it reared its ugly head even during the apartheid era, and is ascribed to the following factors: weak governance and low societal morals (capitalist tendencies); weak economic climate; some people are employed in the jobs that they are not qualified for; political lawlessness; political instability; and nepotism. They, however, pointed

out that even though it is perceived to be high, it does not affect the tourists travelling patterns while in the city. They consolidated their argument by stating that the number of the tourists who visit the city seem be increasing from time-to-time, despite many challenges that the city faces. According to the informants, corruption affects mostly the citizenry, who are deprived of the good essential services like housing, health, education, roads, jobs and the like as the bulk of the money that the government generates through taxes and other job-stimulus projects is amassed by some corrupt government officials and politicians. The experts apportioned a lot of blame on the state owned enterprises (SOEs) like South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC); the Electricity Supply Commission (ESCOM); the weapons manufacturer (DENEL); Public Rail Agency of South Africa (PRASA); South African Airways (SAA), municipalities, and some provincial government departments in this regard. The informants argued that proper financial records are not kept, the tendering processes are flawed, and supply chain management processes are in tatters. In short, the Public Financial Management Act (PFMA) is flouted. This in turn accentuates a high level of dissatisfaction amongst the people, where service delivery protests are taking place across the breadth and length of the country. Nevertheless, the informants hastened to argue that the appointment of the new president will turn this situation around for the better, as the investor community and the wider international community positively embraced efforts to root out the scourge of corruption ravaging the country. They added that the government is taking concerted efforts to deal with the status quo. Mention could be made of the special agencies like the Hawks, and the criminal justice system, which investigate cases of corruption, and ensure that those who are guilty are arrested and prosecuted. The public protector also plays a role to ensure that people' rights, as enshrined in the supreme law of the country, the constitution, are protected, so as to add more impetus to the prevailing democracy.

The informants added other dimensions, which are key to ensuring that the tourists' wellbeing, safety and security is ensured while visiting the city. They argued that the government, the tourism sector, law enforcement agencies and civil society are better positioned to manage the disasters, crises and risks affecting the tourists – though the question of preparedness, recovery and reduction is still lacking. The latter is ascribed to fragmented government departments, lack of motivation amongst the policy makers to implement the policies aimed at dealing with crises and risks, and a lackadaisical attitude on the part of the private sector to implement disaster management policies. They indicated that more policy interventions are needed to deal with disasters, crises and risk. Overall, they indicated that the country's entry points (airports, borders) must be safeguarded, where random and regular security searches must be done at the crime hot spots; enough security must be provided; improvement of communication amongst the tourism stakeholders; education and awareness campaigns around crises and risk are critical to deal with some negative perceptions about the city.

Over and above this, one key informant (Jackson) stated: "The tourism destinations should offer good quality touristic experiences. They need to take vigorous efforts to ensure that they have policies to ameliorate the exposure and vulnerability of the tourists to disasters, crises and risks. In the main they need policies to govern their daily operations such as marketing, visitor reception and event development and management. Their ability to compete efficiently in the market place is critical and must be harnessed. Furthermore, there is a dire need to utilise and maintain the cultural, environmental, social and physical assets prudently, and conserve them for future use. To guarantee visitor safety and security, tourism destination managers (TDM) must have disasters, crises and risks detection, prevention (e.g. legislation, installations of security devices, training of security personnel) and readiness policies (information dissemination, effective communication channels, public and media relations platforms). This

must be augmented by response strategies. Policies to inculcate disaster resilience must be implemented alongside recovery strategies.”

7.12 The new emergent risk factors affecting the tourism industry in Durban

To sum up their findings, these studies collectively arrived at the following findings: crime is the greatest risk facing the tourism sector in Durban; visitors have a dim view or negative perception of safety in the country; Durban is a place to be avoided because of crime; crime disrupts social stability and integration; the media and the word-of-mouth play a critical role in informing the tourists about safety and security as well as the high crime rate in the country; and the tourists are receptive to negative messages carried by the media.

It is against the backdrop posited above that this study has identified some factors and or arguments that destabilise the key findings of the previous studies in regard to the main risks facing the tourism sector. This study is not overtly critical of these studies because it took cognisance of the fact that contrasting methodological approaches do provide different and perhaps contradictory understanding of how different groups of people perceive risks (Gustafson, 1998). The effluxion of time is also key in terms of producing different results, where the previous studies were, as indicated above, conducted between 2000 and 2013, while the current one was done in 2017. Therefore, the specific social context in which the respondents live and under which the studies were conducted have changed dramatically. The socio-economic and the geopolitical landscape has also evolved. The target groups were also different, leading to differences in the results generated by the previous studies and the current one.

This study maintained that, as a point of divergence from the previous studies given above, the tourists are exposed to risks when travelling (just as these studies purported) but tend to use various tools or instruments at their disposal to mitigate the potential impacts of a risk such as crime, and to ensure their continued safety and security. This fact is situated in the core tenets of Risk Perception - and Disaster Risk Theories, which collectively emphasise or put to the fore the following practical rationales. Firstly, the tourists become resilient to crime as they accept that the law enforcement agencies and officials cannot practically afford to be almost everywhere, an exposure to living in a crime-ridden environment has heightened their adjustment to it and enhanced their resilience. Secondly, an overwhelming majority of the travelers acknowledge the fact that South Africa, of which Durban is a part, is still, geopolitically, a developing country and can therefore not afford to provide the requisite resources to ensure the safety and security of almost everybody. This fact is succinctly captured in the risk perception theory, which suggests the use of extended alternative adjustments in the face of adversity. Thirdly, their psychological personality (sensation-seeking) tend to moderate the impact of the news frames on perceived risk, and puts them in a strategic coping mode to handle risky situations like crime and, by extension, others such as corruption, public violence which invariably results in death, personal injury and/or loss of personal belongings, and poor economic growth. Furthermore, they tend to accept that these crises occur almost everywhere, and that anyone could be a potential victim to them. They therefore utilise what Saha et al. (2014) called ‘inward-oriented rationalisation’ (they emphasise the provision of safety and security to reduce the impact of risks) and ‘outward-oriented rationalisation’ (they console themselves that risks occur anywhere and anyone can become a potential victim).

