

Sustainable Community Development in Africa Nations through Disaster Risk Reduction in Tourism Industries: the Nigerian Experience

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Abstract

The paper examines tourism development and disaster risk reduction in Africa, using Nigeria as a case study. It has the goal of setting guide and safety strategies to potential tourists with a view to aid socio economic and physical growth of host communities through tourism management. With foreseeable tourism potentials in Nigeria, it emphasizes the need for disaster planning through risk management in tourist areas. This includes risk prevention, reduction, mitigation and coping. The paper posits that effective risk management in tourism industry will assure safety to tourists, increase their patronage and enhance the economy of host communities.

Keywords: Disaster, Economy, Planning, Risk Management, Tourism, Tourist.

1. Introduction

In literature, African tourism potentials are seen as untapped opportunities towards the development of their communities and nations at large (Ishii, 2009). In the contrary, poverty amidst plenty is the centre stage in development debates on the continent (Hays, 2006). More than half of the region's populations earned below one US Dollar per day (Abegunde, Omisore and Adeyinka, 2007). They are haunted by negative effects of poverty such as inadequate infrastructure, urban slum, makeshift housing, poor technology, low industrialisation and perennial civil conflicts over scarce resources (Gakunzi, 2005). These have made the search for 'pro-poor growth', that is the growth that will benefit the poor people and speed community development with little investments very urgent.

Tourism industry, the present largest industry in the world holds the key to this in the new millennium (Naude and Saayman, 2004; World Tourism Organisation, 2003; Lickorish and Jenkins, 1997). First, in recent years, tourism has been increasingly recognised for its economic potential to contribute to the reduction of poverty in African countries (Awaritefe, 2004; Afolabi, 2001; Awaritefe, 2000; Chokor, 1993). Its geographical expansion and labour intensive nature support a spread of employment and can be particularly relevant in remote and rural areas of African communities where over 70 percent of the land space is occupied by rural populations (Nigeria National Planning Commission, 2004; World Bank, 2004). Specifically in Nigeria, tourism performance and statistics have been on the rise in recent years. It ranked third in the country's export after petroleum and cocoa (Falade, 2000; Oyejide and Bankole, 2001). The country is said to be more endowed with natural and historical resource centres than any other nation in sub-Saharan Africa (Ekpenyong, 2001; Adelaja, 1997).

This has stirred scholars to encourage Nigerians and their counterparts in other African nations to utilize potentials in tourism to promote socio economic growth and physical development of their communities (Omisore, 2002; Awaritefe, 2004; Roe, Ashley, Page and Meyer, 2004; Mohammed, 2004). Past studies on the subject in the country have focused more on the provision of infrastructure at tourist centres (Falade, 2000), spatial distribution and preservation of tourist centres (Omisore, 2002; Ojo, 1978) and socio cultural, economic and environmental impacts of tourism on host communities (Awaritefe, 1994; Smith and Eadington, 1992; Adejuwon and Akpenyong, 2001; Abegunde *et al.*, 2007).

Others have noted that natural and artificial hazards in Africa cause disasters that affect both tourists and residents in

host communities (Nkabahona, 2007; Frankland, 2007; Gambari, 2002; Gakunzi, 2005). Some of these authors opined that lack of disaster management in tourism industry among African nations risks tourists' lives and limits social integration between tourists' places of origin and destinations (Manyara, 2007; Sarkar, 2005). Implicit to this is that disaster risk management in tourism aids inter-regional peace and provide security to tourists (Hays, 2006).

In other words, works of these authors can best be categorized into two. The first is concerned more about benefits of tourism to host communities while the latter focused on the well being of tourists. This paper marries the two perspectives together. It advocates special safety for tourists and posits that increased risk management will attract tourists. This is with a view to promote national economic development through increased gross domestic product from tourism industry.

Issues considered in the paper include concepts of tourism, disaster and risk management and planning. It also examines Nigerian economy and trends of its tourism development; and identifies existing tourist potentials that can be developed to improve national economy. To enhance tourists' patronage, it identifies common disasters that pose danger to tourists and set guides and safety strategies towards disaster risk management. It concludes by imploring government and other stakeholders in risk management to team together in enhancing national economy through effective risk management in tourism industry.

2. The Concepts of Tourism, Disaster Risk Management and Planning

2.1 The Concept of Tourism

Tourism can be defined as the act of travel for the purpose of recreation and business, and the provision of services for this act (Abegunde *et al.*, 2007). Jafari (1977) defined tourism as a study of man away from his usual habitat, of the industry which responds to his needs, and impacts that both he and the industry have on the host's socio-cultural, economic and physical environment. To Mathieson and Wall (1982), tourism is a multi- faceted phenomenon. It involves movements of tourists to and staying in destinations outside their normal places of residence (Burkart and Medlik, 1981:4).

Tourists are highly indispensable in tourism development. They are the people who are traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited (Colak and Aydinoglu, 2006). The view of Pearce (1982, 1996) on tourism is in agreement with this study. He perceived it to be an interrelated and amalgamated industry which arises from the movement of people and their stay in various destinations outside their houses; with such industries producing economic returns in destination centres and beyond.

Modern tourism started in the western world. At present, international tourism is already important in Africa. The chance for the region to rise above present economic depression through tourism is very high. This is because it hosts varieties of natural resources that are not common to every continent of the world. It has varieties of wildlife. Many of the wild animals currently cheered by the developed nations were imported from Africa. The continent also has varieties of highlands, rivers, spurs, waterfalls and landscapes. For instance, rivers Nile, Nipopo, Congo and Niger among others are few examples. There are mountains like Kilomajaro, Foutajalon and Guinea highland. Despite these potentials, many African governments either do not take tourism seriously and avail themselves of these opportunities, or fail to make the link between tourism and poverty reduction – or both (ODI, 2006).

