THE INFLUENCE OF TERRORIST ACTIVITIES ON INTERNATIONAL TOURISM IN KENYA BETWEEN 2008-2018:

A case study of Travellers Beach Botel, Mombasa County.

BY

TERRY N. GACAU

UNITED STATES INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY - AFRICA

SUMMER, 2019
THE INFLUENCE OF TERRORIST ACTIVITIES ON INTERNATIONAL TOURISM IN KENYA BETWEEN 2008-2018

A CASE STUDY OF TRAVELLERS BEACH HOTEL, MOMBASA COUNTY.

BY

TERRY N. GACAU

STUDENT NO: 645717

A Thesis Submitted to the School of Humanities and Social Sciences (SHSS) in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirement for the Award of Masters of Arts Degree in International Relations

UNITED STATES INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY - AFRICA

SUMMER, 2019
DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this is my original work and has not been submitted to any other college, institution or university other than the United States International University in Nairobi for academic credit.

Signed: ___________________________ Date: ___________________________

Terry N. Gacau (654717)

Student

This thesis has been presented for examination with my approval as the appointed supervisor.

Signed: ___________________________ Date: ___________________________

Dr. Fatuma Ahmed Ali

Supervisor

Signed: ___________________________ Date: ___________________________

Prof. Martin C. Njoroge

Dean, School of Humanities and Social Sciences (SHSS)

Signed: ___________________________ Date: ___________________________

Ambassador Prof. Ruthie Rono

Deputy Vice Chancellor, Academic and Student Affairs (DVCASA)
DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my family and friends for their help and tirelessness support throughout the whole process.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and foremost, I would like to thank God Almighty for giving me the knowledge, ability and opportunity to undertake this research study and complete it satisfactorily. Without his blessings, this achievement would not have been possible.

I would also like to express my sincere gratitude to my Supervisor, Dr. Fatuma Ahmed Ali for the continuous support in writing of this thesis and for her patience, enthusiasm, and immense knowledge. God Bless You.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION .......................................................................................................................... ii
DEDICATION ........................................................................................................................... iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT ........................................................................................................... iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS .......................................................................................................... iv
LIST OF TABLES ..................................................................................................................... vi
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS .................................................................................................... vii
ABSTRACT ............................................................................................................................. viii

CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION ................................................................. 1
1.0 Introduction ....................................................................................................................... 1
1.1 Background of the Study ............................................................................................... 2
1.2 Statement of the Problem ............................................................................................. 7
1.3 Objectives of the Study ............................................................................................... 8
1.4 Research Questions ...................................................................................................... 8
1.5 Significance of the Study ............................................................................................ 8
1.6 Scope of the Study ....................................................................................................... 9
1.7 Theoretical Framework .............................................................................................. 9
1.8 Organization of the Study ......................................................................................... 15

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW ...................................................................... 16
2.0 Introduction .................................................................................................................... 16
2.1 Overview of Terrorism .............................................................................................. 16
2.2 Overview of International Tourism ........................................................................... 19
2.3 Terrorist Attacks and International Tourism ............................................................. 25
2.4 Terrorist Kidnappings and International Tourism ..................................................... 32
2.5 Predominant Challenges in Fighting Terrorism ......................................................... 37
2.6 Literature Gap ........................................................................................................... 62

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY ......................................................................... 64
3.0 Introduction .................................................................................................................... 64
3.1 Research Design ........................................................................................................ 64
3.2 Population and Sampling .......................................................................................... 64
3.3 Data Collection Methods .......................................................................................... 66
3.4 Research Procedures ............................................................................................... 67
3.5 Data Analysis Methods ............................................................................................. 68
3.6 Diagnostic Tests ........................................................................................................ 69
3.7 Ethical Consideration ............................................................................................... 70
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Target Population ................................................................. 30
Table 2 Cronbach’s Alpha Test Results ............................................... 38
Table 3 Distribution of Respondents by Age ....................................... 39
Table 4 Frequency Distribution of Respondents by Education Qualification ......................................................... 40
Table 5 Frequency Distribution of Respondents by Tenure .................... 41
Table 6 Response on Terrorist Suicide Attacks .................................... 42
Table 7 Response on Terrorist Kidnappings ........................................ 45
Table 10 Response on Terrorist Threats ............................................. 48
Table 11 Response on Predominant Challenges in Fighting Terrorism .... 49
Table 13 Model Summary .................................................................. 52
Table 14 ANOVA .............................................................................. 52
Table 15 Coefficients ........................................................................ 53
Table 16 Spearman’s Correlation Coefficients ..................................... 54
Table 17 Coefficients ........................................................................ 55
Table 18 Normality Test for full Sample ............................................. 56
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CT</td>
<td>Counter Terrorism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GWOT</td>
<td>Global War on Terror</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRA</td>
<td>Irish Republican Army</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISIS</td>
<td>Islamic State of Iraq and Syria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KDF</td>
<td>Kenyan Defence Forces</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCTC</td>
<td>National Counter Terrorism Center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NSA</td>
<td>National Security Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLO</td>
<td>Palestine Liberation Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TBH</td>
<td>Travellers Beach Hotel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSA</td>
<td>Transportation Security Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USDOJ</td>
<td>United States Department of Justice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WTO</td>
<td>World Trade Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WTTC</td>
<td>World Travel Tourism Council</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ABSTRACT

This study sought to examine the influence of terrorist activities on international tourism in Kenya between 2008-2018: A case study of Travellers Beach Hotel, Mombasa County. The study was guided by the following specific objectives: to determine the effect of terrorist suicide attacks on international tourism in Kenya; to establish the effect of terrorist kidnappings on international tourism in Kenya; and to determine the predominant challenges in fighting terrorism in Kenya.

The investigation utilized a questionnaire as the principle instrument to accumulate essential information. Owing to the small number of staff members in the hotel, the study conducted a census of all the 125 members to interview the following categories of individuals: directors, operations managers, waiters, managers and security personnel. Data was analysed using Descriptive Analysis, Pearson’s Simple Correlation Analysis as well as Panel Regression Analyses.

The findings of this study showed that terrorist activities affect the cost of operating tourist business. The study has determined that dissident groups have become more active and more established at the coastal region and they use kidnappings of tourists and business people to support and fund their activities through ransom payments. The study has established that terrorist threats issued in the last one year in Mombasa County has seen cancellation of international trips to Kenya. The study has noted that inadequate procedures laid out all over the hotel sector on how to react in case of a terrorist attack on the hotel as a challenge in fighting terrorism.

The study concluded that tourist-kidnapping incidents are a key contributing factor to the decline in international arrivals at the coastal region. Poor enactment and effective implementation of anti-terrorism kidnapping laws is also a challenge in the fight against terror.

The study recommends countries to collaborate with other nations on war against terror attacks so to create a positive image to the international travellers. It is also recommended that terror threats or incidents should not be allowed considerable media attention. The study recommends governments to have well-trained and honest security forces committed to serving justice through established legal means as a way to combat terrorism.
CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

International tourism refers to tourism that crosses national borders (Lanzillota, 2016). Globalization\(^1\) has made international tourism a popular global leisure activity. Curry (2016) defines tourists as people "traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes. Seetanah (2018) estimates that up to 500,000 people are in flight at any one time. Modern aviation has made it possible to travel long distances quickly. However, as a result of the late-2000s recession, international travel demand suffered a strong slowdown from the second half of 2008 through the end of 2009 (Teal, 2017). This negative trend intensified during 2009, exacerbated in some countries due to terror attacks\(^2\), resulting in a worldwide decline of 4.2\% in 2009 to 880 million international tourists’ arrivals, and a 5.7\% decline in international tourism receipts. In 2010, international tourism reached US$919B, growing 6.5\% over 2009, corresponding to an increase in real terms of 4.7\% (Urga, 2018). In 2010, there were over 940 million international tourist arrivals worldwide (Shakour, 2017). Be that as it may, the threat of terrorism remains the key challenge for a sustainable international tourism in the world and particularly Kenya where several terrorist attacks, suicide attacks and kidnappings have happened in the last one decade (Nategian, 2016). Tourists and international visitors are at great risk of being victims of terrorism in the cities they visit. It is against this background that the current study tries to examine the influence of terrorist activities on international tourism in Kenya between 2008-2018; using the case study of Travellers...
Beach Hotel, Mombasa County.

1.1 Background of the Study

Terrorism in the past decade has become both a national issue and international issue that require immediate attention due to its intensity. While numerous natural and human-caused disasters can significantly impact the flow of tourists\(^3\), the threat of danger that accompanies terrorism tends to intimidate potential tourists more severely (Melo, 2014). The fear of random terrorist attacks\(^3\) is not anything new, but the heightened attention it has commanded can be traced back to the 11th September 2001 terrorists’ attacks in the United States of America (USA) (Yaya, 2014). According to Tichy (2014), terrorism and tourism literature has several foci: terrorists’ motives for targeting tourists or the industry; impacts of terrorism on tourism demand; and possible solutions for tourists to help minimize their risks. Terrorism\(^4\) dates back to at least 6AD when Jewish patriots opposed to Roman rule in Palestine, organized under the name of Zealots and launched a terrorist campaign to drive the Romans out of Palestine (Schlagheck, 2014).

Terrorism recurred from 116-117 A.D. and again from 132-135 A.D. until the Jewish population was driven out of Rome. The term did not officially enter political vocabulary until the 18th century, when Edmund Burke criticized the “reign of terror” following the 1792-94 French Revolution, when the French government used systematic terror to intimidate and eliminate its enemies (Murphy, 2013). International terrorism increased rapidly during the late 1960s and early 1970s; and after a brief lull in activity, the 1980s began and ended with terrorist violence (Cassimon, 2015). Comparatively, fewer terrorist incidents have been recorded for the first half of the 90s; however, their

---

\(^3\) A person who is travelling or visiting a place for pleasure (Barney, 2016).
nature and magnitude are not easily comparable to those of past years' events as indicated by the US Department of State, and the overall threat of terrorism remains very serious (Melo, 2014).

Persistent terrorism in some countries tarnishes the destination's positive image and even jeopardizes its entire tourism business (Eichler, 2014). Therefore, tourism suffers in particular when prolonged terrorist attacks affect tourist perceptions and when terrorist organizations specifically target the travel and tourism industry. Richter and Waugh (2015) suggest that terrorists target tourists to achieve strategic objectives and that attacking them can provide terrorists with instrumental advantage by disrupting industry and assuring publicity. Thus, terrorists gravitate toward international tourists and facilities to satisfy their own resource needs. International tourism and terrorism are paradoxically connected via their mutual characteristics such as both crossing national borders, both involve citizens of different countries, and they both utilize travel and communications technologies (Schlagheck, 2013).

There is a relationship between terrorism and tourism but it is not simple (Peteraf, 2017). Terrorism does not seem to have a big impact on domestic travel but mostly affects international travelers. If a host country has had widespread media attention to a tourist event, tourism may drop from selected areas. Low level terrorism gradually reduces tourism over a period of time and sudden, vicious attacks have an immediate negative impact (Winter, 2016). The frequency of violence is more important than the severity of terrorist attacks and these attacks have negative economic consequences (Kogut, 2017). The tread of most Western countries has been to issue travel advisories whenever there is perceived threat of terrorist attacks around the world especially in

---

4 Denoting a place that people will make a special trip to visit (Snyder, 2015)
developing countries. International tourist flows depend upon, more than anything else on affluence and security (Harvey, 2016).

Tourism requires security⁵ and insecurity harms tourism. Global tourism operates not only in the larger global economy but also within geopolitics (Frey, 2017). The distribution of global tourists is not random but instead reflects existing global dynamics of power and wealth. As a result when examining the world’s top 10 international tourism spenders over time, one finds all five UN Security Council permanent seat holders being among the top tourist destinations (Brown, 2017). This suggests that tourism flows will continue to reflect the global distribution of power and wealth (Leigh, 2017). Terrorism is taken as “the deliberate creation and exploitation of fear through violence, or the threat of violence, in the pursuit of political change. Certainly many of the most active terrorist groups throughout the 1970s and 1980s disbanded, declared permanent ceasefires or officially recognized their adversary’s legitimacy (Drakos, 2016). Radical left-wing and nationalist groups such as the Irish-Republican-Army (IRA), German Red Army Faction (RAF), Palestinian Liberation Organization (PLO), Italian Brigate Rosse (BR), French Action Directe (AD), and Belgium’s Cellules Communistes Combattantes (CCC) all pursued disengagement (Pizam, 2018). Concurrently, a distinctively disparate form of terrorism appeared to be escalating – one which was not only increasingly brutal and indiscriminate, but seemingly rationalized and coordinated differently (Nanak, 2016). The Oklahoma City bombing by Timothy McVeigh, the Sarin gas attack of Tokyo’s subway by Aum Shinrikyo, and the first World Trade Centre attack all purportedly demonstrated the emergence of potentially catastrophic, hyper-terrorism (Servers, 2016).

⁵ The state of being free from danger or threat (Kwame, 2016).
The terror attacks of September 11, 2001 had an immediate and substantial impact on worldwide travel. The attacks induced substitution away from air travel generally and caused a shift in the preferences of travellers for particular destinations (Hartl, 2015). The United States in particular experienced an immediate and precipitous drop in arrivals of international visitors, particularly from those flying in from overseas.

The terrorist attacks that took place in Brussels in March 2016, with 32 people killed at two different sites and 300 injured reshaped people’s perception of France security and affected international tourists’ behavior (Albu, 2014). Kenya has relied heavily on international tourists in the past, however, following acts of terrorism, such as the bombing of the United States embassy in Nairobi the capital city of Kenya in 1998; the bombing of Paradise beach hotel in Mombasa in 2013, a major city; and a near fatal rocket launched grenade attack on an Israel aircraft in 2002 (Butler, 2014). Consequently, the tourism industry suffered a great blow (Blake, 2016).