Since the dawn of democracy in the country in 1994, many international travellers in particular, have been in the city more than once. This exposure had afforded them a perceived higher

knowledge or the risks inherent in travelling in Durban, and a higher risk tolerance than those who have never visited it before. This point was confirmed by the key informants. One of them (Jones) said: “Durban is a favourite tourist destination even in the face of the perceived high crime. The government takes concerted effort to create a safe and secure environment for the tourists in general. It works in tandem with the tourism industry to achieve this goal. The ever-increasing high return visitation bear a testimony to this assertion.”

The paradox that South Africa and by extension, Durban, is faced with (Mudzanani, 2017; Ferreira, 2000) is the growth of tourism and its perceived high level of crime (Moyo, 2013). It could therefore be inferred from the latter that visitor numbers are increasing, despite the prospects of falling a victim to crime. This illustrates that the impact of crime on tourism in the city is in fact minimal. If risks such as crime were having a noticeable impact on tourists, then the sector would not be growing in leaps and bounds as is the case. Tourists are therefore most likely to travel in the city without fear. Their adoption of personal control over risky situations, as propagated by the literature and some theories on disasters, crises and risks, lessen or reduce their fear and anxiety, and enhance their ease and comfort while travelling. Another factor expediting an element of visitation and subsequent travelling in the city is ‘optimism bias’ (the campbell.institute.org) – the tendency to believe that a negative event is less likely to occur to them.

The literary evidence gathered and presented in Chapter 3 showed that it is in fact the citizens of the country who experience more crime. For this reason, the Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSVR, 2007) classified the residential areas into two broad groups, namely, high crime middle class/wealthier residents and poor violence prone residents. The former area is usually inhabited by relatively rich people (the suburbs in major metropolitan

areas), who experience serious forms of crime like housebreaking; while the latter consists of poverty-stricken people (squatter settlements), who are subjected to high levels of robberies and violence.

Previous studies acknowledge the role played by the media in disseminating information about serious risks facing the tourism sector in Durban. They also argue that travellers believe in the information spread by the media as regards various risks. However, the findings of this study run contrary to this assertion. This study argued that the tourists are capable of assessing in advance safety and security in any given destination due to an immense exposure to mobile media. This rationale was confirmed by one key informant (Davidson) who said: “the tourists are now skeptical in terms of believing information disseminated by the media on hazards affecting the city, especially risks like crime and the high level of corruption. They are fully aware that the media tend to exaggerate issues. Therefore they take such information cautiously, and are not much affected. Crises like crime and corruption do not even seem to be hindering their movements, and their participation in touristic activities like sports, cultural festivals, scenic viewing, sunbathing and so on. Their visitation also does not seem to be adversely affected by such risks as propagated on various media platforms.”

Tourists’ perceptions of risk are by no means stable. They evolve in various social settings and in relation to new knowledge and experiences in life. This study also took cognisance of the fact that certain risks may appear to be serious, but do not necessarily engender an element of fear, worry and anxiety amongst the visitors in Durban. Again, scholarly research conducted in other countries indicated that a risk like crime may affect the local residents more than the travelers themselves. The researcher henceforth opines that if risks like crime and corruption, for instance, were having an adverse impact on tourism demand and subsequent flows, then the

tourism sector in Durban would not have grown stronger. Expert interviews revealed that the risks like crime and corruption do not affect tourists. The visitors are aware of aware of their prevalence, and have their own countermeasures to deal with them. The tourists' attitudes towards crises and risk are time-bound and situational and are shaped by a lot of variables. The study therefore maintained that their perceptions about the risks affecting the tourism sector have changed. Of course, there is a widely-held notion that crime and corruption are serious, but their impact on touristic experiences is not discernable. This is due to the following rationale, where the key informants argued that corruption is committed by government officials and politicians and occurs mainly in the government departments, and the tourists are detached from it. They further propounded that crime occurs almost in every country, thus leading to the tourists developing their own personal mechanism to deal with it. Therefore, disasters, crises, and risk are deep-seated concerns, which merit to be studied further in future tourism research.

7.13 Summary

The chapter presented the empirical results examining the disasters, crises and risk fear-nexus as well as the tourists' perceptions of Durban as a tourism destination. The chapter indicated that xenophobia disrupts peace, safety and security in the tourism industry. It does not only leads to a drop in demand for tourism products and services, but also affects the image of the destination and tourists' perceptions adversely. The chapter also indicated that risk factors such as war carry many disadvantages for the industry. War leads to death, destruction of infrastructure, cause massive socio-economic losses and affects destination image. Therefore the tourists' quest to get maximum quality experiences is highly compromised by war. The same applies equally well to terrorism, albeit low ratings are generated. The current socio-

political tension in the country can lay fertile ground for terrorist attacks, hence the dire need to sustain intelligence gathering to circumvent it. The impact of socio-political tension on tourists' flows are the same as those of xenophobia and war.

The contradictory finding of the study revolved around crime. It is perceived to be high. However, its impacts on tourist flows cannot be substantively proved. The key informants indicated that the tourists' fear in regard to crime is exacerbated by negative stories carried in the media, particularly the social media. Nevertheless, the key informants argued that the risk factors like crime and corruption in particular have no pronounced impact on tourism flows as they mainly affect the local residents, government departments, and small businesses, with no requisite resources to deal with them. They indicated that the tourists devise their own means to deal with these risk factors, and are resilient to them. In the case of crime, the tourists' safety and security is provided by the provincial, national government departments as well as the respective destinations across the breadth and length of the country. Furthermore the chapter dealt with political instability, which can manifest itself in the form of civil strives, ethnic tensions, war and terrorism. Such instability is a serious concern to the tourists due to its potential to cause massive damage to tourism infrastructure. Poverty and unemployment are other serious factors that can affect mainly the local tourists, and the far-flung destinations would invariably fetch a few of them. The outbreak of diseases too can potentially affect the tourism sector adversely, and the situation could be exacerbated by a lack of money and strained health care system. This can discourage visitation to the city. Floods occur quite often in the eastern parts of the country, claim people's lives and destroy tourism infrastructure. The strategies to manage disasters, crises and risk are therefore critically important to ensuring destination sustainability and competitiveness.