The dominance of high-income countries in international tourism is striking. Almost two-thirds of all international tourists in 2003 arrived in rich countries. Africa represented a drop in the ocean, with just over 4% of the total number (Overseas Development Institute {ODI}, 2006). Despite these low earnings from tourism in Africa, the continent has the necessary attraction to rate with their western counter parts in nature. Cost of tourism in term of cheaper holidays can be obtained in Africa than in other tourist destinations round the globe (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). It is interesting to note from a research conducted by the International Press Institute (IPI) and African Economic Development (AED) Nairobi, as far as 1983 that a total of 75 million tourists visited Africa with annual tourist expenditure of about US\$ one billion (Falade, 2000). Nigeria, the giant of Africa has many tourism potentials to boast of, the tourism industry in the country is still in its infancy and lies untapped as most tourism resources are underdeveloped. Those developed are marked with low patronage by international tourists. One of the reasons behind this is the concern over safety from hazards causing disasters to tourists.

2.2 The Concept of Disaster

Disaster is the occurrence of an abnormal or infrequent hazard that affects vulnerable communities or geographic areas. This causes substantial damage, disruption, and perhaps casualties and leaving the affected communities unable to function normally (Benson and Clay, 2004). It is also perceived as the sting of nature or repercussion of man-made actions, causing losses of both natural and man-made resources in affected areas (Cohan and Cole,2002;

Olayiwola and Adeleye, 2006).

Disaster has traditionally been seen as event that affects a large population, but it is in fact any shock that has an impact on communities so that their capacities to cope are overwhelmed. Along this line, endemics and epidemics like AIDS/HIV, Bird flu, Malaria to mention but few are disastrous to man. From an economic perspective, a disaster implies some combinations of losses, in human, physical, and financial capital, and a reduction in economic activity such as income generation, investment, consumption, production, and employment in the “real” economy (Fafchamps, Udry and Czukas, 1998; Dayton-Johnson, 2006). There may also be severe effects on financial flows such as the revenue and expenditure of public and private bodies (Benson and Clay 1998).

A hazard is not disastrous until it has affected man, directly or indirectly. Disaster, as it affects tourism is significant because tourists, and many a times, host communities are unprepared for the shock. Disaster according to International Federation of Surveyors (2006) can be natural or artificially induced. Natural disasters do come from climate variations causing famine, desertification and global warming. It also relates to floods, earthquakes, wild wind attack like Chinook, hurricane, cyclones among others (Bibbee, 1999; Erdik and Durukal, 2003).

Nearly 9 000 catastrophic natural disasters have occurred during the period 1900–2002. The five countries with the highest number of disasters during the period 1900–2002 are the United States (655), India (459), China (420), the Philippines (355) and Indonesia (276) (OECD, 2004). The deadliest natural disaster of the twentieth century was the influenza pandemic of 1917, which claimed some 20 million lives worldwide. This was followed, in terms of lethality, by the 1932 famine in the Soviet Union with 5 million dead. Next to this was flooding of the Yangtze, followed by famine in China in July 1931 claiming altogether 3.7 million lives (OECD 2004).

Major natural disasters in the 1990s caused economic losses estimated at an average US\$66 billion per year (in 2002 prices) (Benson and Clay, 2004). In 1995, the year of the Kobe earthquake in Japan, record losses of about US\$178 billion were observed. This was an equivalent of 0.7 percent of global gross domestic product of that year (Munich, 2002).

It is well-established that there is a tight link between natural disasters and poverty (World Bank, 1996; Munich, 2002; Benson and Clay, 2004). This is true in at least two senses: first, that natural disasters are more frequent in developing countries, and second, that the poor in any society that are exposed to natural hazards are more likely to suffer damages (OECD, 2004). For instance, Ayala (2002) noted that most disasters occur in developing countries, and that death toll of disasters is even more concentrated in developing countries than their developed counterparts. Anderson (2000) also argued that the poor are more affected by hazards. In this sense, poor countries are not only more exposed, but they are more vulnerable than rich countries; and the poorest people within them are the most vulnerable (Brauch, 2003; DFID, 2006; Abegunde, Oluodo, Adeyinka and Olawuni, 2006).

Artificial disasters are generated from man-made actions against the ecosystem. Such could sprout from urban sprawl, overcrowding, deforestation and war to mention but few. Studies conducted by Gambari (2002) and Machel (2005) revealed that the most common between natural and human caused disasters in African nations is violent conflict. Smith (1994), earlier commenting on this, observed that out of the total 79 conflict countries in the world, 65 are in the Third World and conflicts in Africa often coincides with economic problems.

Along this line, New York Times (February 27, 2005) noted that hundreds of thousands of poor men, women and children die needlessly each year from preventable man-made disasters like civil wars, communal or political conflicts among others in Africa nations. This could be why Wood (2002) argued that natural disasters are not entirely always natural. If this is so, every disaster can be avoided or prevented and where this is not possible can be minimized. Significant in this is that risk prevention, reduction and management is a function of identifying hazards causing disasters and building this knowledge into development plan for sustainable environment.

2.3 The Concept of Disaster Risk Management and Planning

Planning is an administration of human environment and it is futuristic in nature. It seeks the convenience of man in the preparation of development plan within the urban space. A development plan is called by different names – “General Plan”, City Plan”, “Master Plan”, or even Disaster Plan”. A development plan is defined as the official statement of a municipal legislature body, which sets forth the major policies concerning future physical development of a settlement. A development plan is a policy instrument. It provides basis for fulfilling the yearning and aspiration of the people (Olayiwola and Adeleye, 2006).