Acts of terrorism curtail travel activity until the public’s memories of the publicized events fade; terrorism that targets tourism can be viewed as a major disaster to the destination and the ensuing events can give birth to a serious tourism crisis (Apostolopoulos & Tarlow, 2013). For instance, as a result of the embassy bombing, and the bombing of Paradise Hotel in Kikambala, hotels in Kenya received numerous cancellations (Mwenje, 2015). Western governments, led by the United States, Britain and a number of European countries, issued travel advisories to all their citizens against traveling to Kenya in 2003 (Katana, 2015). The suspension of British Airways regular and charter planes flying to Nairobi, coupled with travel advisories, closed down access to 90% of Kenya's overseas markets (Nzembi, 2014). The country was losing an estimated amount of over 1 billion Kenya shillings ($128 million) per week. In addition to the revenue loss, at stake were over 500,000 direct jobs and another 2.5 million indirect
jobs (Gitu, 2013).

Fuchs (2013) advocate that being safe on vacation is an expected requirement for any visitor in a tourist destination or city. Thus, it has been observed that destinations that develop an unsafe reputation can be substituted by alternative destinations or cities that are perceived as safer for tourists. Crimes and acts of terrorism committed against the travel and tourism industry affect international tourism by damaging the destination or city image and instilling fear in potential tourists. According to Fuchs (2013), even though the threat of terrorism is very much real, due to the incredibly low chance of one being affected by a terrorist incident, the fear of this threat is a reality for today tourists.
1.2 Statement of the Problem

As with many African nations, tourism provides thousands of jobs to local residents in Kenya. Hotel staff, drivers, cooks, tour guides and airport personnel are all directly employed by the multi-billion-dollar industry (Watene, 2014). Tourism in Kenya is a source of foreign exchange and income for the government and helps reduce dependence on other sectors such as agriculture, which are subject to weather and market conditions that can often be unpredictable. In addition, tourism, more so international tourism provides an opportunity for good relations between countries (Okello, 2014). Key government interactions lead to business opportunities and development partnerships that are beneficial for both countries involved, especially the less financially able 3rd world countries (Sanders, 2014). Maintaining good international ties fosters a kinship that allows Kenya to develop in ways that would otherwise have been difficult to access.

According to the World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC, 2014), the total contribution of Travel and Tourism to Kenya’s GDP was KES 462.8 billion (12.1% of GDP) in 2013 and is forecast to rise by 3.1% to KES 477.1 billion in 2014. It is expected to rise by 5.2% per annum to KES 791.4 billion in 2024 (11.8% of GDP). However, in recent years, Kenya and its people have witnessed a surge in terrorist activities whereby the tourism industry has felt the impact of terrorist attacks the most.

However, limited studies have attempted to explain the influence of terrorist activities on the performance of international tourism industry in Kenya; hence the knowledge gap that this study seeks to fill. There are reports that Terrorism in Kenya has negatively affected the tourism industry leading to closure of hotels and massive job losses. This research examined terrorism and its impact on the Kenya’s tourism industry, and the challenges Kenya face in the war against terrorism.
1.3 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study was to examine the influence of terrorist activities on international tourism in Kenya between 2008-2018: Using the case study of Travellers Beach Hotel, Mombasa County.

The following specific objectives guided the study:-

1. To determine the effects of terrorist attacks on international tourism in Kenya.
2. To establish the effect of terrorist kidnappings\(^6\) on international tourism in Kenya.
3. To determine the predominant challenges in fighting terrorism in Kenya.

1.4 Research Questions

1. What is the effect of terrorist attacks on international tourism in Kenya?
2. What is the effect of terrorist kidnappings on international tourism in Kenya?
3. What are the predominant challenges in fighting terrorism in Kenya?

1.5 Significance of the Study

The study will benefit the owners of hotels at the coastal region and within the country by helping them assess how terrorism activities may impact the hospitality sector in general both in the short run and in the long run, and the findings may help them implement certain strategies in case of a security threat.

The study will bring into perspective the policy gaps in security within the tourism industry especially at the coastal region and this may help to improve and formulate better security policies that maintain and increase the number of tourist arrivals into the country as well as find solutions to security challenges that are affecting the sector.

In future, other researchers and scholars may seek to extend further studies on

---

\(^6\) The action of abducting someone and holding them captive (Amit, 2015).
impact of terrorist activities on international tourism in Kenya. This study is therefore important to future researchers as may be used as a source for future references and citation to improve the body of knowledge in this field of terror and tourism.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study was limited to influence of terrorist activities on international tourism in Kenya between 2008-2018. More than 20 terrorist attacks have happened on the Kenyan soil in the last one decade alone. Hence the motivation for this period in the current study. The target population of the study being the 125 employees of the Travellers Beach Hotel (TBH) located along Malindi Road, Bamburi sub-locations in Mombasa County. Established in the year 2012, Travellers Beach Hotel is a world class beach resort and one of the four star hotels found at the coastal region. The hotel enjoys both local and foreign tourists (Travellers Beach Hotel, 2017), hence the motivation behind choosing the hotel. The study took a period of 3 months to be completed starting April to July 2019.

1.7 Theoretical Framework

This section provides a discussion of the theory guiding the study. This section seeks to explain the theory that is relevant for this study. The study will adopt the instrumental theory of terrorism and globalization theory of terrorism. According to an instrumental theory, the act of terrorism is an intentional choice by a political actor (Crenshaw, 2013). The organization as a unit acts to achieve collective values which involve radical changes in political and social conditions. Terrorism is interpreted as a response to external stimuli, particularly government actions. An increase in the cost or a decrease in the reward for violence will decrease the likelihood of violence (Davinci, 2014). The second theory focuses on internal organizational processes of the terrorist group or among organizations sharing similar objectives. Terrorism is explained in terms
of the organization's struggle for survival, usually within a competitive environment. Leaders ensure organizational maintenance by offering varied incentives to followers (Nakwenye, 2015). Leaders seek to prevent both defection and dissent by developing intense loyalties among group members. The organization responds to pressure from outside by changing the incentives offered to members or through innovation. Both of these theories offer approaches to understanding terrorism that have policy implications, and both have some empirical foundation. It may be that a combination of the two theories is needed to analyze terrorist actions, or it is possible that some terrorist organizations more closely fit the globalization theory, while others are more powerfully influenced by organizational politics (instrumental theory). The following section is a detailed discussion of the two theories:

1.7.1. Instrumental Theory of Terrorism

David E. Long (2011) in the Instrumental Theory of Terrorism argues that terrorism comprises acts resulting from premeditated decisions of political actors such as terrorists. The terrorist organization is conceived as acting to attain political ends. According to this theory terrorism is a means to realize political ends. Thus, Governments and other actors domestically and internationally are viewed by terrorists as contenders who take actions in a strategic manner. Terrorist groups therefore set out to change these actors’ policies, activities, and decisions with the use of force (Owen 2017).

This theory defines terrorism as a deliberate action targeted at changing governments’ policies; the decision-making mechanism of terrorist organizations bases its logic on cost benefit analysis, they evaluate the cost and benefits of their actions (Owen 2017). The success of terrorism according to this theory is the attainment of political objectives of the group in question. While proponents of this theory including Crenshaw (2011) argue that rarely terrorist organization attains their objectives, because
state is more powerful and it has multiple ways of dealing with the terrorist organization. He further explains that the survival of the terrorist organizations is a success in itself. As such, terrorist groups that are able to survive destruction from powerful and stronger state by attracting widespread recognition and publicity as one of it tactics.

This supports the theory’s argument since terrorists have been able to cause political change irrespective of their failure to achieve the definitive political goal. This theory captures fragmentation of terrorist groups into factions as one of the survival mechanism. Factions like those observed in groups like IRA, PLO, and Al-Qaeda are a consequence of disagreements between the group’s members on political ends, differences in ideology or even the success or lack of it in achieving the end goal (Hannan, 2015).

In perspective of instrumental theory, terrorism is seen as intentional (Menachem, 2014). Terrorism is a means to a political end. Government and adversary are analyzed as if engaged in a typical conflict, in which each party's actions are aimed at influencing the behavior of the other. The classic works on the strategy of conflict, such as those by Schelling (2013), suggest that terrorism is one form of violent coercion, a bargaining process based on the power to hurt and intimidate as a substitute for the use of overt military force. As such, it is similar to other strategies based on 'the power to hurt' rather than conventional military strength (Hirschman, 2014). Terrorism is meant to produce a change in the government's political position, not the destruction of military potential. The non-state organization using terrorism is assumed to act on the basis of calculation of the benefit or value to be gained from an action, the costs of the attempt and of its failure, the consequences of inaction, or the probability of success (Schlomo, 2013).

Terrorist actions may occur for several reasons: the value sought is overwhelmingly important; the costs of trying are low; the status quo is intolerable; or the probability of succeeding (even at high cost) is high (Rand, 2015). Extremist groups may act out of
anticipation of reward or out of desperation, in response to opportunity or to threat. The Instrumental Theory of Terrorism is thus suitable for this study as it explains the publicity motive behind terrorist targeting of tourists more so international tourists. It also explains why terrorists attack the economic nerve of a government whether by attacking the tourism industry which contributes significantly to the GDP or other economic interests. If terrorists can cause the government to hurt economically, it is a sure way of forcing the government to change its policy towards the objectives of the organization.

1.7.2 Globalization Theory

Globalization is the process of interaction and integration among people, companies, and governments worldwide (Steger, 2016). As a complex and multifaceted phenomenon, globalization is considered by some as a form of capitalist expansion which entails the integration of local and national economies into a global, unregulated market economy. Globalization has grown due to advances in transportation and communication technology (Gutall, 2015). With the increased global interactions comes the growth of international trade, ideas, and culture. Globalization is primarily an economic process of interaction and integration that's associated with social and cultural aspects. However, conflicts and diplomacy are also large parts of the history of globalization, and modern globalization (Guyford, 2014).

Globalization theory is associated with the works of Rosenberg (2015) which provides a robust introduction to the complex topic of terrorism. The basic assumption of the theory is that globalization contributes to dreams, fantasies, and rising expectations, but at the same time, it leads to dashed hopes, broken dreams, and unfulfilled achievements (Rawding, 2014).
According to the theory, terrorism breeds in the gap between expectations and achievements. Rich people or nations are seen as wanting power and wealth, and poor people or nations are seen as wanting justice. In brief, the globalization theory holds that if the oppressed and disgruntled poor people of the world were simply given the chance to find peaceful means for achieving justice, terrorism would not thrive. Krugman (2014) in an attempt to explain globalization also tried to show how trade is altered when markets are not perfectly competitive and production of specific products possess economies of scale. Krugman (2014) focused on two types of economies of scales that is; internal and external economies of scale.

Putting the globalization theory into perspective with Kenyan situation, for instance Khanna (2015) argues that the Al-Shabaab keeps on directing terroristic attacks in Kenya due to the fact that there is Kenya military presence in Somalia. In this perspective Mugambi (2014) states that the Kenyan military is a part of the cause of the attacks. International tourism sector in the country then in turn suffer due to the attacks directed at Kenya by the Al-Shaabab (Sepetu, 2015). The total costs of the tourism business operations in the country increase as a result of increase in operational costs which in turn leads the businesses to increase their cost of products and services reducing their profit margin (Kinyanjui, 2013).

This theory tries to bring the idea under this topic of study but there are a few limitations. The first limitation being that it does not fully explain the effects of terrorism on hotels in the tourism industry but effect of international businesses generally. The theory also fails to address mitigation measures as a result of terrorist attacks on businesses. Globalization affects both terrorism and peaceful trade. This is so because technical innovation and the expansion of markets know no morality (Betts, 2014). There is no discrimination between “good” and “bad” products, “good” and “bad” production
techniques, or “good” and “bad” forms of investment (Schelling, 2014).

Subsequently, the benefits globalization offers are not limited to private production and trade. Instead the production, trade and information sharing within and amongst terrorist groups has also profited from the IT-revolution, trade liberalisation and the changes in the international market for news (Mickolus, 2014). While terrorists benefit from globalisation in form of higher effectivity, i.e. damage per attack, tourism sector face higher risks and rapidly increasing deterrence costs (Brookings, 2014). Only the systematic analysis of the interaction between firm’s international investment (strategies) and terrorist activities allows clarifying the vulnerability of a firm, and assessing the trade-offs between usual (competition driven) and deterrence strategies (Glenn, 2013).

In the globalized world, terrorists do no longer have to travel to firm’s home base, but attacking a subsidiary is enough (Schmid, 2014). For instance, for attacking a much frowned upon market such as the financial or oil market one does no longer have to travel to New York or London, or to attack the OPEC headquarter in Vienna. Diversification, increasing foreign direct investment and the internationalization of production and supply chains brings potential targets closer to the home base of terrorist groups where they enjoy a strategic advantage (Handel, 2013).

To aim at safe havens or to keep strategic options would be a remedy. To relocate production and areas of operation to regions with a low general level of terrorist hazard is one way to keep the risk at bay, yet implies that factor cost and competitive advantages can no longer be exploited (Zollo, 2014). Another way is to switch production into other, safer lines of business causing underinvestment in high risk but otherwise profitable sectors. International tourism business is an illustrative case (Selten, 2015). The globalization theory was important in this study as it helped to highlight the cause of
terrorists’ attack on businesses as well as the effects of terrorists’ attacks on the total costs of the business (Chauhan, 2014).

1.8 Organization of the Study

This study was organized into five chapters. Chapter one is the introduction to the study. This chapter contains the Background to the Study, Problem Statement, The Specific Objectives, Literature Review, Justification of Research, Theoretical Framework, Hypotheses, Methodology of Research, Scope and Limitations of Study, and Chapter Outline. Chapter two was focused on the Literature review. While chapter three is the methodology aspects of the study, such as, the research design, population sampling and data collection methods. Chapter four deals with data analysis and findings. This chapter focused on data analysis and presentation of the results guided by the questionnaire responses. Chapter five is the summary of the research providing a conclusion and recommendations based on the research findings.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

Chapter two analyzed the influence of terrorist activities on international tourism activities in Kenya. This was achieved by reviewing existing empirical evidence in perspective of the study variables which include: terrorist suicide attacks; terrorist kidnappings; terrorist threats; and predominant challenges in fighting terrorism, lastly synopsis of the literature review.