CHAPTER 8

Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

8.1 Introduction

This chapter summarises key objectives which anchored it and elucidated how they were realised. It dealt with the study's pertinent relationship with previous research with a view to express the relevance and implications of the key findings in the light of those studies and the literature advanced. Furthermore, the chapter delved into the limitations of the study that might affect the validity or the generalizability of the results. The recommendations related to the study in regard to possible measures to be taken by stakeholders such as the tourism destination managers (TDM) to deal with tourism disasters, crises and risks and associated tourists' perceptions were crucially important, and dealt with as well. Last but not least, the chapter briefly presents the strategies that could be taken to manage the hazards with a view to achieve destination functionality, sustainability, and competitiveness.

8.2 Summary of major findings

The research problems and objectives were dealt with in the context of literature review and empirical study conducted. They are posited hereunder as follows:

8.2.1 Objective 1 – Tourists’ perceptions on disasters, crises and risks in Durban

The study provided a conceptual framework of the disasters, crises and risks to expedite a comprehensive understanding of these social constructs. It revealed that these hazards are perceived differently by tourists, and this is contingent upon a myriad of factors such as the country of origin, demographics (age, sex, gender, occupation, income, social status, and education) and the like. The study relied on literary information provided by other scholars to unpack the definitions and meanings that the tourists attach to disasters, crises and risks in Durban, and they are elucidated hereunder.

A tourism crisis is defined as any event which torpedoes the normal operations of tourism destinations by inflicting damage on its reputation for safety and attractiveness to the tourists, and by adversely affecting visitors’ perceptions of that destination (cf. Sonmez et al., 1994). It is by definition an occurrence that can cause a drastic reduction in tourist arrivals and expenditure. The crises are also associated with management failures typical of events that might occur on account of human action or inaction causing a certain event (cf. Prideaux et al., 2003). They are exemplified by hazards such as ship wreckages, terrorism, nuclear war, severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) (cf. Prideaux et al., 2003; Shakya, 2011), climate change (cf. Brauch, 2011; Jaegar, 2011; Kenny, 2004; Toohey et al., 2008; Shaw et al., 2012; Aragon-Durand, 2009), hurricanes, earthquakes, fires, floods, droughts and landslides (cf. Maaiah, 2014).

The meanings associated with hazards can be broadly grouped into two major categories. Firstly, risk encapsulates the possibility that a particular action might cause damage or loss of

material or persons. Secondly, it is the concept employed when consequences that might accrue from a certain action are uncertain (cf. Brauch, 2011). The risks that the travellers experience can either be real or perceived (cf. Liu et al., 2013). It is subjective and its interpretation varies from one person to another, depending on how they are socially and culturally oriented (cf. Slovic et al., 2005). The study also addressed the significance of understanding risk, and indicated that risk has to be understood because it is that tool through which people can better understand and cope with the dangers and uncertainties in life. In the context of travelling it could be regarded as a vehicle through which the travelers can ‘see’ the risks that lie ahead, or to notice the impact of their behaviour on themselves and the physical environment. It shapes up their decision-making process, future behaviour and perceptions (cf. Sjoberg et al., 2004). Risks are regarded as constitutive of the “conditio humana”, are eco-centric and global in nature (cf. Brauch, 2011).

The study shows some interesting meanings of risk, which are expressed by the following jargon: perilousness, menace, peril, precariousness (cf. Brauch, 2011). When the tourists are confronted by risks they get a feeling that they will experience loss, injury, disadvantage or destruction, a possibility that something bad or dangerous may happen, there is a danger lurking ahead (cf. Brauch, 2011). Disasters, crises and risks carry an element of uncertainty and they yield unwanted negative effects (cf. Shakya, 2011). The objective was realised and the research question was answered.

8.2.2 Objective 2 – Dangers that tourists are exposed in the advent of disasters, crises and risks

Tourists and the destinations they visit are intrinsically interlinked, and the danger that tourists experience is invariably encountered by the destinations themselves. This section thus treated the potential danger that tourists are exposed to in that context of co-existence. The danger was extrapolated on a hazard-by-hazard basis, even though some destinations may experience more than one hazard at any given time.

8.2.2.1 War, terrorism and political instability

The above hazards are attributable to a failure by destination managers to take pro-active measures to deal with them, and poor preparedness. These hazards induce a heightened level of anxiety and fear, which is brought to bear by violence perpetrated against the travellers. In the advent of war, terrorism and political instability, tourists may be maimed and menaced to inspire fear for political ends (cf. Lerbinger, 2012). The study revealed that the tourists' reactions to the above catastrophes are dependent on the type of risk, media coverage, previous travelling experience, and level of exposure (cf. Mansfeld et al., 2011). These hazards make the travellers feel unsafe and insecure, thus increasing their perceptions of travel risk, and subsequently influencing their travel decisions as well. Therefore, the destinations affected by either war, terrorism, or political instability carry a negative image and accentuate reduced visitation levels.

Worth noting is the fact that these hazards are aimed at economic targets that are touristically functional. This explains why the tourists get killed; they are portrayed as soft targets who enjoy a lot of media coverage, and the perpetrators exploit this opportunity to advance their agenda (cf. Maditinos et al, 2008; Pforr, 2006; Blake et al, 2003). The cumulative impact of these hazards manifests itself in the decline in tourist arrivals, and cancellation of hotel

bookings (cf. Seddighi et al., 2001; Stafford et al., 2002) as tourists shift their travelling preferences to countries-attractive to them. The countries such as Egypt, Israel, and Turkey etc. fit the category of war-torn countries that are unattractive to tourists (cf. Mansfeld et al., 2011) and especially business travellers (cf. Sönmez et al., 1999). However, the negative finding is that some destinations are resilient to these forms of hazards (cf. Saha et al., 2015). Therefore, the destinations that are affected by war, terrorism or political instability are unable to develop their tourism sectors, despite their massive potential cultural and environmental attractiveness.

8.2.2.2 Diseases

These are high risk factors due to a myriad of factors, such as inadequate health care facilities, poverty, unemployment, lack of healthcare practitioners and facilities, the process of globalisation, poor sanitation standards in some destinations, and the increase in the use of modern modes of transport such as airplanes and cruise ships, which lead to the rapid spread. The notable ones are avian influenza (cf. Laws et al., 2007; Henderson, 2007; Lerbinger, 2012). Bioterrorism is another serious health hazard, and it incorporates dangers such as smallpox, anthrax, Ebola and gene-spliced bacteria. This can have devastating consequences if used in destinations already affected by war (cf. Lerbinger, 2012). Severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS), for which there is no cure, and foot and mouth disease, cannot be discounted from consideration as they are typically associated with high mortality rates (cf. Maditinos et al., 2008; Henderson, 2007; Laws et al., 2005). The study drew from the literary information to illustrate that diseases can lead to a decline in international tourism arrivals and earnings; reduced tourist travel; cancellation of events; a decrease in customer supply at destinations; and a cease in airline operations. They cause health and economic losses.