Disaster planning therefore is a planned action aimed at given all that are necessary to make hazards less disastrous to man and his physical environment, and by this fostering sustainability in the midst of vulnerability. It uses development control as mechanisms and tools through which planning goals and ideals are achieved (Geis, 1996). In relation to disaster risk reduction, it provides tools with which disaster resistance plans are prepared and implemented. Significant in these is that disaster plan for every tourist area must be prepared. This must include weather forecasts and climate variations of tourist centres. It must contain plans of zones prone to hazards and likely

hazards expected at given time(s) and degrees of past occurrences of such in different areas within the planning region. It provides means out of catastrophes and guides tourists on day to day visitations to areas concerned. Such must be regularly updated and made available on the internet for anybody who wishes to access. Disaster planning must provide environmental effects of every activity in any given area, including those by the tourists. It should state steps and easy means towards risk management.

Risk management is a method of decision making that identifies goals and ends of risk reduction, eradication or prevention where possible and tolerance where hazards cannot be absolutely avoided. It determines the means and programmes which are thought to achieve these ends. Hence, risk-management strategies include: *risk prevention*, actions intended to reduce the likelihood of adverse risks occurring at all; *risk mitigation*, actions intended to reduce the damages associated with risks should they occur; and *risk coping*, actions taken after the fact.

While risk-prevention strategies seek to reduce the probability of a risk occurring, risk mitigation strategies attempt to reduce the damages associated with the risk should it occur (Reice, 2001; Selcukand Yelden, 2001). These are *ex ante* actions; in the natural-disaster context, this corresponds to reducing *vulnerability* to natural hazards. Risk-mitigation comes in three forms. *Diversification* of risk reduces the variability of income by using a greater variety of assets to generate that income. *Insurance* involves the pooling of risk across agents, by means of formal insurance contracts or informal arrangements among households. *Hedging*, finally, as is witnessed in financial markets, is effected when one agent pays a second agent a sum to assume a risk borne by the first agent (OECD, 2004).

3. Nigerian Tourism Potentials and Trends of Tourism Development: their Implications on Community Development and National Economy.

Nigeria as a country endowed with natural resources and artifacts that are of interest in tourism industry. For instance, the presence of savanna grass land and sand dunes in the far north, tropical shrubs and highlands in the middle belt and mangrove forest and ocean beaches in the low south offer a wide variety of tourist attractions to tourists in the country. Table 1 shows major tourist centres that are of interest to both foreign and local tourists in Nigeria. The Table divided these tourist centres into six groups. They are resort, urban, cultural/historic, nature/ecotourism/park/zoo, adventure and water/beach tourism centres. As revealed in the Table, tourism has been highly promoted by extended and roomy river and ocean beaches ideal for swimming and other water sports as in Lekki and Badagri Beaches in Lagos. It also shows unique wildlife like Yankari, Kanji, Borgu and Obudu Games Reserves.

There are vast tracts of unspoiled nature ranging from tropical forest to sand dunes as one travels from extreme south to far north of the country as revealed in Bar Beach, Lagos; Idanre Hills, Ondo State and Zuma Rock, Abuja. Others are magnificent plateau and interlocking spurs that produce waterfalls as found in Jos Plateau, Jos and Ikogosi Warm Spring, Ekiti State. Some new rapidly growing cities like Abuja and Akure exist in contrast with traditional communities like Ile-Ife and Old-Oyo that have typical rural setting and climatic conditions that are conducive to holidaying (Afolabi, 2001; www.nigeriaonline.com). Other attractions include traditional ways of life preserved in local customs; rich and varied handicrafts and other colourful products depicting or illustrative of native arts and lifestyle as in Benin City in Edo State, Tuk Ham and Kwoi communities in Kaduna State. There are authentic unsophisticated but friendly attitude of many residents in communities in the country (www.onlinenigeria.com). Of interest in the country are over 350 ethnic groups, each with its distinct different dialects, unique culture and tradition.

According to the Table, tourist centres that attract foreigners most in order of importance include Yankari Games Reserve, Kanji Lake Reserve, Kano Museum, Lekki Beach - Lagos, Benin Museum and Oni Ife Palace. Those that are yet to secure the attention of foreign tourists include Ogun Water Fall, Udi Hills, Sambissa Games Reserve, Bonny Island, Liyafia Hotel – Katsina, Victoria Garden and Ay Guest House, – Lagos and Zambissa Hotel among others.

Despite these opportunities, tourism in Nigeria has been underutilised, hence underdeveloped. Studies have shown that countries that have well utilized their tourism potentials are living above economic depression in the new millennium. Example of such in Africa is South Africa. In Bangladesh, a large, hazard-prone Asian country, her economy is concentrated, in particular, on public finance, tourism and Manufacturing (Ninno, Dorosh, Smith and Roy, 2001; Benson and Clay 2004). While tourism industry in Nigeria was not developed to international level before its independence, it is also hard to divorce the advent of colonialists in the country from tourism development. As noted by Raslan (2003), the birth of modern tourism in many African countries is inseparable from the activities of wealthy European and American 19th century travelers. There are no excuses for Nigeria to let her tourism industry lie fallow after about fiftieth year of independence. For instance, the visitation of early foreigners to Egypt, Kenya, Morocco and Tunisia to mention but few opened up their tourist potentials to the world. It is evident

that tourism has played important roles in the changed political economies of these countries (Dieke, 1994, 2000; Christie & Crompton, 2001; Gerosa, 2003; Rogerson, 2003; Youngstedt, 2003). In Africa, among the most important newcomers promoting tourism in national development planning are Gambia, Uganda, Tanzania, Mauritius, the Seychelles, Botswana and South Africa (Rogerson & Visser, 2004, 2007; Cornelissen, 2005).

What brought changes to Nigerian economy, particularly after independence is petroleum mining. The oil boom of 1970s brought with it fundamental changes in the country's economy. By 1980, the oil sector which accounted for 22 percent of the gross domestic product provided 80 percent of government's revenue and over 96 percent of export earnings. Between 1962 and 1985, the country implemented four national development plans; first (1962-68), second (1970-74), third (1975-80), and fourth (1981-1985).