2.1 Overview of Terrorism

Terrorism has been a difficult concept to define given the social complexities involved. Definitions can legitimize repressive state power and delegitimize peaceful struggles for justice and peace (Tang, 2014). Interpretations may justify violence that would never be acceptable in normal circumstances, or they may encourage actions from a violent group that randomly murders innocent victims under the banner of political revolution (Jimg, 2016). Terrorism has changed over the course of history where violent activity called terrorism at one point in time is called war, liberation, or crime in another period of history.

Terrorism is not a physical entity that has dimensions to be measured, weighed and analyzed but it is a social construct defined by different people within vacillating social and political realities (White, 2014). Globally, modern terrorism originated from the French Revolution (1789-1799) used to describe the actions of the French government. By 1848 it was employed to describe violent revolutionaries who revolted against governments and later on it was used to describe several groups like labor organizations, anarchists and nationalistic groups revolting against foreign powers (Scarper, 2015).

After World War II (1939-1945) the meaning of terrorism changed again as
nationalistic groups revolting against European domination of the world (Lin, 2013). According to Worrell (2016), the modern age of Terrorism began in 1972 at the Munich Summer Olympic games when a group of Palestinians called Black September murdered 11 Israeli athletes and one German police officer. Black September marked the forcible intersection of political terrorism with the information revolution, ushering in what was to be known as the age of terrorism. Jorda (2015) noted that an estimated international television audience of some 900 million from more than 100 countries looked on, transfixed, as the violent drama played out. The Palestinian cause was squarely on the map, demonstrating the power of the media to propagate the violent message of terrorism to a worldwide audience.

The events of 11th September 2001 (9/11) served as a wake-up call to the world that transnational terrorism poses grave risks (Ivanov, 2015). The four simultaneous hijackings represent watershed terrorist incidents for a number of reasons. First, the deaths associated with 9/11 were unprecedented whose human toll was equal to the number of deaths from transnational terrorism from the start of 1988 through the end of 2000. Second, the losses associated with 9/11 topped $80 billion and caused insurance companies to end automatic coverage of terrorist induced losses (Stabler, 2014).

Third, 9/11 showed that ordinary objects can be turned into deadly weapons with catastrophic consequences. Despite the huge carnage of 9/11, the death toll could have been higher had the planes struck the towers at a lower floor. Fourth, 9/11 underscored the objectives of today’s fundamentalist terrorists to seek maximum casualties and to cause widespread fear, unlike the predominantly left-wing terrorist campaigns of the 1970s and 1980s that sought to win over a constituency (Pizzolon, 2015).

Fifth, 9/11 mobilized a huge reallocation of resources for fighting terror worldwide. Sixth, protective actions taken by rich developed countries have transferred some attacks
against these countries’ interests to poorer countries for instance the post 9/11 attacks in Indonesia, Morocco, Kenya, Saudi Arabia, Turkey and elsewhere (Sandler, 2014). The September 11 attacks in the United States and the subsequent world of international terrorism have ushered in a new style of conflict (Nciah, 2014). Religious extremists are not attacking state power; they are attacking the idea of Western particularly American culture. This war is with a global system that they fear and hate and they resist being included in an economic arrangement they resent. When the ideology of domestic terrorism is examined, similar types of concerns emerge. Modern terrorism is aimed at the infrastructure of everyday life and the symbols that define that structure (Jimenez, 2016). Since the 9/11 terror attacks in the US the famous assertion that ‘you are either with us or you are with the terrorists’ being seen to be joining the US alliance on Global War on Terrorism (GWOT) has become an important part of gaining or retaining Western support for many developing states (Fisher, 2013).

The effect of this kind of donor attitude was best exemplified when the US Government was applying pressure on Kenya to pass the Anti-Terrorism Bill back in 2006 which had been rejected by parliament. The bill was largely rejected on the basis of lacking religious and cultural sensitivities and its failure to respect human rights (Cortes, 2014). This was largely seen as a lack of willingness on the part of the Government to cooperate with its Western allies to fight terror leading to reinforced positions and perceptions of lack of capacity to guarantee security to foreign tourists resulting in travel advisories (Fisher, 2013).
Table 2.1: Number of people injured or killed in recent terrorist attacks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>City</th>
<th>Perpetrator</th>
<th>Fatalities</th>
<th>Injured</th>
<th>Target Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>02/04/2015</td>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Garissa</td>
<td>Al Shabaab</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>05/07/2014</td>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Lamu</td>
<td>Al Shabaab</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>unknown</td>
<td>Citizens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28/09/2013</td>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
<td>Al Shabaab</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28/03/2013</td>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Malindi</td>
<td>Al Shabaab</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>unknown</td>
<td>Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>08/11/2013</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>Lahore</td>
<td>Al-Qaida</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20/01/2009</td>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>Guayaquil</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17/10/2001</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>New York</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15/10/2001</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Reno</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11/10/2001</td>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>Nairobi</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Private citizens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>06/10/2001</td>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>Khobar</td>
<td>Unknown</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11/09/2001</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>Shanksville</td>
<td>Al-Qaida</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Private citizens</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GTD website, 2009-2012 National Consortium for the Study of Terrorism and Responses to Terrorism

2.2 Overview of International Tourism

International tourism market has been described as comprising all the transactions whose object is based on tourist’s products (Minciu, 2017). At the same time, the tourism market can be represented by those groups of consumers engaged in tourist’s travels. The tourism industry can be defined as a summation of commercial activities producing tourist’s goods and services (Chang, 2015). International tourism industry has become a major economic sector that generates foreign exchange earnings in most countries. Thus, in perspective of a policy-maker, the impact of international tourism on economic growth is extremely considerable (Khamkaev, 2016).

Since 2008, international tourism accounts for 8% of total export receipts and 5% of GDP of different countries around the world (Lau, 2016). International tourism has been regarded as one of the most important sectors providing an opportunity for economic
growth. Pesaran (2014) mentioned that on average, the countries that are specialized in international tourism demonstrate more rapid growth than others. International tourism specialization is defined as the proportion of tourism receipts in exports (Sequeira & Nunes 2008). A study done by Proenca (2014) shows that international tourism receipts in destinations around the world grew by 3.6% in 2015, in line with the 4.4% increase in international arrivals. For the fourth consecutive year, international tourism grew faster than world merchandise trade, raising tourism’s share in world’s exports to 7% in 2016. The total export value from international tourism amounted to US$ 1.4 trillion (Soukiazis, 2015).

Despite a weak and slow economic recovery, spending on international tourism grew faster in 2015, proving the sector’s relevance in stimulating economic growth, boosting exports and creating jobs for an increasing number of economies worldwide (Başarir, 2014). Lanza (2013) contends that international tourism represents 7% of total world exports and 30% of services exports. According to recent data reported by the World Trade Organization (WTO, 2018), The share of international tourism in overall exports of goods and services increased from 6% to 7% in 2015 as for the fourth consecutive year international tourism outgrew world merchandise trade, which grew 2.8% in 2015. In 2014, Asia and the Pacific (30% share) saw an increase of US$ 16 billion, reaching US$ 377 billion (euro 284 bn) (Algieri, 2015).

The tourism market and the tourism industry are recently driven by numerous factors influencing the demand, like the visitors’ number, the flows’ direction and distribution, and the receipts from domestic and international tourism (Wilkinson, 2014). Due to the fact that the tourism supply is made of goods and services, in other words of tangible and intangible elements, the international tourism market is characterized by complexity (Minciu, 2017). The fact that the tourism, the services and the goods market
interfere with each other is determined by the complex character of the tourist’s product, which, in fact, represents a combination between services and goods (Nedelea, 2016). The international market has a specific characteristic, as well: it is not transparent, which, on its turn, generates peculiarities as far as the competition on the tourism market is concerned. Globalization is an extremely important factor influencing the international tourism from several points of view (Pigliaru, 2014). Homogenization of the consumers’ needs and way of life, the nature of the modern international tourism, as well as, the development of the computer and telecommunication network, all of these have led to an international tourism market, a continuously extending market (Chen, 2015). For example: in 2008, international tourist arrivals grew by 2% to reach 924 million, up to 16 million over 2007 (Levin, 2013). International tourism generated US$ 856 billion (€ 625 billion) in 2007, or 30% of the world’s exports of services. The appearance of a global consumer was identified in relationship with its drivers, such as: global efficiency (global organisations trying to benefit from the mutual features of consumers in order to enhance production, marketing and distribution efficiency) and clients’ convergence (worldwide consumers more and more likely about consumer habits and patterns) (Swarbrooke & Horner, 2017).

Due to several causes and factors, the business environment, in international tourism is in a continuous change (Ngoasong, 2016). This way, the ageing of the population from the developed countries, as well as, the decreasing of the family members’ number, all of these affect, more or less, the entire economy (Choi, 2017). The universally accepted influence of family, religion and of cultural institutions was partially replaced by a new way of thinking, oriented towards ecology and a healthier way of life, which will, clearly, affect the nature of tourism. Konya (2018) Contends that due to the extension of longevity (life duration expectancy), the international tourist’s companies will be more and more interested by older tourists, having a stable income and less family
responsibilities.

Although the growth of population in Europe is almost zero although ever since now, the interest for out-of-borders tourism is great, it is estimated that the demand for international tourist’s travels will increase, as a function of the population’s getting old (Jang, 2014). For example, in Europe, in 1980, approximately 25% was 65 years. It is estimated that, in 2025, this figure will increase with 29.2% (Kim, 2015). Taking into consideration the persons with ages between 55 and 65 years, the number of Europeans being part of the “grown-ups’ market” is of about 100 million (Theobald 2016).

In 1980, the European average life duration expectancy was of 72.2 years, as compared with 57.3 years in the rest of the world. At present, the average of the life duration expectancy has increased to approximate 75.4 years, on the European continent, and to 65.3 years, in the rest of the world (Chlorides, 2013). The grown old population, from Europe and North America, represents a huge potential regarding the activities for spare time spending, the international tourism inclusively (Konya, 2014). The attention of the strongly industrialized countries is now directed towards the second and the third age people towards their spare time and social assistance organization (Pizzolon, 2015). This changing will be various and extended, starting with what old persons generally wish, up to the tiniest details of their preferences.

Maddala (2015) argues that due to the economic activities internationalization and globalization, the competition from tourism has moved from the local level to the world wide one. This change brings about a series of strategic decisions, which, from now on, have to be taken into consideration both by the independent operators and by the international tourist organisations. The tourist’s independent operators wish to become as well part of the international tourist’s network, while in order to remain competitive the world-wide tourist’s organizations having large networks all over the world intend
to focus much more on improving communications and on supervising more strictly the costs (Ekanayake, 2016).

In order to obtain an advantage, in the sharper and sharper competition, the managers from international tourism sector have to build an adequate strategy then to implement it through an efficient structural process (Santana, 2013). According to Santana, implementation tends to become a much more complex process than the strategy creation itself, because the managers have to have leading qualities and the employees to be prepared, together with the whole company to cope with this challenge. The independent operators having activities of small size are less interested by the global standards existent on the international tourist’s market (Gallego, 2014). Generally speaking, the operators direct their attention only towards the local tourist’s activities and because of the close competition and of the limited resources they consider internationalization as being a slow and expensive process (Payne, 2015). In order to be able to support as easy as possible a competitive advantage of any kind the international business environment needs new ways of thinking and acting. The well-prepared manager will have to have at the same time open minds as far as novelties are concerned (Adamou, 2013), will have to immediately see if any business opportunity shows on the horizon.

In general, the majority of international travel takes place within a traveller’s own region, with approximately four out of five arrivals originating in the same region. Source markets for international tourism have traditionally been concentrated largely in the advanced economies (Kimbu, 2015). However, with an overall increase in disposable income and the resulting expansion of the middle-class worldwide many emerging economies have shown rapid growth in recent years especially in tourism markets in Asia, Central and Eastern Europe, the Middle East, Africa and Latin America (Claude, 2014).
Europe remains the world’s largest source region, generating half of the world’s international arrivals, followed by Asia and the Pacific (24%), the Americas (17%), the Middle East (3%) and Africa (3%). Yet, while the contribution of Europe towards international arrivals generated has remained relatively steady between 1990 and 2015 (>50%), the contribution of Asia and the Pacific has increased from 13 to 24% in this period (Sabahi, 2015).

Africa has also seen an increase, albeit small, in the number of outbound tourists over the past two decades. China, the United States and the United Kingdom led in outbound tourism numbers within their respective regions in 2015, mainly due to their favourable exchange rates and strong economies (Gates, 2017). China has been dominating global outbound travel for the past decade, especially after achieving double-digit growth in tourism expenditures every year since 2004. The total number of outbound travellers from China rose by 11 million from 2014 to reach 128 million in 2015 (Stivachtis, 2016). Chinese international tourism focuses mainly on regional destinations such as Japan and Thailand but also many Chinese travellers are visiting the United States and Europe.

The number of outbound travellers from the United States, the world’s second largest source market, reached 73 million in 2015. The United Kingdom (UK), the fourth largest source market led growth in outbound demand in Europe with the support of a strong British pound against the euro. In comparison to 2014 outbound tourists from the UK were up by 5 million, totalling 64 million in 2015 (Condoleezza, 2017). Argues that weaker currencies adversely affected the contribution of other source markets such as Germany and France. Russian Federation, Republic of Korea, Canada, Italy and Australia retained their place in the list of top 10 source markets. In addition to the top 10 markets, other source markets which showed double-digit growth in expenditure in 2018 included Spain, Sweden, Taiwan (People’s Republic of China), Kuwait, the Philippines, Thailand,
Argentina, the Czech Republic, Israel, Egypt and South Africa (Renex, 2018).

2.3 Terrorist Attacks and International Tourism

A study done by Sonmez (2014) contends that the tourism industry is susceptible to both natural and man-made disasters. However, people tend to get over natural disasters whereas incidents of terrorisms have long-term effects and lead to cancellation of travel and vacation plans.

2.3.1 Destination Image

This study argues that perception of tourists about a certain travel destination also gets affected when terrorists target a location having the least chance of terrorist activities. Furthermore, the study notes that terrorist activity at a tourism destination causes potential tourists to drop their plans. For tourists, physical safety is a top priority. Arana and Leon (2016) contends that when tourists make plans for traveling, they ensure that the destination is safe and free from violence and terrorism. Gartner (2014) argue that terrorism is growing throughout the world with its effects all over the globe; consequently, some countries have completely lost their tourism industry.