8.2.2.3 Crime

From the exposition advanced by South African tourism scholars, this risk is high. According to these scholars, the country is the crime capital of the world. Its impacts on the tourist population include the following: assault, robbery, homicide, rape etc. which are negatively correlated with inbound tourism flows and revenue. This gives rise to unsustainability of tourism-led economic development. In crime-infested destinations, tourists are exposed to the use of drugs, murder, gang violence, racism, and so on. The study showed that crime forces the tourists to cancel their travel plans to affected destinations and choose those which are able to maintain their natural capital. Therefore the research question was answered.

8.2.3 Objective 3 – Strategies that are put in place to mitigate disasters, crises and risks in Durban

8.2.3.1 Management strategies for war, terrorism and political instability

Owing to the fact that the above hazards occur unpredictably and suddenly without detectable warning signs, it is incumbent upon the destination managers to reduce vulnerability to these threats by installing tight security systems. Most importantly, they should effectively eliminate the human conditions that breed aggressive tendencies. They need to assign intelligence function to their operations, and create time and space for their intelligence workforce to infiltrate warlords, terrorists, or masterminds behind political unrest, with a view to alerting target tourists or organisations of the imminent action (cf. Lerbinger, 2012). Additionally, there is a dire need to improve hazard preparedness through awareness campaigns or education programmes to inculcate a “counter-espionage mindset”, and improve warning systems. Destinations, at the level of the government, have to enforce laws to circumvent illegal actions, effect arrests, and imprison the perpetrators of aggressive acts. They need to improve their

defence mechanisms and where possible, institute product recalls (cf. Lerbinger, 2012). In the event of the hazards of this nature, the travellers are exposed to acts of violence, extortion, espionage, cybercrime, defamation, and the like. These constitute the reasons why the visitors rate these hazards so highly. This issue is addressed more comprehensively in the subsequent section dealing with the key findings of the study.

8.2.3.2 Management strategies for diseases

The visitors run the risk of being afflicted by various diseases while travelling in the city. Therefore various countermeasures to diseases must be implemented, and these include, but are not limited to the following: pandemic preparedness; provision of improved health infrastructure; disease preparedness; public education; response policies, vaccine campaigns and adherence to good health standards as prescribed by the World Health Organisation (cf. Henderson, 2007; Lerbinger, 2012; Laws et al., 2005).

8.2.3.3 Countermeasures against crime

Destination management should put the following strategies in place to curb the scourge of crime in the city: introduce programmes to empower the historically disadvantaged communities; install state-of-the-art safety and security devices in destinations; help fund the emerging black-owned businesses; control overcrowding in tourism destinations; accord the employment of the local people in various destinations by utilising income generated from the selling of tourism products and services; consume locally-produced food including building material; and sell shares to the local people, who fall within the sphere of their business operations. Over and above this, the government's law enforcement agencies should beef up safety and security across the breadth and length of the country. Various government

departments, be they local, provincial or national, should also prioritise the safety and security of the visitors to ameliorate the perceived impacts of crime. The police need to intensify regular patrols to search for drug traffickers, weapons, prostitutes, and the like, and arrest criminals and ensure successful prosecution. The vulnerability of travellers to crime ought to be addressed by encouraging them to avoid crime spots, isolated places, and by travelling in organised tours under the guidance of the professional tour guides, who know the country well, and are aware of how to navigate around it safely. The provision of more accurate information on safety and security matters can also go a long way in addressing the tourists' vulnerability to crime (cf. Key Informants inputs).

8.2.3.4 Mitigation strategies for floods

Floods are hazards that occur sporadically in many destinations in and around Durban, and can have debilitating consequences if left unchecked. Therefore, the following strategies can be employed to mitigate them: the use of effective warning systems to warn the visitors in advance; avoidance of destinations which are prone to flooding; development of resilient communities and building structures which include housing, roads, railway lines, airways, and safe waterways; introduction of climate-change adaptation measures; provision of insurance cover for flood-related damage (cf. Faulkner et al., 2001; Chapter 3; par. 2.9); an ongoing analyses of the tourist destinations; internal and external environments to bolster their disaster preparedness, reduction, and recovery plans; encouraging the tourists to be familiar with the local hazards (cf. Burby et al., 1996; Drabek, 1995; Chapter 3; par. 2.9); provision of financial support (cf. Faulkner et al., 2001); establishing effective tourist information centers to cascade correct information to travellers in flood-prone destinations; providing the destinations with the necessary service and support; comprehensively understanding the disaster risk profile of

different destinations; intensifying training and education pertaining to environmental degradation; reducing the pollutants in areas which offer tourism-related functions and products; and reducing of mass tourism and promoting the development and conservation of green areas.

The media trivialises hazards like floods therefore there ought to be some strategies to reduce negative press coverage, as part of the post-disaster management strategies. The marketing campaigns ought to be intensified in respect of the destinations' tourism offerings. In the aftermath of floods, the damaged infrastructure must be rejuvenated to be in line with operational requirements of the affected destination to render tourism services, and offer products. Effective communication strategies must be pursued to inform the tourists as to whether their desired services and or products are available or unavailable (cf. Faulkner et al.; par. 2.9). Moreover, the management must introduce a wide range of post-crisis stress reduction strategies (cf. Heath, 1998; par. 2.10) to strengthen the relationship between it and the entire workforce, as they restore their organisation to normalcy. The research question was therefore answered.

8.2.4 Objective 4 – Primary and secondary losses tourists may experience due to vulnerability to disasters, crises and risk

The study uncovered that travelling is inherently risky, and that every destination can experience crisis in its life span or history. The visitors who visit destinations affected by disasters, crises and risks suffer both primary and secondary losses, of which the major primary one is the loss of life. Their main concern is injuries that they can possibly sustain, shattered

families following the death of one member or next of kin, human displacement, psychological scars, and damaged structures (cf. Mansfeld et al., 2011; Brauch, 2011; Henderson, 2007).