During these four development plans, little was accomplished in tourism planning and development in the country. The first attempt to initiate tourism in the country was the formal establishment of Colonial Antiquities Commission in 1953 (Modupe, 1980). Tourism became a national interest in 1959, when a committee was set up to advise the government on the issue. In 1962, a body called Nigeria Tourism Association (NTA) was set up but failed to function as expected. In other words, the First National Development Plan of 1962-1968 failed to consider tourism in its agenda. The civil war of 1967-1970 worsened the issue and scared foreigners from the country.

In 1971, the Federal Government commissioned the African Development Bank to investigate the feasibility of tourist trade in Nigeria. The resulting report of the Bank was the absence of effective institutional set up for tourism. To close this institutional gap, the Nigerian Tourist Board Decree No. 54 was promulgated and this was finally inaugurated in September, 1978. In 1979, the government saw the need to give more attention to tourism and promulgated the 1979 Decree 77 called National Commission for Museums and Monuments (Ekpenyong, 2001).

Part of the success recorded by the Board in tourism development is the creation of awareness for it. Notable among the success is the second Black African Festival of Arts (FESTAC) held in 1977. Many States in the country bought this idea and developed tourist centres for foreigners in their environments. It was during this era that tourist centres like Bagauda Lake Resort in Kano, Dubar Hotel in Kaduna and Yankari Games Reserve in Bauchi States were completed respectively. Arugungu Fishing Festival in Sokoto was also upgraded.

Table 2 reveals tourist arrivals in Nigeria as percentage of total arrivals in Africa. In the Table, international tourist arrivals rose 16 times between 1967 and 1985 (from 21,829 to 333,679 tourists). The highest arrival was recorded in 1983 with 354,292 foreigners, while the least was recorded in 1970 with a figure of 13,094. This made tourists to Nigeria from sub-Saharan Africa to rise from 1.05 percent in 1970 to 7.2 percent in 1985, with a peak percent of 9.02 in 1983 (World Tourism Organisation, 1990).

The success made in tourism in late 1970s attracted international organizations to raise support for Nigerian tourism industry. By 1979, the first United Nations Development Projects/International Labour Organisations/ World Tourism Organisation project was commissioned and was expected to open the country for more international recognition. The Nigerian Tourism Board also announced its plans to establish Youth Centre in Jos, Plateau State with the assistance of the World Federation of Youth Associations. Part of the success recorded during this era was the first National Tourism Master Plan, drawn up in 1981 (Ekpenyong, 2001).

In addition to this, the federal government of Nigeria formed tourism policy in 1990 and established the National Tourism Development Corporation (NTDC) under Decree 81. Consequently, the State Tourism and Local Government Tourism Committee were created to man tourism at state and local levels respectively. These were done to promote tourism and make it sustainable in Nigeria's economy. On April 9, 1997, the Ministry of Commerce and Tourism empowered the NTDC to monitor registration, activities and promotion of tourism industries in Nigeria (Adelaja, 1997). The government encouraged private individuals to establish hotels that meet international standard. It also absorbed tourism experts as members of the Vision 2010 Committee who were then to provide blueprint for the country's millennium growth and development

Much dependence on oil sector, lack of fund and incessant civil disorder due to military rule and communal conflicts among discrete communities limited tourism patronage between late 1970s and 1990s. There was a civil war in the country between 1967 and 1970. This perhaps accounted for low tourists' arrival recorded in 1969 and 1970 as shown in Table 2. Starting from mid 1981, the world oil market began to collapse. This led to economic crisis. The country passed through this for more than a decade. For example, crude oil prices which rose rapidly from US\$20.94 per barrel in 1979 to US\$ 35.95 in 1980 and US\$40 in 1981 fell gradually and finally to US\$14.85 in 1986 (Anyanwu, 1993).

This placed Nigeria among the poorest countries in the world with a stagnant annual gross domestic product (GDP) between 1980s and 1990s. Within these years, the country has gone into debts, practicing different economic fiscal measures to reduce poverty but with no avail. The country has earned about US\$300 billion from oil between 1975 and 2000, but with its per capita income 20 percent lower than it was in 1975 (Anyanwu, Oyefusi, Oaikhenan and

Dimowo, 1997). It grew just at 2.2 percent between 1999 and 2003 (Nigerian National Planning Commission, 2004). There has been record of little change in the national GDP in the new millennium, just as the international tourist arrivals and tourism receipts have improved. By the end 2008, the GDP from tourism sector is expected to be about 5.3 percent, while at present, it is a little above 4 percent (World Bank, 2006). Similarly, Figure 1 shows that international tourist arrival as at 2004 was 964,000 while its receipts stood at US\$21 million. The receipts were US\$123 million in 2000 and US\$97 million in 2001. In the corollary, annual international tourist arrivals for the two years were 805,000 and 810,000 respectively. The fell of figure in tourist arrival between 2000 and 2001 cannot be divorced from the fear of safety arising from different religious, civil and communal conflicts in different parts of the nation (Albert, 2001).

The low records of 420,000 and 405,000 international tourist arrivals in 1995 and 1997 compared with 930,000 and 962,000 of 2003 and 2004 respectively are indications that tourism industry in Nigeria is gaining attention, though not as targeted (World Bank, 2006; World Tourism Organisation, 2000). This perhaps could be why UNICTAD (2005) documented that South Africa has invested a total of US\$1.4 billion in tourism sector in Nigeria. If this trend continues, tourism industry in Nigeria is expected to contribute US\$708 million to the country's GDP by the end of 2008.