Swarbrooke (2013) states that travellers prefer to go to a place that has no implications of being violent in any way. If the incidents of terrorism are completely random without the chances of reoccurrence, tourists usually tend to forget about it with time. Image of tourist destinations in the minds of tourists is essential because it reflects an individual’s perception about a specific location and the country (Sun & Molina, 2013). Frequent acts of terrorism can tarnish a country’s image leading to tourists avoiding the place and eventually the country loses out on tourism (Horner, 2015).

A cross sectional study done by Crompton (2014) in Asia found that the image people associate with a certain country plays a great role in helping them decide whether
they should or should not travel there. The study contends that tourists are pretty sensitive in this matter, as they would never want any terrorist activity to happen in their evoked destination. According to the study, as different brands have different images and consumer perceptions about them, likewise, countries too come with their own unique images and perceptions. America is known as the land of dreams (Brown, 2015); Paris is known as the city of love (Turnbull, 2014); Switzerland is known as heaven on earth (Landes & Landes, 2016); Malaysia is advertised as “Truly Asia” (Morais, 2013).

In addition, Sonmez (2015) posits that countries can and should effectively manage their image so that the mention of its name can evoke a positive image in an individual’s mind. It means they can trust the place that they will be safe there and they can travel without any fear or doubt. A case study done by Sindiga (2014) in the light of the terrorist attacks that occurred in 2015 in Paris, using both quantitative and qualitative analyses to assess the middle-term impacts of these terrorist disasters and the indirect consequences for competing destinations such as Berlin and London. The findings revealed a strong resilience of the destination of Paris in the middle run, as well as a potential substitutability between London and Paris, and partial slowing down effects affecting the destination of Berlin. The analysis revealed negative perceptions of Paris by online travellers because of terrorist events, which also affected other European destinations’ images overall. The analysis provided some useful recommendations to the destination marketing organization (DMO) of Paris, by counselling the creation of a long-term crisis management plan. This improves cooperation with various tourism actors and the opportunity to perennially analyse the Electronic Word-of-Mouth (e-WOM) generated on social networks as well as user generated websites regarding the image of Paris.

A case study of Kenya done by Abrantes (2014) shows that Kenya has had its fair share on terrorism attacks some of which directly targeted tourists. According to the study,
in August 1998, the al-Qaeda network simultaneously executed twin attacks in Tanzania and Kenya, targeting the US Embassy which was severely damaged and the news spread throughout the world via the media. As a result, hotels in Kenya received numerous cancellations. In a study done by Kastenholz (2016) shows that an insurgent attack on the Westgate Shopping Mall in Nairobi made international headlines. Approximately 67 people from nearly a dozen countries around the world were killed in the incident. The study posits that the attacks reiterated the perception of Kenya as a hub for terrorism, violent extremism and factionalism. In addition, frequent small scale attacks in the country demonstrate the fact that the surrounding threats to regional security act as a prediction for future problems (Aronson, 2013).

Witt and Moore (2015) investigated whether or not promoting special events created enough tourism interest to outweigh Northern Ireland’s negative external image caused by terrorism. The study concluded that there was a need for Northern Ireland to pay more attention to overcoming their negative image and the need to increase inbound tourism. Unfortunately, the study only advise on increasing visitation instead of solutions to overcome the nation’s negative image. In a study of flows of United Kingdom (UK) travellers to a variety of air passenger destinations, a study done by Coshall (2013) found that the highly attractive destinations for UK travellers experience rapid recovery in the aftermath of a crisis. This can be demonstrated by the rapid decrease of the impact of the Libyan bombing on air travel between the United Kingdom and the United States.

This is in line with the findings of another study done by Mansfeld and Kliot (2014) which found that travellers are highly willing to substitute insecure images for secure ones once a situation has simmered down. An empirical analysis done by Weimann and Winn (2014) argued that a symbiotic relationship exists between terrorists and journalists and that terrorism is both a symbolic event and a performance that is staged for the benefit of
media attention. An analysis of the effect of terrorism on tourist attraction done by Saunders, (2014) found that the Turkish economy suffered multiple attacks and geopolitics tensions in 2015. The analysis noted that after reaching $35 billion in total tourism revenues in 2014, Turkey’s tourism profits fell by 4.4% to $12.29 billion in the third quarter of 2015.

2.3.2 Travel Risk

A study done by Lewis (2014) has shown the risk-averse behaviour of tourists and their reluctance to travel to an unsafe destination. The study stated that tourists’ risk perception of a destination is significant to form a destination image. The study documented that high terrorist crime rates constitute to negative images formed by travellers and subsequently lead to the decline in tourist arrivals. This is supported by a previous study conducted by Ryan (2016) showing that the terrorist attacks has a significant negative relationship with the number of tourist arrivals. The study argue that terrorism causes chaos and leads to panic and fear. Indeed, safety is a pre-requisite for the success of the tourism industry, and the mere threat of events can cause tourists to rethink their decision to visit a destination (Schmitt, 2014).

A literature review conducted by Richter (2015) contends that the extent of travel cancellations differs greatly depending on the targeted destinations. For instance, following the attacks on 9/11, the US government closed airports and cancelled thousands of flights. Even when the airports re-opened, tourists were wary of air travel, and airlines experienced at least a 30% reduction in demand during the initial shock period. (Misrahi, 2015). In addition, a cross sectional analysis done by Waugh, (2014) noted that the origin of where tourists come from together with the cultural biases tourists carry on to the plane or train with them affects how they perceive travel risks. Furthermore, the study stated that tourists from United States, Hong Kong and Australia perceive more travel risks, feel less safe and are more anxious and reluctant to travel than tourists from United Kingdom, Canada and
According to the analysis, after 38 foreign holidaymakers, most of them British, were shot dead in a horrific Islamic State terrorist attack at a beach hotel near Sousse, Tunisia in 2015, the effects on tourism were devastating. Several European travel companies and cruise operators immediately suspended operations to Tunisia so, by the following year, tourist numbers had fallen to their lowest level in decades, 100 hotels had closed and tourist revenues were down by 35 per cent (Pizam, 2014). Otto (2016) contends that the war in Somalia aimed at fighting AlShabaab by the forces of the AMISOM is spilling over into many neighbouring countries with Kenya being one of the affected countries. Terrorist attacks have increased in Kenya in recent years (Mboke, 2015).

Looking at the years between 2011 and 2014, there have been more than 70 grenade and gun attacks in Nairobi, Mombasa and Garissa counties. The most brutal attack occurred on the 2nd of April 2015, when gunmen stormed the Garissa University College in Garissa, Kenya, killing 148 people and injuring 79 or more. The incident at the Westgate shopping Centre in September 2013, which left some 70 people killed and more than 200 injured, is also another significant manifestation of the growing threat of terrorism in Kenya (The Standard, 2013). These attacks saw issue of travel advisories by the USA and European countries which impacted significantly on the international tourism (Menze, 2016). A comprehensive analyses by Neumayer and Plumper (2014) researched the effects of attacks on Western citizens in specific Islamic countries to see how it affects tourism. The analysis posits that terrorists have a strong strategic incentive to target Western tourists. According to the analysis, not only will this generate considerable media attention, but such attacks also target the major sources of tourist inflows and the victims come from countries whose governments often support militarily, politically or economically the governments in Islamic countries that the terrorists wish to overthrow. The value of terrorist attacks on
Western tourists goes beyond the fact that they are symbols of Western culture and are easily identifiable as different in predominantly Islamic countries. Attacks on tourists are attacks on an important source of revenue for the government (Ecole, 2014).

Another research done by Stafford (2015) shows how terrorism in a predominantly Islamic country against citizens from a specific Western country of origin does not merely affect tourism to the country in which the attack takes place, or tourism from the victims’ country of origin. Instead, the tourism-deterring effect spills over into other Islamic destination countries and other Western origin countries. The decline is larger for tourists from the country whose citizens have been killed or injured, but tourists from other Western countries are also deterred (Novelli, 2013). The results suggest that tourists correctly infer that if terrorists attack their fellow citizens in one country, they also have an incentive to attack them in other similar destination countries. Similarly, tourists from other Western origin countries infer that they are more likely to become victimized in that and other similar destinations. Thus, terrorist attacks on one group of Western tourists in one country will reduce the number of other Western tourists that take holidays in other, similar countries (Nayaran, 2015).

Similarly, Nacos (2014) analysed the effect on tourism of 190 fatal terrorist incidents in Islamic countries involving citizens from Western countries. The analysis states that these incidents resulted in 1,402 deaths. The study concludes that, in the country where the attack took place, one additional fatal incident is predicted to reduce the tourist flow from the country of the main victims by 4.2 per cent in the same year and by 7.4 per cent in the subsequent one. Gilham (2015) identified goals that terrorist attacks might be designed to achieve: to act as a catalyst for a more general aim, to force issues, to influence political behavior, to make demands, to provoke reaction (or overreaction), or to publicize a cause.
A study conducted by Domboroczky (2015) asserts that there has been a shift from political terrorism that was popular in the 1960s and 1970s to religious terrorism, specifically in the Islamic areas of the globe. Lennon and O’Leary (2015) found that terrorism has the greatest effect on the travel industry. When terrorists attack, the objective of the attacks is to instil fear by threatening basic safety and security needs; this has a negative impact upon tourism in the area (s) of attack. When deciding about whether to take a vacation and where to visit, people take the risks such as victimization into consideration; individuals are most likely to visit safe destinations (Murphy, 2015). In international tourism, potential travellers to a country may be dissuaded from visiting when the probability of victimization is high (Altindag, 2014).

Safety is one of the fundamental needs that Maslow proposed in his theory of “Hierarchy of Needs,” which illustrates the order of the types of needs people must achieve for self-fulfillment (Maslow, 1943). In any case, Stafford and Gallagher (2015) found a possible link between Maslow’s theory and the decision to tour a country. The theory implies that the need for safety abroad must be satisfied before the need of self-fulfillment can be satisfied through travel abroad. Terrorism is not a 21st century problem, though terrorism has been steadily increasing over the past twenty years. Before 1985, terrorist attacks were on a smaller scale and tourism was able to resume quickly; however, as terrorist attacks have become more frequent, the tourism industry has adapted and offers terrorism insurance coverage (Lennon & O’Leary, 2015).

Enders and Sandler (2015) propose that there are four sources of economic costs that terrorism events can impose. The first type of economic source being the loss of tourism revenues; the second type is the reduction of future stock capital or foreign direct investment; the third source type is the destruction of infrastructure; and the fourth type is the opportunity costs from terrorism prevention. Besides, the obvious costs associated with
terrorism attacks, the indirect costs of terrorism include additional advertising expenses necessary to attract new or more tourists, reconstruction costs for damaged tourist facilities, and security enforcement expenses to lessen future terrorist threats (Drakos and Kutan, 2013).

2.4 Terrorist Kidnappings and International Tourism

Kidnapping refers to the abduction and captivity of a person, typically to obtain a ransom (Levitt, 2014). Lennon (2015) argues that sometimes kidnappers hold their captives longer in order to demand more money from the victim's relatives or associates. Kidnapping is a global phenomenon. A study done by Kuto (2015) notes that in the 1990s and part of 2000, tourists and business people especially in Latin America and the Pacific countries bore the brunt of kidnappings. The study argues that, by the 1990s, dissident groups had become more active and more established and so they began to use kidnappings of tourists and business people to support and fund their activities through ransom payments.

In Mexico, Venezuela, Peru and Brazil, urban kidnappings became common place during that time (Bornemann, 2014; Bottomley, 2015; & Roberts, 2017). A study done by Crotts (2013) found that the tourist-kidnapping incidents had decreased the number of tourist arrivals in Malaysia significantly. This was evident by tourist arrivals in 2014 which decreased by 12.8 percent, or 358,720 number of arrivals, relative to tourist arrivals in 2013. Looking at the trend of tourist arrivals prior to 2014, the study shows that international tourism was still in the up-ward pattern. The analysis concludes that the tourist-kidnapping incidents were the key contributing factor to the decline in arrivals (Koroma, 2013).

A case study of Terrorism in Sabah, Malaysia done by Bowen (2014) notes that terrorism kidnapping incidents led to a dramatic decline of Chinese and Taiwanese tourist
arrivals into Malaysia after a Taiwanese man was killed and his wife was kidnapped by a group of gunmen after being attacked in the resort; and a Chinese tourist and a Filipino hotel employee. The economic effects of kidnapping include direct and indirect costs (Maken, 2015). At the individual level, the costs include the economic value of money that may be lost to kidnappers, while the indirect economic cost of kidnapping include expenditures on preventive measures, such as the employment of private security personnel (Lori, 2014). At the governmental level, the economic effects of kidnapping involve the expenditure on security and security agencies (Holloway, 2013).

For instance, Gunn (2013) argues that the federal government budget for 2009 for police formations and command was 195 billion US dollars. The Lagos State Government was also reported to have spent three billion naira in two years on security alone (Soyombo, 2015). Much money has been spent on ransom payments. Samuel (2014) contends that the large sum of money spent as ransom payment could affect the State economy drastically, as it could have been used for meaningful economic development. Also, the nation loses a lot of revenue when international tourists or expatriates working in the multinational oil companies are attacked (Fuchs, 2013). Out of fear, travellers tend to stay clear from the affected regions or zones and the adverse effect is always on the economy.

Dode (2016) claims that, in 2012 when kidnappers abducted six foreign expatriates from Shell Oil Company premises the company was forced to close down and this led to the loss of millions of standard cubic feet per day of gas production for the country. Similarly, Gachenge (2015) argues that in Uyo Metropolis, Nigeria, many people are kidnapped often and a lot of money is given out as ransom. This situation affects tourism sector and household economy. Besides, Uriely (2014) shows that some people usually go as far as borrowing to bail their relatives out from the hands of hoodlums. In many instances, it is often the bread winners of families that are usually targeted, the implication
is always felt particularly within the family, whereby members of such families will have to feed themselves and adjust to their normal daily activities, until they secure the release of the victim (Reichel, 2016).