Additionally, the hazards jeopardise their personal safety and security. As illustrated in par. 8.2.2.1 above, the tourists experience indirect losses as well. These comprise, inter alia, high security costs; the payment of exorbitant insurance premiums; lost economic-related opportunities faced by certain specific group of tourists such as business tourist; heightened anxiety, and stress levels (cf. Brauch, 2011). The other tourism stakeholders, for example, the tour operators and travel agents, are also deeply affected by the indirect impacts of the hazards. This is exemplified by the high liability costs they face, due to loss of lives, and injuries sustained by the visitors under their guidance. Consequently, their businesses operates sub-optimally and encounters economic losses (cf. Blake et al., 2003). The hazards force the tourists to cancel bookings for flights and accommodations, which accentuate some personal inconvenience and monetary losses, as they cannot recoup money for administrative purposes (cf. Lerbinger, 2012). In certain instances, the tourists get relocated to destinations that they never initially intended to visit, thus increasing a spiral of anxiety and stress of venturing into unfamiliar territories. Other notable (cf. Mansfeld et al., 2011; Lerbinger, 2012) indirect costs include lack of money to replace their lost personal belongings, as well as damaged valuables like cars, and the like. The question posed was answered.

8.2.5 Objective 5 - What are the tourists' perceptions associated with disasters, crises and risks?

Travelling is by nature very risky. This project uncovered that this practical reality tends to inform travellers' perceptions of disasters, crises and risk. It illustrated that the tourists regard

the concept of risk as implying chances of losses over gains. They perceive hazards as shocks and contingencies that yield undesirable, negative events, for example, the use of nuclear energy (cf. Rohrmann, 2006). Furthermore, the study showed that they interpret risk either objectively (real) or subjectively (perceived). Their subjective risk assessments are anchored around many factors such as their prior-travelling knowledge, experience, education, gender, culture, values, norms, and attitudes and this fact was corroborated by a number of studies conducted in the past (cf. Floyd et al., 2004; Lepp et al., 2003; Lindell et al., 2008; Carr, 2001).

Moreover, this project unearthed and brought to the fore the following dynamics in relation to how the visitors perceive disasters, crises and risks: they perceive hazards differently, for instance, American tourists have pronounced perceptions of terrorism, due to their exposure to the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks in Washington DC than tourists from other countries that have never had such a similar experience. Therefore, risk perception acts as tool that assists travellers not only to understand but to cope with the dangers and uncertainties associated with travelling. This in turn determines their travelling decision-making process and future behaviour as risks constitute their “condition humana” and keep on metamorphosing from time to time, and are eco-centric (cf. Brauch, 2011). The study discovered that their perceptions are mainly informed and shaped by the media, which elevates disasters, crises and risks out of proportion. The tourism sector is affected by hazards that instill fear and anxiety in tourists, and this in turn shapes their perceptions of risk, potentially deterring them from visiting. Destinations in this predicament therefore lose their ability to maintain the quality of their cultural, social, physical and environmental assets, while it still compete in the tourism arena, or to ensure availability of resources for future consumption. Once the essential ingredients that are required for any successful tourism industry are eroded, then the affected destination

loses its reputation for safety, security, and attractiveness. Therefore, it is imperative to manage disasters, crises and risks at all material times.

8.2.6 Objective 6 - The relationship between demographic factors, disasters, crises and risks?

As indicated in the paragraph above (par. 7.5.5), the study discovered that there way the travellers perceive hazards is contingent upon a number of variables. Mention could be made of the following: values; social norms; attitudes; gender; culture; education; and knowledge. These factors play a crucial role in tourists' risk perception, which could in turn be influenced further by extensive media coverage. Over and above these, their perceptions could also be shaped by issues such as the status of the prevailing public health in the country (cf. Liu et al, 2013; par. 1.2.4). For example, the outbreak of diseases such as bird flu, Ebola and severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) can have dire consequences for tourists' flows as the decrease in bookings, and ultimately a loss of jobs, accompanied by economic losses (cf. WHO, 2014; par. 1.2.4). More serious consequences of disasters, crises and risks might include death, injuries, property damages, and massive environmental damage (cf. UNISDR, 2004; par. 1.2.4). Therefore the disasters, crises and risks disrupt the comfort, freedom and tourists' travel patterns. As a result, the tourism destinations affected by them will invariably be perceived to be risky, and substituted with those which are regarded as more safer and secure. The travellers' perceptions of what make up a safe destination can thus be shaped by variables which in turn impact on the prospects of visitation.

The issue of the tourists' nationality and psychological personality is also key in this relationship. The study revealed that those visitors who are adventurous usually experience

fewer risks and consequently travel more than those who do not (cf. Korstanje, 2011; par. 1.5.4). Noteworthy is the fact that travelling is inherently risky, and the tourists face their own risk when choosing a destination for their holidays and transport modes. Risk is almost everywhere and can manifest itself in the form of terrorism, crime, accidents, natural disasters such as floods, drought, earthquakes and the like (cf. Heggie et al., 2004; Floyd et al., 2003; Hall, 2002; Banyai, 2010). The study indicated that the above-mentioned disasters, crises and risks are socially and culturally constructed.

Education and information that the tourists have at their disposal also puts them in a strategic position to evaluate and reduce the risks inherent in travelling. They achieve this by integrating the new information with pre-existing ideas because of its value. Thus, the information of high value influences their travelling decisions to a particular destination rather than information of low value. The successful information search is in turn influenced by their attitude, risk perception level, time, budget, and income. The information gathered could therefore be used to decide which destinations to visit and which to avoid.

Over and above this, the visitors who shows a positive attitude spends a lot of time checking various sources like the newspapers, videos, magazines etc. to assess the risks in different destinations (cf. Sönmez et al., 1998; Chapter 6; par. 6.2.1.3). Moreover, the study brought to the fore the fact that those who are more adventurous or allocentric have a tendency to travel without fear and anxiety, and visit destinations that are affected by some disasters, crises and risks. On the contrary, those who are fearful and risk averse or psychocentric travel to safer destinations. Furthermore, the study dealt with the type of travel which the tourists undertake as another factor influencing their risk perceptions, for instance, business travellers are less

concerned about tragic incidents than are holiday makers. Proximity also plays a crucial role in this scenario, where for instance, Americans are more anxious about terrorism than are tourists from other countries because of their first-hand experience of the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks in America (cf. Korstanje, 2009; chapter 6; par. 6.2.1.3). The tourists' socio-economic, psychological attributes, motives and attitudes therefore play a crucial role in their decision-making processes (cf. Hawkins et al., 1995; Sirakaya et al., 2005; Chapter 6; par. 6.2.1.1). Education is also key in enlightening the tourists to plan their trips carefully to minimise risks, and to make well informed decisions – a confirmation of the visitors as “homo economicus” (cf. Smallman et al., 2010; Chapter 6; par. 6.2.1.2). The study indicated that it is therefore imperative that the destination managers should know about the interplay of these variables so as to enhance their destinations' functionality, sustainability, and competitiveness.