The confidence reposed in oil sector has been betrayed by its inability to singly sustain Nigerian economy. It should be noted that the present change in GDP from 2.26 percent in 1999 to about 4.3 percent in 2007 does not guarantee economic stability in the nation. There is a need for decisive, consistent and sustained efforts to lead the country out of economic recession. There is the need to rethink on growth initiating strategies of the use of national natural resources and artifacts that will produce maximum return with minimal economic input. The recorded annual global international tourism arrivals of over 800 million tourists with expenditure of about US\$500 billion (Rogerson, 2007; Aworitefe, 2004) is a lesson for poor countries who possess tourist potentials to transform their economies through tourism.

4. Common Disasters affecting Tourism Industry in Nigeria

Hazards that are disastrous to tourists in Nigeria can either be naturally or artificially induced. It has been observed that the annual average number of people killed and affected by disasters in Nigeria is 96,786 (Siyabade, 2006). This is 0.09 percent of the people killed and affected by disasters in the world. Significant among natural hazards in the country are flood, catastrophic soil erosion, dust storm, drought, epidemics, landslide and extreme weather. Earthquake can be classified among these, though there are no records of its occurrence in Nigeria. Man made hazards, which are more dangerous and sometimes unpredictable in the country, include oil spill, building collapse, bomb explosion, road and air accidents, civil strife and riots, communal, ethnic or religious conflicts, fire outbreak and robbery attack.

Table 3 classifies these hazards and likely places of their occurrences. According to the Table, dust storm, extreme weather, drought and desertification are commonly found in the extreme northern belt of Nigeria. Specifically, they affect States like Borno, Yobe, Sokoto, Kano, Jigawa, Zamfara and Kebbi. Dust storm blows like hurricane wind, carrying dusts and sand particles and can move at a velocity of 20-30 kilometres per hour. To be protected from its effects, tourists can wear sun-shade glasses and hats that are well tight to the head. The best protection is to take refuge in a car or building or turn one's back to it with the two eyes closed before the wind approaches.

Extreme weather can easily be detected through temperature reading as tourists approach hot or cold regions. A simple knowledge of Nigeria's geography and its weather behaviour can be of assistance. Cold season in northern Nigeria could have been tolerable to tourist except for its dryness. Its low humidity dries off moisture on the skin. The effect of this on the skin can be reduced through the use of oily cream. Hot weather is better handled through wearing of light dress. Drought and desertification occur when rain ceases to fall for a long period of time, resulting in drastic fall of humidity. This is less hazardous to casual tourists who do not intend to spend more than a week in the affected tourist centres. Drought is marked with absence of water. Casual tourist who has provided potable water with him in his trips may be less affected by drought's effect.

Catastrophic soil and coastal erosion are common in eastern and coastal belts of Nigeria respectively. Its danger is that one can cave into canyon or deep gully imperceptibly. It is advisable for tourists visiting such regions to contact natives or tourist workers for guide. Earth quake is characterized by earth tremor, soil creep, subsidence and liquefaction among others. Land slide occurs in areas relatively steep and underlain by unstable materials. Visiting sloppy areas in this belt requires a guide. The latter is common in heavy rain forest belt with steep slopes within eastern and south eastern Nigeria.

Flooding is common to nearly every community in Nigeria. It results from increased run-off that reduces the soil's

capacity to absorb. Factors causing this include deforestation, unplanned urban development and poor farming techniques among others. Record shows that at least 20 percent of Nigerian population is prone to flooding annually (Siyanbade, 2006). It is advisable for tourists to stay in an elevated region when rain falls. In Nigeria, seeking information on drainage behaviour of community to be visited can also be of help.

Among the most catastrophic man made hazards in Nigeria are civil strife and riots, communal, ethnic or religious conflicts. Oyerinde (2005) observed that within 2000 and 2005, about 10,000 people were claimed by violent conflicts in the country. In recent times, religious and ethnic crises have been on the increase in the country. Such crises have occurred in Kaduna, Kano, Niger Delta Belt, Ife-Modakeke, Taraba, Bauchi and Ebonyi among others (Fagbemi, 2002). The religious crises that took place in Kaduna alone in February claimed 2000 lives and displaced 80,000 people (Albert, 2001; Ayo, 2002). It is advisable for tourists to obtain information from both local and international news before visiting tourist centres that are located in conflict prone zones in Nigeria. Even where there are no strife, tourists who intend to stay in any of the local community for months should first a pay visit to palace of the traditional ruler of that area, seeking for a guide who can render help where to stay and what to do when necessary. It has been observed that in some parts of Nigeria, because of traditional rulers' long establishment and the respect in which they are held, they make them more effective in controlling their people and pacifying aggrieved parties within his jurisdiction (Blench, Longtau, Hassan and Walsh, 2006). In addition, community leaders in many occasions have prior knowledge of intending conflicts in their zones.

Another common hazard in Nigeria is bomb-blast. Prominent among those cases that have happened in times past was explosions in Ikeja Cantonment Armoury in 2002 which claimed about 800 lives (Oguntokun, 2002). Some of these bomb blasts were hand work of political thugs in the nation. This kind of hazard is hard to predict. As the country is embracing democracy, its occurrence has drastically reduced. Oil spillage is another hazard found in the Niger Delta, Lagos and Ibadan among others (Abegunde *et al*, 2006). There are occasions where oil pipe line passes through residential zone, either in the urban and rural communities in the country. Incessant oil pipe breakage to siphon oil illegally is a growing concern to government in Nigeria. The resultant effects of these are fire outbreak, oil spillage among others. Nigerian government has raised teams of monitoring agents along oil pipe lines throughout the country. Tourists should keep to warnings when visiting oil belt region or areas where oil pipe lines are laid.