The victim’s work-place will also be affected adversely. If the victim was a businessman or woman, the business will suffer some setback pending his or her return. In a formal organization, the challenges are enormous as the absence of the victim will cause problem within the system, and the output will automatically be affected as well (Maol, 2014). Terrorist hostage taking and kidnapping has become an international concern in recent years (Baylis, 2015). Since the mid-1990s, hostage taking and kidnapping have dramatically increased as a preferred tactic of political terrorists. According to international police statistics, nearly 2,000 people worldwide have been taken hostage during the last 10 years (Punia, 2014).

However, the actual number of cases could be several times higher (McKinnon, 2015). Hostage taking and kidnapping can occur anytime and anywhere. No community or country is immune to this growing phenomenon. On one hand, the renewed popularity of hostage taking and kidnapping seems a by-product of a series of important international developments in the war on terrorism (Andriotis, 2017). After September 11, 2001, the United States-led coalition forces conducted offensive military operations against Al Qaeda affiliated Islamic terrorists in various regions of the world, especially Iraq and Afghanistan (Wu, 2015). Responding to this massive military offense, Islamic terrorists adopted alternative ways to continue their fight and exact revenge based on the understanding that their conventional fighting capabilities are no match for the combined coalition forces.

Hostage taking and kidnapping has well served terrorists as a supplement tactic to campaign against coalition forces (Cemat, 2014). Hostage taking and kidnapping has become one of the most valued weapons in the modern terrorist arsenal (Yun, 2015). The
taking of foreign hostages has become a particularly popular modus operandi for terrorists who tend to be well-organized and selective in their „target hostages, particularly due to their cynical but generally effective use of extensive media coverage. Also, the frequency of kidnapping of overseas personnel has markedly increased in Afghanistan since the US invasion in 2001 (Weng, 2015). Unfortunately, the death toll among hostages is high in Afghanistan and Iraq.

A particularly distasteful feature of hostage taking in these countries is the videotaped executions of hostages, such as those of Nick Berg (a US businessman) and Ronald Schultz (a US security consultant), and their broadcast by Al Jazeera or Al Arabia: such broadcasts represent, however, a powerful psychological weapon, which, runs the risk of losing public support and sympathy (Balli, 2016). Other areas which have become high-risk ones for hostage-taking are Nigeria and Colombia.

Most incidents in the former are carried out by criminal gangs for ransom, such as the Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta – MEND (Sinclair, 2015). Ransoms in both countries are often on a modest scale to ensure they can be paid. This strategy is sometimes referred to as Express Kidnapping. The frequency of hostage incidents in Colombia has increased 1600% between 1987 and 2000. The motives there appear to be largely criminal, for financial gain, rather than political (Blake, 2015). Sometimes such events are described as Economic Extortive Kidnapping. These events can have demoralizing effects on families, who may lose all faith in supportive agencies and organizations (Klein, 2015).

Songoo (2015) contends that although there is little research in terrorist kidnappings the following factors have been proven to determine the outcome of a hostage crisis. First, religion can be an important predicting factor for the outcome of a hostage taking and kidnapping incident. According to White (2014), religious influenced terrorists are more
likely to kill their victims. In this context, when hostage takers are strongly influenced by religious fanaticism, they are more likely to execute their hostage than non-religious hostage takers. They may want to punish non-believers or traitors, or eliminate individuals seen as evil.

In recent years, Islamic fundamentalist terrorists have seized on hostage-taking as a powerful tactic for advancing their ideology, as seen by the rash of kidnappings in Iraq, Afghanistan, Chechnya, and the Philippines (Croes, 2014). Hostage takers with clearly stated demands seem to be more likely to allow a safe return of the hostage. This variable is categorized into three groups: ransom demand, non-ransom demand, and no demand. To distinguish ransom demand from non-ransom demand, Wang (2015) defined ransom demand as a demand of money or other financial instrument, whereas Pizzolon (2017) defined non-ransom demand as any other demands made. In cases where both monetary and non-monetary demands were made, the demand was considered to be a ransom demand. Secondly, longer detention times increase the chance of a hostage’s safe return, there are several reasons behind this.

As time lapses, the friendly relationship between a hostage taker and a hostage may be developed, and thus the hostage taker are reluctant to kill his hostage (Shini, 2015). Or, lapsed time may make a hostage taker tired, bored, or impatient, all of which lead him to give up. In any regard, as more time passes, the chance of a hostage’s survival increases. Thus, Shin hypothesized that, as length of detention increases, a hostage is more likely to be safely released. Thirdly Wu (2015) also recognizes the significance of the geographic location, where an incident occurred. In this context, Weng (2015) assumes the location may be significantly related to the chance of hostage’s survival or execution. A recent estimate by Clayton (2018) ranks of countries by risk of kidnapping, shows their estimates of countries where there is a very high, high, and medium risk of kidnapping.
2.5 Predominant Challenges in Fighting Terrorism

Terrorism is integral to many contemporary conflicts in form of a broader context of armed violence; the introduction of new mechanisms of instilling fear on broader population other than the victim creates the basis for the emergence of terrorism as a strategy which is usually used by groups or States (Adusei, 2014). Efforts to have been made in order to combat terrorism but there are a number of challenges that imped those efforts (Leon, 2016).

2.5.1 Finance/Sponsorship

Bover (2014) contends the notion that emergence of terrorism is not unconnected with transnational support, however, it can be viewed as valid argument since local armed groups originally existing as insurgents fighting hard to win regional or international recognition. The insurgents attain such positions once they secure finance sponsorship from external sources in form of funds from kidnapping, illegal transactions of national resources with foreign nations (Oehme, 2008). They received foreign support with the tag „moderate rebels” by those supporting them in form of systematic regime change to take over power from the established government.

Those supported groups later transform into terror groups gaining regional and global support and spread through splitter groups and terror networks. For instance, a study done by Asongu (2015) notes that the emergence of Al-Qaeda supported by the US to counter the domino effect of the communist Russia resulted in establishment of global recognition of Al-Shabaab which is believed to have allegiance with Al-Qaeda. The study argue that Africa does not manufacture weapon sophisticated to those used by the rebel, but the weaponization of the middle-east created the flow-chain of such arms to slip into the hands of rebel groups in the North African region and further down the sub-Saharan region (Tchamyou, 2015).
Moreover, Nwachukwu (2014) notes that money is important for a terrorist organization to survive and especially to operate. The study suggests that a deprivation of funds will bring some corresponding decrease in a given terrorist group’s ability to operate, and, specifically its latitude to carry out attacks. Less money means fewer weapons, reduced recruiting, training and reconnoitering capabilities, less capacity, and a diminished ability to purchase technology or pay specialists to provide needed expertise. All these inputs are needed to conduct terrorist attacks; should a group have less money to acquire them, the study suggests that the terror groups will be able to mount fewer attacks.

A random sampling study conducted by Boateng (2013) depict that the highest percentage of respondents interviewed rated money as “highly important”, eight rated money as “somewhat important”, while only three rated money as “not very important” for a global terrorist organization to function. Furthermore, a literature review by Bhattarai, (2015) belies a conviction that financial deprivation can deliver a mortal blow to Al Qaeda. A study done in the USA by Becker (2015) indicated that the United States and the international community has the capability to succeed in starving the terrorists of funding. The study states that starving terrorists of funding remains a priority and a success in the war on terrorists. The study concludes that without financial support, terrorist organizations will be unable to function effectively. Without the means to raise and move money around the world, terrorists cannot function (Sandler, 2014).

Farmaki (2014) contends that after the September 11th, 2001, the United States’ first financial strike in the global war on terror (GWOT) came in the form of Executive Order (EO) 13224, which targeted the financial bases of 27 different terrorist-related entities, to include organizations and individuals closely associated with the Al Qaeda organization. Following that EO, both domestic and international policy-making bodies crafted nearly a dozen major initiatives and created nearly as many new organizations, all
with the purpose of attacking terrorist financial networks. Subsequently, the international community designated 315 entities as terrorist organizations or groups/entities related to them, and seized over $136 million in money and other assets in over 1,400 accounts worldwide, making the financial dimension one of the most active fronts in the global war on terror (Altinay, 2014).

According to Lopez (2014), terrorists require money to operate. Without funding, they cannot purchase weapons, equipment, supplies, or services. The source of terrorist funds may be licit or illicit, and funding often takes the form of multiple small donations, rather than one large sum of money. Terrorist groups may be directly or indirectly linked to organized criminal groups and may engage in criminal activities, including drugs or arms trafficking, extortion, and kidnapping for ransom (Flipczak, 2016). Terrorism financing is a global phenomenon that not only threatens Member States’ security, but can also undermine economic development and financial market stability (Githahu, 2014). It is therefore of paramount importance to stem the flow of funds to terrorists.

Building on the International Convention for the Suppression of the Financing of Terrorism (2014), Security Council resolution 1373 (2013), calls on States to prevent and suppress the financing of terrorism, inter alia, by criminalizing the collection and provision of funds for terrorist purposes, and urges them to set up effective mechanisms to freeze funds and other financial assets of persons involved in or associated with terrorism, as well as to prevent those funds from being made available to terrorists (Mwakio, 2016).

The Financial Action Task Force (FATF) has also developed detailed recommendations on countering terrorism financing. The significant sums raised by terrorist organizations such as the Islamic State in Iraq and the Levant (ISIL, also known as Da’esh) and the funding of foreign terrorist fighters (FTFs) underscore the importance of targeting terrorist resources (Benyawa, 2014). In its resolution 2178 (2014), the Security
Council urges Member States to disrupt terrorist-financing activities linked to FTFs and to criminalize the financing of FTF travel. The freezing of terrorist assets is a highly effective way for Member States to stem the flow of funds. It can also act as a deterrent to further engagement in terrorist activity. However, in conducting assessments on behalf of the Counter-Terrorism Committee, the Counter-Terrorism Committee Executive Directorate (CTED) has become aware of the many challenges faced by Member States in implementing effective freezing mechanisms (Robert, 2014).

As a facilitator of technical assistance delivery, CTED organizes expert workshops around the world to help States establish effective freezing mechanisms that are consistent with international standards and obligations, including relevant human rights obligations. CTED also helps States to counter the misuse of non-profit organizations (NPOs) and alternative remittance systems (ARS) for terrorist-financing purposes and to detect and prevent illicit cross-border transportation of currency (a significant problem in cash-based economies (Mwahanga, 2015). In order to tackle terrorism financing effectively, it is essential that Member States cooperate regionally and internationally, including through the exchange of operational information by relevant entities, especially national financial intelligence units (FIUs). It is also essential that investigation of terrorism cases at the national level include the terrorist-financing element (Andrew, 2014).

2.5.2 Radicalization

Fosu (2015) defines radicalization as a process by which an individual, or group comes to adopt increasingly extreme political, social, or religious ideals and aspirations that reject or undermine the status quo or contemporary ideas and expressions of the nation. A study done by Shawky (2014) shows that global developments and trends in terrorist radicalization, domestic recruitment and home-grown terrorism present growing challenges to many countries around the world on the fight against terrorism. The study
argues that blending what is known from youth violence with what has been projected foretells a rough scenario: a large number of “super predators” with a radicalized ideology and agenda. According to the study, the implications of this scenario for combating terrorism are significant.

Goel (2014) contends that globally, radicalization into terrorist groups has been characterized by extreme violence based on different ideologies including nationalism, separatism, anarchism and extreme left-wing or even right-wing political ideas. Though the vast majority of the world populations practice peaceful coexistence and tolerance irrespective of their place of origin or opinion, the world is faced with a threat of extreme violence which is preceded by radicalization processes (Cagle, 2015). Cagle (2015), argue that the history of radicalization into violence or radicalization leading to terrorism is quite long and a complex psychosocial process.

Brunn (2014) claims that East Africa region has been prone to acts of terrorism in the last decades. Indeed, Kenya and Tanzania are among the first to be attacked under the basis of terrorist radicalization during the 1998 twin attacks in Arusha and Nairobi. The study argues that the threats have increased with more attacks under different basis from American support to interventions in Somalia by state members of East Africa. Uganda for instance, has also added to the threats and attacks due to its military support in intervention efforts in Somalia. The study contends that generally, member states and populace of East Africa have experienced radicalization of its youths into internationally affiliated terror networks as well as home-grown terror groups.

In addition, Walke (2015) affirms that radicalisation of the youths into violent extremism is a great concern and reality in Africa, given that approximately 70% of African population is the youths. More so is due to the different push and pull factors in African nations that lead to many youths being radicalised. The study argues that corruption,
poverty, oppression, marginalization and religious extremism lead to terrorist radicalization particularly among young people leading to terror flourishing in Africa due to development problems. Those factors can also have a combined effect as seen in the case of the Nigerian- Boko-haram and Somali-Al-shababs, and usually awareness through civilization and the use of media/internet have increased the spread of radicalism (Nyusi, 2013).

Furthermore, Richards (2016) contends that terrorist radicalisation which contributes to the greater terror percentage in Africa usually emanates from the predominant religions like Christianity -38% of Africa’s population and Islam -53% of Africa’s population. According to Richards (2016), these religions are not of Africa origin, therefore the conception of their beliefs of terrorist radicalization can be attributed to external factor that contributes to purported religious extremists like Boko-haram in West Africa, Anti-Balaka in Central Africa Republic, and Al-Shabaab and Lord’s Resistance Army which have since been forced into hiding in East Africa (Mehmood, 2015).

An empirical review done by Tapsoba (2013) established that a prison meant to be correctional facility can in turn be a terrorist radicalization zone as most terrorist are in the same confinement with other criminals. Also in general, prison effect may contribute to radicalization due to harsh and restricted activities (Khan, 2016). The first challenge to tackling radicalization successfully lies in the elusiveness of the concept. The possible motivations, ideas and other factors that might drive an individual towards radicalization are various, complex and no single factor is necessary or sufficient to account for terrorist radicalization (Ahmad, 2014). However, Ahmad argues that, there is no single profile of individuals who have become involved with terrorism, and presumptions based on past or current individual cases are, therefore, extremely limited in their applicability. Broad profiles built on stereotypical assumptions based on religion, race, ethnicity, sex, or socio-
economic status are not only discriminatory, but also ineffective.