8.2.7 Objective 7 – Social structures that are put in place to respond to disasters, crises and risks to ensure the safety and security of the tourists?

Disasters, crises and risks have a wide range of impact, which threatens the safety and security of the tourists. The study discovered that the visitors feel helpless once the structures they depend on are destroyed. It indicated that there are social, economic, political, and environmental structures to beef up their safety and security. Focused attention is given to tourist's vulnerability including improvement of their livelihoods, and social protection (cf. Faulkner et al., 2001; Cohen et al., 2012; par. 1.5.1 and 1.5.3).

The study furthermore indicated that the tourists also rely on many people for their continued evaluation of safety and security in various destinations. They need their families, friends, colleagues, government institutions, travel agents, tour operators, the media and the like, to

provide them with information in respect of their safety and security. This revealed that, for instance, in the context of a crisis such as crime, (cf. Clubb et al., 2015; par. 6.2.1.1) the various sources of information play an important role in providing them with intelligence with regard to the potential danger that might lurk ahead, and possible protective safety measures thereof. The various informants posited above cascade information pertinent to disasters, crises, and risk like floods, drought, and terrorism (cf. Weitzer et al., 2004; Chiros et al., 1997; Callanan, 2012; par. 6.2.1.1). The overall significance of the information is to inform tourists of the desired destinations to visit, or respectively avoid.

Furthermore, the study discovered that the visitors utilise various modes of transport like water, land and air to travel to destinations (cf. Sheller et al., 2005; par. 6.2.1.5) to achieve the following: firstly, to connect with others for social and political purposes; secondly, to demonstrate not only their social statuses, but their power as well. The study revealed that they need safe destinations, mobile media, such as phones and technologies to enhance their safety and security, and to satisfy their evolving needs.

The role played by government departments cannot be left untouched in this debate. Both the provincial and national government departments offer tourism programmes which enhance the visitors' safety and security (cf. Key informants inputs; par. 6.2.1.5). This project indicated that they also need institutional structures such as the police to ensure that there is an element of safety, peace and tranquility in destinations they visit. Justice is also critical as they depend on it when they have criminal cases to be dealt with.

To expedite their easy travel in destinations, the visitors require surplus money. The financial plans that they have at their disposal cushion them against the impact of economic risks. Epidemics are high-risk factors which influence travelling patterns in the city – therefore the visitors are in need of adequate health care facilities, medicines and personnel to address their plight in times of need (cf. Key informants inputs; par. 6.2.1.8).

8.3 Concluding remarks

The relevance and implications of the key findings in the light of the previous studies and the literary information is worth considering. The key findings are posited hereunder as follows.

8.3.1 Findings based on the questionnaire completed by the tourists (qualitative and quantitative data)

8.3.1.1 Socio/environmental/political risk factors

The thesis revealed that the risks warranting more attention in this category include, inter alia, xenophobia, which was rated as moderate to an extremely high risk factor, crime, unemployment, political instability, and diseases, which constituted extremely high risks. The paradoxical finding is around a risk like crime, which is perceived to be high. This notwithstanding, the tourism sector in the city is growing in leaps and bounds. It does not affect tourist flows. The study indicated that tourists have their own ways of dealing with it (cf. Key informant interviews). Risks such as poor service delivery, decaying municipal infrastructure, drought and floods made up moderate to high risks. This category of risk has far-reaching implications for the tourists and the tourism sector, as indicated in the preceding sub-sections. They cumulatively affect the tourism sector negatively, and need to be consistently managed

for destinations to function optimally, so as to remain sustainable and competitive (cf. overview of the study and summary of the research questions).

8.3.1.2 Economic risks

The study showed that a substantially high percentage of the tourists did not seem to be perturbed by the influence of economic risk factors. The risk factors such as high taxes, high transport costs, exchange rate etc. are regarded as low risk factors mainly due to the following practical realities: firstly, Durban is an affordable destination; secondly, the rand/dollar exchange rate favours a lot of tourists, particularly those international ones who hail from the countries with a strong currency. As far as the economic risk factors were concerned, the most striking major finding concerned corruption. Just like crime, this crisis is perceived to be high but does not impede the tourist flows in the country. The same applies equally well to risks like theft and labour strikes. The time that tourists have at their disposal for travelling, budget and travelling plans lessen the impacts of economic factors. This could be attributed to the fact that the advantages of visiting the city far outweigh the disadvantages posed by threat like corruption. The impact of corruption is ameliorated by a rich basket of the city's tourism offerings. However, it is still critically advisable to keep corruption under control as it can potentially affect business tourism.

8.4 Recommendations

8.4.1 Recommendations relating to the study

In spite of the limitations inherent in the study, the conclusions drawn indicated that there are some practical strategies that the destinations, hosting establishments, official tourism institutions, travel marketers, tourism product owners, travel agents, tour operators and the like

could employ to deal with disasters, crises and risks that occur on account of the interface between tourism and the environment, and to understand the social processes by which vulnerability of the tourists are produced. These strategies may not be reflected in policies nationally, but are worth considering by destination management officers, and they are posited as follows: understanding disasters, crises and risks as social constructs that affect tourists who constantly require an element of safety and security in their travelling patterns so the provision of these two components by destination managers is critically important; as well as the establishment of good communication channels including responsible media reporting of the disasters, crises and risks that affect destinations to address the plight of the tourists. Recommendations around how to deal with some risks are posited below:

Crime was perceived to be high in Durban. The study recommends that more concerted efforts need to be taken by all the tourism stakeholders to manage it. This will make various destinations safer so as to attain a high level of sustainability and competitiveness. The role of the media should also be brought under check. The media spread fear and anxiety amongst the tourists unnecessarily. The study therefore recommends responsible media coverage on matters pertaining to crime. Finally the study recommends that ongoing research has to be undertaken to unpack trends and patterns around the crime situation in Durban, and to explore other new innovative ways of managing it so that it should not impede tourists' movements. It recommends that research should extend to unravelling various ways in which tourism destinations can enhance the social responsibility programmes like the funding of tourism businesses owned by historically disadvantaged communities. The assumption here, as drawn from empirical and theoretical arguments, is that if tourism can benefit the majority of disadvantaged communities then the level of crime will diminish.