Building collapse is common in Nigerian cities than its rural communities. They are more common to structures built by non professionals in building industry. The greed of spending below real cost of construction also account for building collapse. Tourists should lodge in hotels that are of international repute, rather than residing in places whose building structural stabilities are not guaranteed. This is because according to Nigerian Building Code published in 2006, buildings erected in accordance to the provisions in the code are safe for usage. To owners of such buildings, the Code made a provision of issuing certificate of use and habitation (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2006).

Many Nigerian roads are rough, full of potholes. Apart from danger of accident, it provide avenue for greedy policemen to mount roadblocks and collect bribes on the highway. There are high way robbers who also seize the advantage of bad road to rob at nights. Nigerian government is making frantic efforts to clear the roads of hoodlums sanitize the police of corrupt officers. Tourists should avoid inter-city night trips where road surfaces are not good for safe driving.

5. Strategies towards Disaster Risk Reduction in Tourism Communities

Risk identification is the first step towards disaster-proofing development and it includes; assessment of both the hazard (shock or stress) and vulnerabilities and capacities. A network of NGOs in the Philippines found that simply through the process of undertaking a vulnerability assessment, communities became more aware of their risks and how they could address them. This, if available to tourists, will guide their operations, visitations and escape from foreseeable disasters in due time.

Risk reduction activities are essential where hazards are identified and can not be avoided. Where disaster occurs, or has occurred, there is the need to take opportunities to rebuild more resilient livelihoods in the aftermath of disasters (Holzmann and Jorgensen, 2001). There is the need to ensure that risk reduction is strategically integrated within each sector so that general vulnerabilities are reduced and specific hazards are addressed. This will require integration of risk reduction into key planning processes, ensuring that an enabling environment, in terms of governance, is created.

The government is expected to introduce and formalize policies relating to risk management. Government must also support the poor and masses on risk reduction, coping and prevention strategies. One of the ways to accomplish these is education at all levels and public enlightenment on basic risk management strategies peculiar to any given

tourist centre. Disaster planning can be introduced to school curriculums for wider dissemination of the knowledge. This is why Hays, (2006) opined that the best way forward towards the goal of institutionalization of disaster reduction is to focus on the creation of “turning points” within the framework of the decade on education for sustainable development.

Education can be a focal point, particularly at the grassroots level, if it focuses on children’s schooling, adult literacy training, and awareness improvement - aiming at facilitating knowledge and technology transfer - and utilizes existing organizations. Nigerian government need to establish disaster management as a course of study in Nigeria higher institutions. At present, there is no institution that offers such course in the country. In other words, there is dearth of professionals in disaster risk management with specialization to tourism in Nigeria.

An underutilized and effective strategy in modern times is contingency planning. Contingency planning can be implemented on a wide scale to create major catastrophe scenarios for key population centres in Sub-Saharan Africa. Each scenario should ask the following kinds of questions: (1) What would the disasters look like? (2) What would be necessary in order for the location to survive and recover? (3) Who would end up involved and to what extent? (4) What levels of institutional resources are needed? The import of these is that disaster risk management is a broad task. It requires the joint support of every individual in the nation. Organisations must be ready to work with the government to make disaster risk management a success. Where all these are properly placed, tourism would not only be embraced by tourists anywhere and anytime, communities with tourist attractions would be liberated from economic depression that rules many of the third world nations.

In Nigeria, the body saddled with this responsibility is called National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA). It has its base in Abuja -the capital seat of Nigerian government. The first showed concern for disaster management in Nigeria was 1976 when the country established a body called National Emergency Relief Agency (NERA) via Decree 48 (Alabi and Ugbelase, 2004). Being a relief organization, its focus was on the distribution of materials to victims of disasters. In 1999, the government of Nigeria, through Decree 12 replaced NERA with NEMA to allow the body to coordinate emergency and prepare disaster management plan.

The body among others was to conduct researches on disaster, monitor the state of preparedness of all organizations that may contribute to disaster management, and educate the public on disaster. In addition, NEMA was to collect data from relevant agencies on issues directly or indirectly related to disaster planning and link Nigeria with international organizations on disaster planning and management. At present, arms of NEMA have been established at state/regional level, and in the next few years will be represented at every local government of the country (Fagbemi, 2002). The body also has a website (<http://www.nema.gov.ng>) where pieces of information on disasters in Nigeria are published to guide tourists.

Past works of NEMA were reflected in their interventions in different disasters that have occurred in the nations. These include rescuing of lives and property during plane crash, flooding, fire outbreak, oil pipe bursting, bomb blast to mention but few. Such incidences include Bellview Air line plane crash in 2005, religious riots in Kano and Kaduna in 2000 and 2002 respectively, oil pipe line fire disaster in Lagos in 2006 and bomb blast in Lagos in 2002 among others (Siyabade, 2006). Many of these disasters would have had less effect on affected people if every resident is aware of what to do when disaster strikes. In other words, NEMA has the assignment of enlightening the public on disaster preparedness and management.

Disaster demands urgency. The public in their local and indigenous strategies may not be well equipped to cope with modern disasters (such as fire from busted oil pipe line) before officials in disaster risk management office arrives at scene. The knowledge of how to avoid hazards causing disasters is very urgent in Nigeria. This is an integral aspect of risk management in disaster planning (Skidmore, 2001; Dominica Commonwealth of Dominica, 1998). Along this line, Nigeria has advocated for tree planting since late 1970s. Impacts of this can be seen in trees planted in capital cities of some northern States in Nigeria. These include Kano, Sokoto and Abuja among others. These are expected to serve as afforestation projects against stormy wind, soil erosion and harsh weather in the northern part of the country.

There are wild life reserves created in nearly every State of the country to preserve extinction of wild animals and reduce green house effects. The country also launched satellite into space in 2003 to monitor and predict natural and man-made hazards causing disasters. Reports of this are coordinated by National Space Research and Development Agency (NASRDA). Such reports obtained from satellite are published in the centre’s website for tourists to access all over the globe.