A study done in the USA by Mlachila (2015) stated that pending “youth bulges” in many Arab states as contributing to a “perfect storm” for conflict in certain regions, specifically stating that “most of the regions that will experience gains in religious „activists” also have youth bulges, which the study correlates with high numbers of radical adherents, including Muslim extremists. The study argues that the increase in the number of young radicals in many Arab states may represent the challenge associated with high numbers of radical adherents.

Research done by Pizam (2014) on youth violence in the United States provides additional insight regarding the true challenge embodied in the prediction, as well as insight and guidance about possible approaches to addressing recruitment, radicalization, homegrown terrorism, and the predicted “youth bulge” of radical Islamists. The study argues that the growing numbers of young people in their “crime prone” years are expected to account for an increased prevalence of youth in terrorism in the United States. There is little doubt that the nature and severity of youth crime has changed dramatically in few decades.

Fleischer (2014) argues that the findings on terrorist radicalization and youth terrorism in the United States causes even greater concern. This is due to the fact that the “youth bulge” will come of age, roughly 20 years since the initiation of conflict in Iraq and Afghanistan, effectively paralleling the constellation of social and environmental factors correlated with the emergence of “super predators” in the United States. Not only will there be more young people in Arab states, but they may be qualitatively worse given their exposure to conflict and violence during critical phases of emotional and moral development (Liu, 2014). While the nature, severity, frequency and proximity to violence are significant, the impact of the community response and attitudes toward violence cannot
be understated (Roodman, 2014).

In many ways, while the direct exposure to violence might be significant, direct exposure to violence within the context of community apathy, tolerance, support or even glamorization may profoundly alter international tourism and other development (Skalen, 2013). A literature review of radicalization in Kenya contends that terrorist radicalization is a real threat with the target group for the militants varying in age. According to the review, over 200 children as young as 12 years said to be undergoing radicalization in Mombasa have been rescued by security agents. The study estimates that 255 persons have left to join the terrorist group since 2013.

However, other reports may however give an indication that this figure could be higher as in Isiolo County in Eastern Kenya alone, an estimated 200 children were reported missing since 2014 and assumed to have crossed over to Somalia (Sinai, 2014). The target group for the recruiters are children and youth between ages of 15-30 and mostly boys. Looking at the case in Kenya, a number of interrelated social, political and economic factors are fuelling the radicalization of children. Geographically, the epicentre of radicalization appears to be the Northern Province of Kenya which is dominated by ethnic Somalis, and by most accounts, it is considered to be the worst victim of unequal. According to a report by the International Crisis Group (Mwaki, 2014), the Northern Province has a history of insurgency, misrule and repression, chronic poverty, massive youth unemployment, high population growth, insecurity, poor infrastructure and lack of basic services, which resulted in the bleak socio-economic and political conditions.

The rate of poverty is significantly higher in the areas where radicalization of children is rampant, thus the vulnerability of children and young people being lured to join these groups (Nzangi, 2013). Radicalization and previous records of crime according to Precht (2016), some people who engage in terrorist-related activity have previously been
engaged in other forms of criminality. Thus, engagement in criminality can create a vulnerability to radicalization. Therefore there is need to minimize the risk of radicalization of offenders while they are in prison or under supervision in the community – notably, but not only, radicalization of offenders by people who have been convicted for terrorism-related offences. Githahu (2013) also observes all terrorist groups have an ideology that is often promoted through the internet that facilitates radicalization and recruitment. Hence any effort towards counter terrorism should involve challenging the ideology and disrupting the ability of terrorists to promote it is a fundamental part of prevention measures (Flipczak, 2015).

Additionally, radicalization manuals circulating on the internet which take highlights from source material to construct a case for terrorism and which are intended for use in private study groups by agents of terrorism should all be countered (Fisk, 2014). This material frequently includes footages of terrorist attacks and graphic and brutal images of people being killed. In some cases they show deaths of innocent Muslims. The materials also often try to enhance the credibility and reputation of terrorist groups and to justify what they do (Cortright, 2015). In the United Kingdom, evidence suggests that radicalization amongst the youth tends to occur in places where terrorist ideologies, and those that promote them, go uncontested and are not exposed to free, open and balanced debate and challenge. Hence any antiterrorism efforts must strive to contest terrorist ideologies (Whitaker, 2015).

Further, Whitaker, (2015) observes that young people are sometimes attracted to terrorist movements through social connections, music, fashion, or life-style; only later do they come fully to understand the group’s ideology and goals. The author reveals that Al Qaeda-affiliated groups have begun using anti-American hip-hop music or "Jihad Rap" in their recruitment videos in order to increase their recruitment activities amongst the youth.
2.5.3 Civil Liberties

Civil liberties are personal guarantees and freedoms that the government cannot abridge, either by law or by judicial interpretation, without due process (Edvardsson, 2014). Terrorism implications on human rights is one of the challenges in combating terrorism, and violation of such rights are evident in Africa (Graefe, 2015) and can lead to increase in terrorism as the people whose rights are denied may seek to find justice through use of terror as a strategy (Powell, 2015). Smith (2015) argues that human rights activism can be viewed as a rhetorical nonsense that encourages civil unrest, disobedience and resistance to laws and revolution against the established government. For instance, upholding freedom of speech which undermines peace as seen in the case of Charlie Harbdo Cartoon movement in France that incited terror across the world.

Jawaid (2013) contends that the non-distinctiveness of terrorism from other criminal cases have also created a challenge, and such cases of terror should be handled separately as it is a sensitive issue that undermines security and peace. A study done by Raza (2014) shows that a 44% plurality of Americans are concerned that the government’s anti-terrorism policies have gone too far in restricting civil liberties of average people, while 39% are more concerned that these policies have not gone far enough to adequately protect the country. The study states that about half (47%) expressed concern that the government was restricting civil liberties too much, while 35% worried that it was not going far enough to protect the country.

Besides, Fackeye, (2013) posits that much of the worry of civil libertarians is that licensing the authorities to act in such cases entails a far more general license, because the authorities are unlikely to be perfect in their judgments of who is or is not a terrorist threat or even of who has or has not committed a horrendous terrorist attack. For instance, Enders (2014) argues that the uses of torture by the Argentine military junta were probably justified
in terms that would fit the defence that Dershowitz used. Against any such assessment, the
dreadful fates of the Argentine “disappeared” must upset the easy calculus of the value of
torture in narrowly defined circumstances (Kutan, 2015).

Even the recent flurry of discoveries, after the advent of deoxyribonucleic acid
(DNA) testing, that men on death row were innocent of the violent crimes for which they
had been convicted to die is evidence of how much citizens should fear actions by
authorities who are licensed to take actions against citizens who are suspected of
committing crimes (Dieke, 2014). Sausmarez (2015) contends that the focal concern of the
great civil libertarian tradition is how to design a state to protect people against each other
while not interfering in their lives beyond what is necessary to maintain social order.

Analysis done by Wanhill (2014) argue that after the September 11 attacks, the U.S.
government changed its domestic policies in a lot of ways that did little to keep its residents
safer from terrorism, even as it infringed on civil liberties and weakened basic protections
against government abuses. According to the analysis, Air travellers endured years taking
off their shoes and throwing away their water bottles at the behest of an incompetent
Transportation Security Administration (TSA) bureaucracy that still misses most guns.
According to the study, The New York Police Department (NYPD) sent undercover
officers to profile Muslim American students, even going on a river rafting trip to spy on
them, only to generate zero leads.

Moreover, Gilbert (2014) states that The National Security Agency (NSA) built a
domestic system of mass surveillance that affects all U.S. residents. Coshall (2014)
concludes that in the history of the United States, the American commitment to civil
liberties has frequently been put to the test. The Alien and Sedition Acts of the late
eighteenth century, the suspension of habeas corpus during the Civil War, the persecution
of war critics during World War I and the Red Scare that followed it, the internment of
Japanese Americans during World War II, the McCarthyite phenomenon during the early cold war, and the government’s campaign of surveillance targeting opponents of the Vietnam War all were driven by a perceived need to protect the United States against foreign adversaries or internal subversion.

The darker chapters of American history, especially those involving crackdowns against immigrants and political dissent, have almost always occurred during times of war or the threat of war. It is within the context of a history in which the rights of the individual have been placed in jeopardy mainly during wartime that nations must assess counterterrorism policies in the wake of terror attacks like the September 11, 2001, attacks on the United States (Chon, 2014).

2.5.4 Cost to Counter Terrorism

According to Jeffery (2014), it entails so much resources to deal with fight against terrorism and more so the consequences of terror itself are costly. Payne (2016) categorises the costs associated with terrorism into five. Firstly, Payne argues that there is cost to individuals where citizens lose lives and suffer social, psychological and physical problems. This individual costs also involves fear which in the long run curtails the citizens’ freedom of movement, association, worship and many other rights and freedom associated with a secure environment. Payne notes that the second cost associated with terrorism is the economic cost. Calculating the economic cost of terrorism and the responses to it are difficult given the complexities. For instance, the airline industry after the 9/11 attack suffered major financial losses and still feel the impact to date (Radford, 2017).

Cost to governments is another area that is identified in terrorism. This can be well explained by Kenya’s situation when it pursued Al-Shabab terror group to Somalia. The security checks people experience in today’s world like when boarding airlines, when
visiting private and public offices, socials places and even churches is a clear indicator that governments have an expensive responsibility over its citizen’s security. Kumar (2015) notes that the US federal state and local government spend money to guard bridges, nuclear power plants, train stations and many other areas. For instance, reconstruction of Iraq is another example of how costly terrorism can be (Perry, 2015).

Another cost is in terms of foreign policy (Brooke, 2014). Alignments and re-alignments of states have been seen in the wake of terrorism, with many states cutting diplomatic ties with those they differ in opinion over terrorism and strengthening relations with those they read from the same script (Mwakera, 2014). Mwakera estimates that global military expenditures stand at about $1.75 trillion annually, since 2009 (1.76 trillion in 2015). Military expenditures in North America, Western Europe, and Central Europe are decreasing, while they are increasing in all other regions. Transfers of major weapons in 2012-16 reached their highest volume for any five-year period since the end of the cold war, mainly driven by demand in the Middle East and Asia (Ombati, 2016) In 2012, China joined the group of five biggest weapons exporters; together, they accounted for 74% of the total volume of arms exports: the United States (33%), Russia (23%), China (6.2%), France (6%), and Germany (5.6%) (Malcolm, 2015) Asia and Oceania’s share of global arms imports increased to 43% in 2012-2016.

The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) guidelines suggest that countries spend 2% of their GDP on defense, with at least 20% of it for defense-related research & design and major equipment acquisitions (Kempe, 2017). Only the US (NATO’s biggest defense spender), Greece, and Estonia met the 2% guideline in 2016. If all NATO European countries were to meet the 2% of GDP target, their defence spending would have needed to rise by over 40%. However, initiatives such as Smart Defence are increasing the efficiency of both operations and funds by generating new defense capabilities through
growing cooperation among allies (Laqueur, 2015).

According to the 2015 Defence Companies Anti-Corruption Index, compiled by Transparency International (2016), 66% of defense companies have poor to non-existent ethics and anti-corruption programs. Nevertheless, since 2012, 60% of the companies surveyed have seen marginal improvements, while 33% have taken greater steps toward mitigating corruption. Terrorism finally may cost democracy as Hobbes (2015) points out given that people may seek protection from forces that they perceive to be powerful hence compromise their other democratic rights and freedoms.

2.5.5 Ideology

In the most modest of interpretations, the term “ideology” refers to the study of ideas whose main purpose is to propound societal change through a normative thought process (Lesser, 2015). Ideologies propound their own version about the world in which we live and groups of people adhere to these sets of beliefs and share their common view about man and society. Ideological disagreements and different assumptions can yield quite different prescriptions regarding human activity since an ideology imputes a particular structure to political action (Bone, 2014). Politics is the process of making and executing binding decisions for a society and, as it is well known, not everyone agrees with all of the decisions. Thus, a wide variety of organizations dedicate their efforts to influence the ideology of a society to shape it as closely as possible to their ideal and terrorist organizations are no different in this respect (Mangera, 2015); however, the instruments they use in the quest to accomplish their political objectives are not the ones with which society tries to conduct its business (Fabian, 2016).

As Morgenthau (2014) notes, power is always the immediate aim and politics is a struggle for power. Ideologies are used to attain power. The twentieth century saw the clash between the ideology of capitalism and communism. The balance of power was
divided between East and West while most of the world was busy choosing sides. The collapse of the Soviet Union altered that balance and the world became unipolar. At the end of the century, since communism was taking its last gasps, leftist groups saw their main sponsor vanish (Ingati, 2015). Their position was swiftly filled by the rise of Islam as a powerful ideological tool for religious terrorist groups who manifested their increased interest for the establishment of an alternative polity to the nation-state that Muslims call the caliphate and recall as the “Golden Age (Allan, 2014).”

According to Sageman (2016), absolute ruthlessness harnessed to an ideology yields terrorism. Its global version, jihadism, preaches its own purist interpretation of Islam and advocates a strategy of violent jihad, which will produce an explosion of terror to wipe out “local political heresy” and defeat the Western powers allegedly preventing the establishment of a truly Islamist state (Roy, 2014). For Islamists, religion becomes more than belief, it actually means a way of life and in Islam this is based on belief that advocates the abolition of all political systems which usurp Allah’s divine attributes. As a result, this blend of religious ideology and political goals has led to significant divisions within the Islamic world. Hoffman (2015) contends that terrorism is where politics and violence intersect in the hope of delivering power to effect fundamental political change.