Corruption was observed to be one of the challenges which has a potential to cause political instability. It is perceived to be high and is caused by corruption. The study recommends that

rigorous efforts must be taken to root out corruption. Ongoing research has to be undertaken to unpack the various manifestations of political rivalry, greed and power so that the City of Durban can be politically stable as a tourism destination. Governance issues should also be improved. Another worrying trend is political killings which affect the overall image of Durban. The study recommends that surveillance and intelligence gathering should be intensified to keep the city stable so that tourism destinations can be sustainable, productive and commercially viable to attract a fair share of the tourist market.

Floods are a common occurrence in Durban and have the potential to erode its good image as they kill people, and destroy the much needed infrastructure to support tourism. The study recommends the issuance of early detection and warning systems so that the travelers cannot be adversely affected. It further recommends that more studies need to be undertaken to find innovative ways of managing the floods.

Poverty and unemployment are interlinked and have a potential to threaten the tourism sector in Durban particularly the tourists and emerging tourism enterprises. The study recommends more innovative ways of creating employment, for instance, an inclusive economic growth and poverty alleviation must be explored not only by the provincial and municipality departments, but by all including the tourism product owners.

8.4.2 Further studies

The tourists' perceptions regarding Durban as a tourist destination as well as in disaster risk discourse is a complex issue, which should be resolved by ongoing multiple studies. This fact is informed by the observation that perceptions are not cast in stone, but evolve with the passage of time. Therefore, multiple studies that might consider the tourists' diverse exposure and vast experiences with disasters, crises, and risks will prove worthwhile. These studies should aim

at generating rich and well-informed empirical arguments, which will also inform the disaster discourse differently. Another key area that ought to be addressed in future is the issue of the impediments to the implementation of policies by various tourism stakeholders to enhance safety and security to the tourists. The dynamics of understanding risk and its various manifestations must be re-defined and unpacked to enable the visitors to detect the dangers inherent in travelling. The crises that torpedo the normal operations of the tourism destinations by inflicting more damage on their reputation for safety, sustainability, and competitiveness deserve attention in the disaster risk discourse, so as to generate management strategies in line with dictates of the Fourth Industrial Revolution.

8.5 Conclusion

Disasters, crises and risks are social constructs, which occur at the intersection of the environment and humankind. Travelling is inherently risky, and this is exemplified by a wide range of hazards that tourists encounter in their travelling. The tourism sector in Durban is prone to a number of hazards which comprise, inter alia, drought, floods, diseases, poverty, unemployment, political instability, crime, corruption, poor economic growth and the like. These hazards cumulatively affect the image of the city as one of the prime tourist receiving cities in Southern Africa, and in turn affect the tourists' perceptions of it. The consequences of these hazards include, but are not limited to the following: death, loss of fauna and flora; destruction of physical infrastructure which include loss of property; paralysis of important socio-economic functions offered by business enterprises and subsequent socio-economic losses; stunted economic growth; human suffering and displacement; destruction of cultural and historic assets; job losses; unemployment; poverty; and degraded environments. The hazards also jeopardise the normal operations, sustainability and competitiveness of various

destinations if left unchecked. Therefore, it is critically important to put in place detection, response, reduction and post-crisis management strategies in different destinations so as to ensure that the tourists are safe and secure. The study also highlighted the role of the media in cascading information pertaining to disasters, crises and risks that affect the tourists in the city. The media's role is two-pronged – it conveys information which is correct and which can assist the tourists with appropriate coping mechanisms in various contexts (e.g. in the case of crime spots, xenophobic attacks, service delivery protests etc.) or colludes with the private risk industry to sell an image of 'violence', thus heightening an element of fear and anxiety amongst travellers. Nevertheless, the tourists are circumspect about disasters, crises and risk that receive media attention. Such disasters do not have much impact on them as they use various devices to assess safety and security in various destinations, and this comprise, inter alia, family, colleagues, friends, neighbours, embassies, law enforcement agencies, travel operators and so on. All these informants cushion them against negative media reports. The chapter also highlighted the role of destination management officers in respect of the tourists' safety and security needs, and the need to have disaster management policies effectively implemented to attain destination functionality, sustainability and competitiveness.

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APPENDICES A

Tourism disasters, crises and the risk-fear nexus: tourists' perceptions of South Africa as a tourism destination

Instructions for completion:

1. Please answer all questions regarding your assessment of tourism disasters, crises and risks and tourists perceptions towards South Africa as honestly and objectively as possible.
2. Place a tick or a cross in the space of the questions that reflects your answer most accurately.
3. Where asked for comments or to specify, please keep these as briefly, yet thoroughly, as possible.

A. DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Gender

Male	1
Female	2

Marital Status

Married	Single	Divorced	Widowed	Other
1	2	3	4	5

Age

<20	20-39	40-49	50-59	60-69	70+
1	2	3	4	5	6

Levels of Education

No schooling	Primary	secondary	tertiary
1	2	3	4

Country of Origin

Local	Regional (including the rest of Africa)	International
1	2	3

Employment status

	General worker	Retired/pensioner	Self-employed	Unemployed	Other
Employment status	1	2	3	4	5

B. SOCIO/ ENVIRONMENTAL-POLITICAL RISKS:

Rate on 1-5 point Likert scale the prevalence of the **risks** associated with travelling in South Africa where

1= extremely low risk/ 2= low risk/ 3=moderate/ 4=high risk / 5= extremely high risk