Traditionally, residents in Nigeria are hospitable to strangers. They are also ready to assist others when disaster strikes. Government also has recognized traditional and institutional heads and has been reaching communities via these leaders on security of lives and property. Evidence of this can be seen in the creation of local security bodies that are directly concern of their own territory. In Yoruba, there is ‘Odua People’s Congress’ while ‘The Arewa’ was

established in the north. There also exist 'Bakassi Boy's in the east. Informal, community-based strategies will be limited in their capacity to manage disaster risks. Where possible, they will be better-off to prevent than face the huge social demand and economic cost of risk mitigation. Nevertheless, national or international efforts might be more effective in communities with larger stocks of social capital (Wisner 2003).

In Nigerian environment, organizations and government bodies that must work with NEMA on disaster risk management to promote tourism industry include Nigeria Fire Brigade, all bodies that have to do with security of lives and property and Nigerian Airways. Others include all oil corporations, institutional heads, all community based organizations, all banking and insurance institutions among others. There is the need for fire brigade office in every local government and particularly in every tourist centre to arrest fire disaster. Nigeria police and Army should ensure adequate security of lives and properties to tourists by improving on their services to the residents both on the high way and at tourist zones.

The government of Nigeria must give special attention to safety of tourists both on the road and air by upgrading bad roads and airports. The knowledge of disaster risk management should be taken to Nigerian schools and citizens should be carried along with government plans for tourism industry through public enlightenment. Banking and insurance institutions should assist NEMA in funding necessary projects and insuring lives and properties of tourists that formally visit the country respectively. There is the need for institutional and community leaders to work with the government in reaching the populace when necessary, particularly on public enlightenment on disaster risk management. It is when all these are in place that a holistic disaster plan can be prepared for tourists and their impacts positively affecting Nigerian economy.

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Table 1: *Tourism Resources/Destinations Valued by Foreign and Domestic Tourists in Nigeria*

Type/ Destination	FT (%)	DT (%)	FT/DT No.	FT/DT (%)
(A) RESORT TOURISM PLACES				(%)
(i) WATER RESORTS				
1 Makurdi Plaza	6(0.8)	5(0.6)	21	1.18
2 Nike Lake Hotel	2(0.3)	3(0.3)	5	0.28
3 Oguta Lake Hotel	3(0.4)	3(0.3)	16	0.89
4 Orgi River Park	3(0.4)	2(0.2)	5	0.28
5 Abraka River Resort	91(11.6)	41(4.5)	112	6.27
(ii) ECOLOGICAL RESORTS				
6 Sam Health Farms, Idiroko, Lagos	7(0.9)	6(0.7)	13	0.73
7 Whispering Palm, Lagos	10(1.3)	12(1.3)	22	1.23
8 Okada Wonderland	6(0.8)	3(0.3)	9	0.50
9 Nguru Games Village	2(0.3)	1(0.1)	3	206
(B) URBAN TOURISM				
(i) Hotels				
10 Grand Hotel, Asaba	6(0.8)	1(0.1)	7	0.39
11 Lachampague Tropicana, Lagos	1(0.1)	5(0.6)	6	0.34
12 Victoria Garden, Lagos	2(0.3)	4(0.4)	6	0.34
13 Zambissa Hotel, Lagos	-	5(0.6)	5	0.28
14 Zwanda Hotel, Lokoja	-	1(0.1)	1	0.06
15 Ay Guest House, Lokoja	-	1(0.1)	1	0.06
16 Nikon Noga Hotel, Abuja	8(1.0)	15(1.7)	23	1.29
17 Liyafia Hotel, Katsina	-	1(0.1)	1	0.06
18 Country Home Motel, Benin City	2(0.3)	2(0.2)	4	0.22
19 Federal Palace Hotel, Lagos	4(0.5)	1(0.1)	5	0.28
20 Sheranton, Abuja	5(0.6)	6(0.7)	11	0.62
21 Eko Holiday Inn, Lagos	4(0.5)	2(0.5)	6	0.34
(ii) AMUSEMENT PARKS/CLUB HOUSES				
22 Abuja Golf Club	1(0.1)	4(0.4)	5	0.28
23 Ikoyi Club, Lagos	2(0.3)	1(0.1)	3	0.17
24 Amusement Park Lagos	3(0.4)	4(0.4)	7	0.39
25 Apapa Club, Lagos	2(0.3)	1(0.1)	3	0.17
26 Rugby Club, Kaduna	1(0.1)	1(0.1)	2	0.17
(iii) ANCIENT/COLONIAL TOWNS AND FEATURES				
27 Lokoja Town	-	1(0.1)	1	0.06
28 Port-Harcourt	8(1.0)	5(0.6)	13	0.73
29 Calabar	4(0.1)	1(0.1)	5	0.28
30 Enugu	2(0.3)	-	2	0.11
31 Cocoa House, Abuja	3(0.4)	2(0.2)	5	0.28
32 Ikoyi Cementary, Lagos	3(0.4)	2(0.2)	5	0.28
33 Bonny Island	-	2(0.2)	2	0.11
34 New Bussa	2(0.3)	-	2	0.11
(C) CULTURAL/HISTORIC TOURISM				
(i) MUSEUM				
35 Kano Museum	24(3.1)	12(1.3)	36	2.02
36 Jos Museum	60(4.3)	14(4.4)	74	4.15
37 Benin Museum	25(3.27)	2(0.2)	27	1.51
38 National Museum, Lagos	9(1.2)	2(0.2)	11	0.62
(ii) HISTORIC/ARCHEOLOGICAL FEATURES				
39 Esie Stone, Kwara State	1(0.1)	-	1	0.06
40 Obas Palace, Benin-City	4(0.5)	1(0.1)	5	0.28
41 Mary Selessor's Grave, Calabar	1(0.1)	-	1	0.06
42 Emotan Status, Benin-City	4(0.5)	-	4	0.22
43 Sura Market, Lagos	3(0.4)	-	3	0.17
44 Igbo-Ukwu Terra Kota	7(0.9)	3(0.3)	10	0.56