The ideological factor plays a significant role in motivating society to engage in the political community; yet it plays a more intense and decisive role motivating people to join the terrorist cause. It is essential to hold a deep-seated ideological belief in order to legitimate the killing of innocent people with no qualms or the sacrifice of ending one’s own life for the cause (Precht, 2016). Without disregarding that the decision to engage in, or support violence, may have to do with concrete grievances, sacred ideology – theology – seems to be a more important means of recruitment than secular ideology and a more compelling tool to rationalize violence.
2.5.6 Technology Advancement

Neumann (2015) contends that the cyberspace is an environment without boundaries, a privileged place where terrorists find resources, make propaganda activities and from which it is possible to launch the attacks against enemies everywhere in the world. According to Neumann social media is an essential element of modern terrorism; these powerful platforms allow terrorists to communicate, to make propaganda and recruit new sympathizers. Odero (2015) states that every terrorist attack is similar to a dramatic representation, in which the Internet is the stage. “Terrorist attacks are often carefully choreographed to attract the attention of the electronic media and the international press (Nthamburi, 2015), and that terrorism is aimed at the people watching, not at the actual victims. Although members of the Islamic state use new technologies with great skill, many other terrorist groups use the Internet and its resources every day.

According to Nthamburi many other groups are active on the web, including Hamas (the Islamic Resistance Movement), the Lebanese Hezbollah (Party of God), the Egyptian Al-Gama’a at Islamiyah, the Popular Democratic Liberation Front Party in Turkey (DHKP / C), the Kurdish Workers’ Party (PKK), the Zapatista National Liberation Army (ELNZ), the Islamic Movement of Uzbekistan (IMU) the Mujahedin, and the Chechens. Moech (2016) notes that surfing on the Web is quite easy to find material spread by groups of terrorists, a study conducted by Weimann (2015) demonstrate a significant increase in the presence of terrorists in the Internet since 1998.

Limb (2014) explained that in 1998 the number of websites containing terrorist material was 12, in 2003 the study counted 2,650 websites and in September 2015 the total number has reached 9,800. The data leaves no doubts; terrorist organizations are looking with increasing interest to the Internet (Dawyer, 2015). A growing number of radical organizations are also exploiting darknets, a circumstance that greatly increases
the number of sites currently operated by terrorist organizations (Kundnani, 2016). Dark Net (or Darknet) is an umbrella term describing the portions of the Internet purposefully not open to public view or hidden networks whose architecture is superimposed on that of the Internet (Harbermas, 2014).

The Internet offers a simple access to a global stage, every terrorist could instantly reach large masses or targets specific groups of individuals. Under specific circumstances, the resources of the Internet could offer anonymity to the user, a great advantage for a terrorist organization that wants to spread their message while remaining undetected (Dodd, 2014). Dodd posits that the internet is cheap whereby a group of terrorists could arrange efficient propaganda campaigns without economic effort. But the aspect that most of all makes the Internet a privileged instrument for terrorist groups is that it is interactive. For the first time in the history, groups like the Islamic State could interact with their sympathizers and with their targets (Kuto, 2016).

According to Kuto the strength of terrorist attacks today is the amplification effect obtained through social media whereby terrorists hit their targets and at the same time use the technology to make propaganda to spread fear among wide audience worldwide. Shubik (2015) contends that the Internet, and generally speaking technology, is exploited by terrorist organizations for several purposes including: propaganda; psychological warfare; recruitment and mobilization; fundraising; data mining, information gathering; secure communications; cyber-attacks; software distribution (like mobile app); buying false documents; and training.

Social media platforms and forums are used by terrorist organizations to share propaganda and training material. It is possible to find any training material, including manuals for the preparation of chemical weapons and bombs in the internet (Smith, 2015). Experts have also discovered documents containing the instructions for
kidnappings and techniques of torture. Technology therefore assumes a crucial role for terrorists that also share manuals for optimizing the use of social media and communication platforms avoiding monitoring operated by Intelligence agencies (Worrell, 2016).

2.5.7 Social Networking

As Gurr (2016) indicates, the immediate reason for a disgruntled individual to join an organization is to increase his options for attaining the things he values or desires. While terrorists usually share certain concepts and worldviews, they generally lack a sense of purpose in life. By undergoing intense socialization, they try to find a sense of belonging and identity. Thus, they form cohesive groups or “networks,” a collection of nodes connected through links that in turn are attached to even more links called hubs which are important components of a terrorist network.

According to Waudo (2015), a few highly connected hubs make the architecture of the global jihad, for instance, Osama bin Laden or Khalid Sheik Mohammed, attracting and interconnecting networks while keeping in touch with their lieutenants in the field, forming a resilient network of networks that is difficult to break up. Visser (2014) posits that a network growing through the process of preferential attachment evolves into a “small-world” network structure. Barabasi argues that, unlike a hierarchical network that can be destroyed by eliminating its leadership, in a small-world network, a significant fraction of nodes can be randomly eliminated without affecting the integrity of structure as a whole. This flexibility injects resilience to terrorist movements. However, hubs are vulnerable because most communications go through them; though resilient to random arrests, the jihad movement suffers greatly due to the fragility of the hubs since it may spell the end of a network if large hubs suffer simultaneous disruptive attacks (Thompson, 2015).
The social bonds that these kinds of movements create are very strong. The nodes feel more tightly linked to each other instead than to society, becoming members of an “imagined community” without earthly connections or social restraints, in other words, it is a virtual society; this structure is very appealing to alienated, bored, or disenfranchised youths, for example in the Arab world and among expatriates in the West (Ferreira, 2016). Unfortunately, the jihad is not the imagined world of dreams these youths had hoped for and many of them end up becoming cannon fodder in the global struggle (Ndivo, 2015). Attraction to this violent abstract global movement based on virtual ties is more likely among alienated youths since they lack embeddedness in their own societies making it easier to chase the abstract and apocalyptic notions of a global war between good and evil – or “cosmic war” (Jürgensmeyer, 2015).

The pool of candidates may increase or decrease according to socio-political events, but in order for these nodes or cliques to join the global jihad, they need human bridges, peripheral social acquaintances that are crucial in the process of getting into the movement. These weak ties also play a central role in bringing enthusiasts to the jihad and it is a self-generating process from below rather than a recruitment drive from above (Fussey, 2014). Terrorist groups need motivated members, willing to fight and die so that a constant flow of new recruits is necessary to continue operating (Richards, 2016). The determination of these recruits is capital for group formation and for the success of their venture. Terrorist candidates undergo a process in which they discard their old values and, cut off from society, humiliated, alienated, and hopeless, they become vulnerable to recruiters who offer a new sense of purpose in life and lead them to a brave new world (Robson, 2015). Social forces might be difficult to resist; however, in the end, the individual must be held accountable for his rational choice.
2.5.8 Popular Support

Silke (2014) contends that insurgent leaders, terrorists, and guerrilla fighters tend to emphasize how crucial popular support is for succeeding in offsetting the superior resources of governments. The larger the groups that feel deprived, the greater the possibilities for mobilizing mass support. Support, either passive or active, can make or break a movement and acquiring this support demands considerable efforts, skills, and good organization (Neumayer, 2015). If accomplished, it translates in strength and resilience for the group that in turn can receive moral, political, material support, and/or sanctuary.

According to Otiso (2014), selective terrorist tactics against hated people or groups may increase popular support. This particular tactic has heretofore yielded successful results to al-Qaeda in its fight against the West (Postuma, 2016). The use of terrorism by groups who seek to address particular grievances has long been tried. However, the terrorism venture runs the risk of being counterproductive since it can turn life miserable for the general population and if it becomes indiscriminate, these groups can end up alienating potential domestic and international supporters. Though emotions are a poor guide to policy, they fan the flames of terrorism. The terrorist message must be appealing to the masses in order to garner support since its ultimate goal is to effect change (Mensah, 2014). Political legitimacy is at stake when terrorist groups convince the population that violence is allegedly the only way to address grievances and this rationale of “fighting for a right cause” provides the moral justification for its use (Kuto, 2015).

A study by Weber (2015) notes that the necessary condition of an entity to be considered a state is to retain the monopoly on the legitimate use of violence over its territory. Using terrorism to erode the strength of a state shows citizens that the government cannot effectively control its territory and protect them. The key is to find
the right balance as to not alienate the population and this goes for terrorist groups as much as for government forces (Krejcie, 2015). Terrorists can organize attacks just to provoke government reprisals against the population, calculating that these actions will increase public support to their cause as a reaction, aided with some propaganda efforts, dramatizing the reaction and associating it with the ruling authorities (Henderson, 2014). However, if the population remains unresponsive, there is always the final technique of coercion to force them into compliance.

Coercion represents the weakest strategy since it usually spurs popular resentment and the terrorists’ legitimacy claim is called into question (Koroma, 2014). The technological advances and the globalization phenomenon have helped to boost the reach of terrorist groups and their ability to send their message without filters across entire regions, thus enhancing their proselytizing capabilities (Murat, 2016). Murat contends that the new century will bring even more breakthroughs that terrorist groups and states will use. The most adroit side in the use of new technologies will have the upper hand. Governments need to appeal to public opinion in more compelling ways and use their superior resources in order to thwart terrorist efforts through the delegitimization of violence as a tool of political discourse.

2.5.9 Strong Organization

According to Hared (2015), organizational skills are vital for every movement. Support for a cause will depend on these skills; groups know it and invest a great amount of time and effort in their organizational endeavors since the lifespan of the organization will be determined by the effectiveness of using their assets cogently. The most important asset of a group is its human resources and the skills of the leader will be paramount in identifying, integrating, and coordinating their different tasks and roles essential for success in combat operations, training, logistics, transportation,
communications, and other areas of the organization (Fisher, 2017).

The most resilient terrorist groups enjoy longevity because of the strength of their organizations to carry out their strategies and accomplish their objectives; be it fundraising, propaganda efforts, or combat operations and their adaptability to change according to the circumstances (Easton, 2014). For instance, organizational development must accompany the escalation of violence; lack of discipline, poor training, deficient coordination, wrong or insufficient equipment can ruin the group’s efforts and are a sign of trouble for the whole organization. One of the main goals of a properly-run organization is to promote and maintain the cohesion of the group. Unifying the effort is the basic principle behind effective strategy, planning, tactics and organization (Mak, 2016).

Competing for recruits and lack of unity often give governments opportunities to infiltrate the groups and create even greater dissension, exacerbating differences between factions as the case of the Palestine Liberation Organization (PLO) infiltrated by Israeli security agencies illustrates (Coulter, 2015). Disunity can be caused by teleological, theoretical, or strategic differences; though intertwined, the three are distinct. The first cause can be deeply unsettling since it has to do with discord about the ultimate goal to pursue and these disagreements usually have their root causes in the theoretical realm. Consequently, it affects strategy definitions where ideas of how to develop the normative approach can clash leading to disputes (Edmonds, 2015).

Discord over strategy can influence decisively over the success or failure of a group; for example, decisions about the use of terrorism have provoked great disunity within Irish Republican Army (IRA) and Spanish ETA and stand out as prime examples of disagreement and defections due to disputes over the use of violence (Sturman, 2013). A picture of disunity and weakness can be fatal for an organization. Conflict between
groups can dissuade people from joining and sap the movement’s overall strength. Although nothing can guarantee success, the higher the level of group cohesion, the more chances it will have to carry out its strategies victoriously and accomplish the objectives of the organization.

### 2.5.10 Crime

Although both terrorism and crime use violence to meet their goals, crime is different from terrorism (Hamm, 2015). There are two general distinctions. First, crime is driven by the profit and risk reduction motives while terrorism is driven by ideology and it may lead terrorists to ignore risk in pursuit of the political end; second, criminal groups rely entirely on defined, structured organization while terrorism can be practiced by individuals or very small groups and terrorist organizations are prone to mutate (Cilliers, 2016). Yet the distinction between crime and terrorism does not mean that they cannot make common cause to reach their own objectives.

Money is always a great motivator and the terrorist venture can be costly (Flick, 2015). For example, a Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) estimate indicates that it cost Al Qaeda some thirty million dollars a year to sustain itself during the period preceding 9/11. Just as ordinary criminals do, petty theft, money laundering, smuggling, forgery, credit card theft and fraud, counterfeiting, drug trafficking, extortion, and kidnapping as a money-raising scheme have become staple features of the terrorist fund-raising repertoire (Dunkel, 2016). This “do-it-yourself organized crime” by terrorist networks has become an almost ubiquitous tool for terrorists, illustrated by the example of Tamils in Canada, who have been involved in such diverse crimes as drug trafficking and credit card fraud, in order to send a significant part of the profits back to Sri Lanka for the Tamil Tigers (Watermann, 2015).

With the end of the Cold War came also a decrease in formal state sponsorship of
terrorism, which in turn forced terrorist organizations to find new sources of alternative sources of funding and many of them found in criminal organizations their solution (Hillier, 2014). In order to support their ideological goals, terrorist organizations have learned to be pragmatic and often engaged directly in money laundering as well as selling arms, narcotics, and people; in the way, some have gone so far as to replace ideology by rich profits (Woods, 2015). Unstable political conditions are perfect breeding grounds for crime and terrorism. Makarenko (2015) suggests that the environment of instability that protects a group’s criminal activities is sustained for the sole purpose of profit-seeking as it is the case with Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia, the Kosovo Liberation Army (KLA), and the Islamic Movement of Uzbekistan (IMU).

The difficulty of finding and tracking the movement of terrorist money is still another major limitation regarding counterterrorism efforts (Stanley, 2014). Terrorists use the normal banking system where their transactions are very hard to distinguish from legitimate business activities and financial transfers. Thus, steps have been taken in a number of countries to designate individuals, charities, and entities believed implicated in terrorism financing. Although significant progress has been made since 9/11, partly through stricter banking operational procedures, the use of personal couriers by terrorists and the extended Middle Eastern informal remittance system known as hawala constitute a network that is literally impossible to stop (Eric, 2013).

Due to globalization, geography no longer matters as it did before. As in the world of legitimate commerce, criminals and terrorists are taking advantage of the globalization of financial, commercial, transportation and communications networks to improve their reach (Bruce, 2015). Criminal and terrorist networks are joining forces regardless of borders and using every advantage technologies can offer to increase their profits and lower their risks. These unholy alliances strengthen the financial status of terrorist
groups, but also expose them to lose their justification for existence.