Variables:					
1. Xenophobia	1	2	3	4	5
2. Energy crises	1	2	3	4	5
3. Wars/conflicts	1	2	3	4	5
4. Terrorism	1	2	3	4	5
5. Poor infrastructure (roads, railway, waterways)	1	2	3	4	5
6. Security	1	2	3	4	5
7. Airport safety	1	2	3	4	5
8. Port safety	1	2	3	4	5
9. Natural disasters	1	2	3	4	5
10. Poor service delivery (provision of water, electricity, sewerage)	1	2	3	4	5
11. Pollution (land, water, air)	1	2	3	4	5
12. Crime	1	2	3	4	5
13. Political instability	1	2	3	4	5
14. Poverty	1	2	3	4	5
15. Unemployment	1	2	3	4	5
16. Health system (costly and inaccessible)	1	2	3	4	5
17. Decayed municipal infrastructure	1	2	3	4	5
18. Earthquakes	1	2	3	4	5
19. Floods	1	2	3	4	5
20. Drought	1	2	3	4	5

21. Diseases (TB, AIDS, cholera, malaria, ebola	1	2	3	4	5
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C. Economic risks:

On a 1-5 point Likert scale rate the economic risks which tourists are most likely to experience in South Africa where 1= always/ 2= very often/ 3= sometimes / 4= rarely / 5= never

Variables:					
1. High transport costs including toll fees	1	2	3	4	5
2. Negative exchange rate	1	2	3	4	5
3. High interest rates	1	2	3	4	5
4. Low economic growth	1	2	3	4	5
5. High commodity prices	1	2	3	4	5
6. Export leakages	1	2	3	4	5
7. Increased infrastructure cost	1	2	3	4	5
8. Seasonal nature of jobs	1	2	3	4	5
9. Economic dependence of locals on tourism	1	2	3	4	5
10. High taxes	1	2	3	4	5
11. Import leakages	1	2	3	4	5
12. Stiff competition	1	2	3	4	5
13. Theft/fraud	1	2	3	4	5
14. Lack of funding	1	2	3	4	5
15. Labour instability and strikes	1	2	3	4	5
16. Corruption	1	2	3	4	5

D. Personal Risk:

On 1-5 point Likert scale rate the possibility of the risks to be experienced by the tourists where 1 = always/ 2= very often/3 = sometimes/ 4= rarely /5=never

Variables:					
1. Death	1	2	3	4	5
2. Personal injury	1	2	3	4	5
3. Loss of personal belongings	1	2	3	4	5
4. House breaking/robbery	1	2	3	4	5
5. Street robbery	1	2	3	4	5
6. Car hijacking	1	2	3	4	5
7. Rape	1	2	3	4	5
8. Assault (grievous bodily harm)	1	2	3	4	5
9. Other (specify)					

E .Risk assessment devices:

On a 1-5 point Likert scale indicate the institutions and people you seek help from/ or devices you use to determine and assess risks in the country where 1=Yes / 2 = No

Variables:		
1. Media (both print and electronic)	1	2
2. Travel agents	1	2
3. Tour operators	1	2
4. Economic /political forecasts	1	2
5. Friends and relatives	1	2
6. State security agents/law enforcement agencies	1	2
7. Crime reports/statistics	1	2
8. Other tourists	1	2
9. Complaints	1	2
10. In-loco inspection	1	2
11. Department of Home Affairs	1	2
12. Foreign embassies	1	2
13. Department of Trade and Industry	1	2
14. National Department of Tourism	1	2
15. South African Police Services	1	2

16. Information by general public	1	2
17. Word-of-mouth	1	2
18. Other (specify):		

F. POSITIVE PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS THE COUNTRY:

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G. NEGATIVE PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS THE COUNTRY:

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THANKS!
END

APPENDICES B

Tourism disasters, crises and the risk-fear nexus: tourists' perceptions of South Africa as a tourism destination

FOCUS QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STAKEHOLDERS

A. PROFILE

1. Indicate your official status in your organisation

1	Director	
2	Deputy Director	
3	Secretary	
4	Board member	
7	Other (Specify)	

2. Type of organisation

1	Government department	
2	NGO	
3	CBO	
4		
5		
6	Other:	

1. Give some examples of disasters, crises and risks that could probably reduce tourism demand in South Africa.

2. To what extent are the disasters, crises and risks affecting the well-being of the tourists in the country?

3. What aspects of the tourists' life is mostly affected by the disasters, crises and risks?

4. What kind of recourse do the tourists have when they are affected negatively by the disasters, crises and risks?

5. Are the tourists' rights respected when they are seeking recourse? Please explain.

6. The tourists perceive port safety as a moderate risk? What could be the probable reasons?

7. The local, regional and international tourists perceive unemployment as an extremely high risk facing the tourism industry in South Africa. What is your understanding of this perception?

8. The local, regional and international travelers regard poverty as an extremely high risk that affect their travelling endeavors in the country. Do you agree or not? Give some reasons.

9. Economic risk factors such as high transport costs, low economic growth, high taxes etc do not seem to be of major concerns to the tourists. The local, regional and international tourists do not show any statistically significant differences in their perception of economic risk factors. What are the possible reasons for this?

10. The level of crime in the country is perceived by the tourists to be extremely high. What could this be ascribed to?

11. Is crime really affecting the tourists' mobility and tourism demand adversely? Please explain.

12. How do the tourists deal with crime in various tourist destinations in the country?

13. Corruption is reported as very high by the media sources in South Africa. What is its main causes?

14. Does corruption affect the tourists' trips, and perceptions of South Africa as a tourism destination adversely? If yes, what are its consequences for the travelers?

15. What is the role played by political and economic forecasts in providing the tourists with information regarding the risks and crises in South Africa?

16. What is the most serious crisis affecting the tourism industry in the Western Cape, and how can it be managed?

17. Which policy interventions do you think can best ensure the safety and security of the tourists and their personal belongings in the country?

18. What are the challenges in respect of the implementation of the policies aimed at ensuring the safety and security of the tourists in the country?

19. What could best be done to solve the challenges you have just identified?

20. Has the current Disaster Management Policies played any significant role in dealing with disasters, crises and risks that tourists face? Please explain.

21. Overall, how can you rate the tourists' perceptions towards South Africa (as either positive or negative)?

22. What are the reasons for the tourists' positive perceptions towards the country?

23. What are the reasons for the tourists' negative perceptions towards the country?

24. Are there any strategies to change the tourists' negative perceptions towards the country?

25. Is there any partnerships between the private sector and the public to deal with

tourism disasters, crises and risks to ensure that they country remains competitive?

THANKS!
THE END.