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- 45 Kano Wall
- 46 Koma Village, Gongola State
- 47 Mongo Park Tomb, Bussa
- 48 Lugard House, Lokoja
- 49 Isaac Boro Park, Port-Harcourt

(iii) CULTURAL FEATURES/FESTIVALS

- 50 Igwe Festival, Benin-City
- 51 Agungu Fishing Festival
- 52 Tuk Ham Festival, Kwoi, Kaduna
- 53 Port-Harcourt Cultural Centre
- 54 Trade Fair Complex, Lagos
- 55 Oni of Ife Palace
- 56 Sultan of Sokoto Palace

(D) NATURE/ECOTOURISM/PARKS/ZOO

(i) ECOTOURISM/NATURE TOURISM

- 57 Yankari Games Reserve
- 58 Kainji Lake Reserve
- 59 Obudu Ranch
- 60 Gashaka – Gumti Reserve
- 61 Chad Basin Reserve
- 62 Borgu Games Reserve
- 63 Okomu Games Reserve
- 64 Hadejia-Ngura Wetland
- 65 Ossissa Forest Reserve
- 66 NIFOR, Benin-City
- 67 Rejemu Games Village
- 68 Bembo Games Village
- 69 Sambissa Games Reserve

(ii) PARKS/ZOO

- 70 National Park, Abuja
- 71 Ibadan Amusement Park
- 72 Old Oyo National Park
- 73 Kayayi Park
- 74 Ibadan Zoo
- 75 Katsina National Park
- 76 Isaac Bam Park, Port-Harcourt
- 77 Cross River National Park, Oban
- 78 Cross River National Park, Okwango
- 79 Ogba Zoo, Benin-City
- 80 Enugu Zoo
- 81 Makurdi Zoo
- 82 Ilorin Park

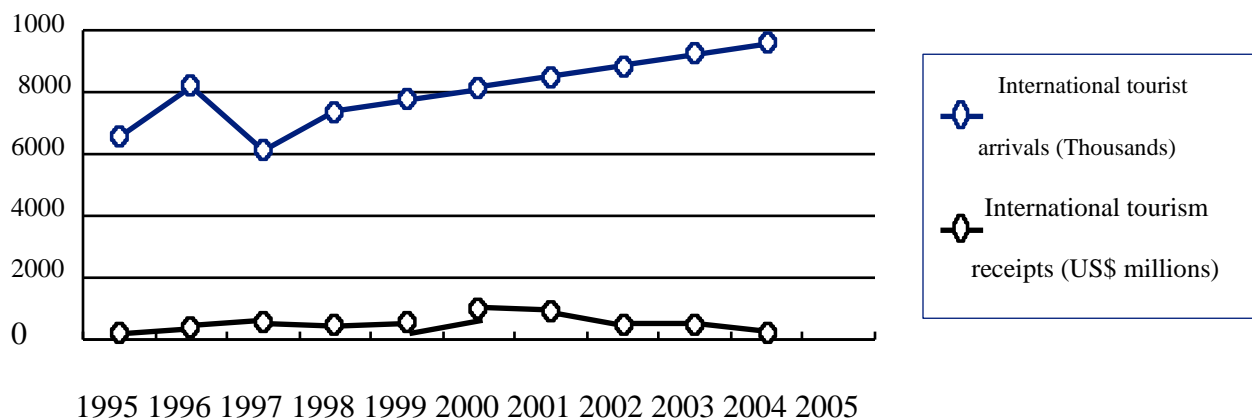
(E) ADVENTURE TOURISM

- 83 Jos Plateau/Sherrt Hills
- 84 Mambila Plateau
- 85 Zuma Rock
- 86 Ogbenike Cave
- 87 Olomo Rock
- 88 Udi Hills, Enugu
- 89 Gembu Plateau
- 90 Umudike Cave
- 91 Enugu Coal Mine
- 92 Idanre Hills
- 93 Aso Rock, Abuja
- 94 Itakpe Hill
- 95 Bakassi Peninsula
- 96 Shiroro Dam

Table 3: The Prevailing Hazards in Nigeria

S/N	Hazards	Area Most Affected
	Natural	Man-Made
1.	Drought and desertification	Sudan-sahel Belt (Borno, Yobe, Jigawa, Kano, Bauchi, Adamawa, Kastina, Zamfara and Kebbio States)
2.	Flooding	Coastal beit, Flood Plains of major rivers,
3.	Catastrophic soil erosion	Enugu, Anambra, Imo, Abia, Ondo, Ekiti, Akwa-Ibom, Ebonyi States.
4.	Destructive Storms	All States
5.	Dust Storms	Sudan-Shahel Belt
6.	Coastal Erosion	Lagos, Ondo, Delta, Rivers, Akwa-Ibom, Bayeisa and Cross River States.
7.	Earth Tremors	South Western States
8.	Pest invasion	All States
9.	Human disease epidemic	All States
10.	Animal disease epidemic	All States
11.		Dam failure
12.		Building collapse
13.		Oil spillage
14.		Land, Water and Air
		Transport accident
15.		Bomb Explosion
16.		Civil strike
17.		Fire Disaster
18.		Wildfires

Source: Adapted from Siyanbade (2006)



International tourist arrivals (1,000), 2004962

International tourism receipts (US\$ millions), 200421
Figure 1: International Tourist Arrivals and Receipts in Nigeria (1995-2004)
Source: Adapted from United Nations World Tourism Organization (2006)

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These authors have been well cited in this study. Of significance among others are:

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