Fuller (2014) contends that it is an honest assessment to admit that state bureaucracies cannot compete with the flexibility and adaptability of these networks. On the other hand, although fighting crime and terrorism may seem an impossible undertaking, it is not. It is very difficult, indeed, but not impossible (Collin, 2013). The variables playing in favor or against government action are many and can change the outcome. In addition, disrupting the criminal and terrorist infrastructures and funding is the inescapable duty of the State due to the social contract with its citizens.

2.5.11 Fear

According to Fabian (2016), the fear factor is an ineluctable part of the power of terrorism. The psychological aspect is crucial for the terrorist and that sense of vulnerability and insecurity can be unsettling for any society. And nothing seems to incite that fear more strongly than the spectre of a chemical, biological, radiological, or nuclear (CBRN) attack (Gray, 2016). This angst fuels public fears and drives the strong psychological reaction that these weapons evoke. At the same time, it exerts pressure on policymakers; as Stern (2016) indicates that nations want to eradicate the risk entirely with little regard to cost unfortunately that is only wishful thinking.

The kind of weapons used to be considered morally reprehensible and they were taboo due to a mixture of social, religious, and moral constraints (Franklin, 2015). Franklin argues that starting in the 1990s, but particularly in this new century, the level of indiscriminate violence has reached levels not seen before. Consequently, society has gone from thinking about the possibility of a CBRN attack to the certainty that the day of a CBRN attack will ultimately come but it will not be as soon as many claim. Pavehouse (2014) stated that psychological effect of CBRN weapons is one of terrorism’s major advantages and strengthens its hand. Fortunately, CBRN terrorism still
has a long way to go because of delivery constraints. Powerfully attractive to those seeking apocalyptic destruction, these weapons have not rendered the fruits terrorists were looking for yet.

Falkenrath (2014) describes the reasonable assumption that at some stage there will be terrorist incidents involving weapons of mass destruction as “low-probability, high-consequence threat.” CBRN weapons are a real threat to society; however, fear should not get the best out of us. Western societies seem to be slipping into a state of mass psychosis fearing that a CBRN attack might be around the corner (Graham, 2015). Notes that people are enhancing the terrorists’ psychological coercive power by having allowed fear to cloud their analyses and assessments. In order to be effective in the counterterrorism measures, such programs need to be based on realistic estimates of the potential threat and strike a balance between likelihood and cost yet no state can provide one-hundred percent effective safeguards against attacks (Glenn, 2014).

2.6 Literature Gap

A review of the literature indicates that few studies have been conducted to address impact of terrorism international tourism in Kenya. (Mwangi, 2016). Ndyamukama and Machibya (2015) conducted a study on societal responses to terrorist attacks: a case study of Garissa County, Kenya. The study did not look at the effects of terrorism on hospitality sector. Kihara and Ngugi (2014) conducted a study on influence of terrorism risk on foreign tourism decisions. However, the study did not take into consideration the effect of terror attacks happening at the coastal region on international tourism. Nzuki (2015) conducted a study on unplanned tourism development in the sub-Saharan Africa with special reference to Kenya. The study did not look into the impact of terror on international tourism which makes it difficult to generalize the findings. Therefore, there
is need for a detailed study to be undertaken on the influence of terrorist activities on international tourism in Kenya.
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter has distinctive sections aimed to exhibit the procedures used to grasp this particular study with the target of answering the four specific objectives of the study. The segments are as follows: research design, population and sampling procedure, data collection methods, research procedures, data analysis methods and summary of the chapter.

3.1 Research Design

A research design refers to the overall strategy that a researcher choose to integrate the different components of the study in a coherent and logical way to ensuring the research problem is addresses effectively (Jameson, 2015). This study applied a causal-comparative research design. A causal-comparative design is a research design that seeks to find relationships between independent and dependent variables after an action or event has already occurred (Salkind, 2013). The study aimed to determine whether the independent variables (terrorist suicide attacks, terrorist kidnappings and predominant challenges in fighting terrorism) affects the outcome, or dependent variable (international tourism), by comparing responses from sampled groups of individuals. Experiments are the most popular primary data collection methods in studies with causal research design (Leedy, 2012).

3.2 Population and Sampling

Target population defined as the total of individuals from which a sample might be drawn. While a sample is defined as a group of people who take part in an examination (Bethwell, 2015).
The target population of the study was all the 125 employees of Travellers Beach Hotel (TBH) located along Malindi Road, Bamburi sub-locations in Mombasa County. Established in the year 2012, Travellers Beach Hotel is a world class beach resort and one of the four star hotels found at the coastal region. The hotel enjoys both local and foreign tourists (Travellers Beach Hotel, 2017). Like many other hotels in the coastal region, Travellers Beach Hotel has been at the epicenter of the bomb attacks in Mombasa County but as luck would have it, the Hotel has escaped the many attacks.

**Table 1: Target Population**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Employee population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operation managers</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waiters</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security officers</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>125</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sampling design is defined as a formation or a blueprint that helps in determining the sample size for a given examination (Derrickson, 2015). In addition, sample size is the number of units or persons that are chosen from which data will be gathered.

Sampling frame is a list of the items or people forming a population from which a sample is taken (Leedy, 2012). Therefore, a census of all the 125 staff members of the Hotel was considered for this research.

A sample is characterized as a gathering of individuals who partake in an examination (Bethwell, 2015). Owing to the small number of staff members in the hotel, the study conducted a census of all the 125 members to interview the following categories of individuals: Director, Operations managers, waiters, Managers and security...
The present study applied census owing to the fact that TBH has a small employee population. The sample size for the study was therefore the 125 staff members of the TBH. This sample size (125) was consistent with a study conducted by Russel (2001) which affirmed that a sample size should be of an adequate size regarding the objectives of the examination. According to Russel (2001), a sample size must be adequately immense that an effect of such significance as to be of consistent vitality will in like manner be genuinely colossal. However, a later study by Hum (2015) found that using an extreme number of individuals in an examination is exorbitant and adds a number of subjects to the sampling technique.

3.3 Data Collection Methods

This investigation utilized a questionnaire as the key instrument for primary data collection. A questionnaire as indicated by Lee (2013) is an arrangement of methodically organized inquiries utilized by a researcher to get required data from respondents. The questionnaire was administered to respondents through a survey monkey procedure. Survey Monkey as Dennis (2012) calls attention to, is an online advancement cloud-based programming established in 1999 by Ryan Finley. The questionnaire was composed of closed ended inquiries to inspire particular reactions for quantitative examination aimed to address: - the effect of terrorist suicide attacks on international tourism in Kenya; the effect of terrorist kidnappings on international tourism in Kenya; and the predominant challenges in fighting terrorism in Kenya.

A Likert scale approach was used in the data collection instrument to encourage participants’ attitudes to a topic. An agreement scale was used for the Likert Scale whereby the participants were provided with a series of statements to select 5 (Strongly Agree), 4 (Agree), 3 (Neutral), 2 (Disagree) or 1 (Strongly Disagree). The questionnaire
was organized into sections. The first section of the survey managed demographic characteristics, for example, age, gender, position and number of years worked for the organization under study. Alternate segment formed the inquiries tending to the three specific objectives. A maximum of 20 questions were sufficient for this study.

3.3 Secondary Data

To supplement to the primary data from the field, the researcher was able to gather information from different secondary sources. The researcher was able to get access to the interviews conducted by a media house that had managed to interview former members of the Al-Shabaab, international tourists and hotel staff. In addition, secondary data was collected by analyzing the literature in academic journals, policy documents, books, Kenyan newspapers, and academic papers on the research questions of this study.

3.4 Research Procedures

To ensure validity and reliability of the research instrument, a pre-test was conducted using a random sample of 10 individuals from TBH. Ten (10) individuals for the pre-test are picked based on a study conducted by Kathuri and Pals (2013) which proposed that this is the most unobtrusive number that yields significant results in data analysis in any research. A pre-test was conducted in order to ensure authenticity and unwavering quality of data collection instruments hence the motivation in conducting a pre-test for this study to figure out the quality of study questions, the clarity of the questions and the consistency in the responses.

3.4.1 Reliability Test

To determine the clarity of the questions and relevance of the questions and other errors that could affect reliability of the questionnaire, the pre-test results were subjected to the split-half analysis technique according to Cronbach’s formula; $\alpha = (N*r/1+ (N-1)*r)$
Where $N$ = number of items and $r$ is the average inter-item correlation among the items.

The study used Cronbach’s alpha as the reliability coefficient of at least 0.7 which was accepted (Santos & Reynaldo 2013). A reliability coefficient of 0.9 was obtained from the pre-test indicating that the questions used were non ambiguous, and relevant to the respondents.

### 3.4.2 Validity

Bozlu (2013) defined validity of data as the extent to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure. In the case of this study, the researcher applied face validity by asking participants to give their thoughts on the usefulness of the test. 80% of the respondents stated that they were confident that the questionnaire will lead to credible and relevant data. When asked whether the categories of respondents targeted will provide relevant information, 90% of the respondents were in agreement. For the pre-test, the questionnaire was physically administered by meeting the participants at the place of work. Respondents were prepared in advance while designing the survey from the point of view of the respondent to ensure high response rate. To ensure quality control, the pre-test was conducted to address any ambiguities in the research tool before the primary survey.

### 3.5 Data Analysis Methods

Data analysis is the process of evaluating data using analytical and logical reasoning to examine each component of the data provided (Dorant, 2015). Data was analyzed using Descriptive analysis, particularly Pearson’s Simple Correlation Analysis as well as inferential. The results obtained from the model were presented in tables to aid in interpretation and ease with which the inferential statistics was drawn.
3.6 Diagnostic Tests

Diagnostic Tests addresses the various forms of bias that may occur in research aiming to evaluate the accuracy (Rommel, 2013).

3.6.1 Normality Test

Chi-square normality test was applied in this study. Normality test compares the scores in the sample to a normally distributed set of scores with the same mean and standard deviation; the null hypothesis is that “sample distribution is normal.” If the test is significant, the distribution is non-normal (Willy, 2013).

3.6.2 Multicollinearity Test

Multicollinearity occurs when independent variables in a regression model are correlated. The current study tested for two Multicollinearity: Structural and Data multicollinearity. Structural multicollinearity occurs when a study creates a model term using other terms. It is a by-product of the model that a study specifies rather than being present in the data itself (Karim, 2015). For example, squaring term X to model curvature, clearly there is a correlation between X and X². Data multicollinearity is present in the data itself rather than being an artifact of the model. Observational experiments are more likely to exhibit this kind of multicollinearity (Arnold, 2013) like in the case with the current study.

3.6.3 AutoCorrelation Test

Autocorrelation, also known as serial correlation, is the correlation of a signal with a delayed copy of itself as a function of delay. The present study adopted Pearson’s simple correlation analysis to test autocorrelation between values of the process at different times. Informally, it is the similarity between observations as a function of the time lag between them. In statistics, the autocorrelation of a random process is the
Pearson correlation between values of the process at different times, as a function of the two times or of the time lag. Let $X$ be a random process, and $t$ be any point in time ($t$ may be an integer for a discrete-time process or a real number for a continuous-time process). Then, $X$ is the value (or realization) produced by a given run of the process at time $t$. Suppose that the process has mean $\mu_t$ and variance $\sigma_t^2$ at time $t$, for each $t$.

### 3.7 Ethical Consideration

The study observed confidentiality, non-forceful respondent compliance and anonymity of the respondent. Research approval was obtained from the United States International University (USIU) and field research permit was obtained from the National Council for Science and Technology. Before the interview begun, the researcher gave them a general explanation of the purpose of this study and asked them for their consent before the interviews begun.

### 3.8 Conclusion

Chapter three has examined the techniques used to gather information and the whole procedures to be used to get primary information of this study. The examination utilized Causal-comparative research design to determine the relationships between independent variables and dependent variable. The chapter has demonstrated that the target population for the study was the 125 staff members of the TBH based in Mombasa County. The examination conducted a census owing to the small number of the staff. The chapter has also detailed the procedures carried out to ensure data validity and reliability of the data collection instrument by conducting a pilot study.

The following chapter (chapter four) discusses the statistical data points gathered by the researcher of this thesis to fulfill the goals of the examination (the outcomes), discourse and translation of discoveries.
CHAPTER FOUR: ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses research findings of the study which was aimed to examine the influence of terrorist activities on international tourism in Kenya between 2008-2018: Using the case study of Traveller’s Beach Hotel, Mombasa County. The chapter also presents the analysis of the findings guided by the questionnaire responses. The analyses was divided into the following sections: - The first section (Section A) investigated respondents’ demographic properties, second part (Section B) inquired about the effect of terrorist attacks on international tourism in Kenya. While section C broke down the effect of terrorist kidnappings on international tourism in Kenya. The last part (Section D) specified the predominant challenges in fighting terrorism in Kenya. Coding and gathering of reactions was embraced for simplicity of investigation and elucidation.

4.1 Reliability Analysis

To ensure that the scores obtained using the questionnaire were reliable, coding was done and then verification of the scores. Next, the international tourism scores were calculated for each variable and the results are reported in Table 2 below. According to Table 2, the overall Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient for the questionnaire was 0.797 which was also considered reliable for further analysis. All respondents to the questionnaire were promised anonymity and confidentiality when analyzing the results.
Table 2: Cronbach’s Alpha Test Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Average inter-item covariance</th>
<th>Number of items in the scale</th>
<th>Scale reliability coefficient:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Terrorist Attacks</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorist Kidnappings</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorist Threats</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenges in Fighting Terrorism</td>
<td>0.050</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.569</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.797</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 Response Rate

The investigation focused on 125 participants whereby 125 individuals sampled to participate in this examination, all were available and 125 polls were controlled through a Survey Monkey procedure. 70 polls were finished viably and were usable for examination. At the point when there is a distinction between returned versus usable polls, analysts ought to use the quantity of usable surveys as the numerator in ascertaining reaction rate. Hence, the reaction rate for this exploration was 56 percent.

4.3 Respondents’ Demographics

When analyzing respondents’ demographics, four (4) themes were focused which included age, gender, level of education, position and number of years worked for the hotel as presented in the subsequent sections below.

Table 3 below shows that the most significant level of respondents (45.71%) were inside the age class of 30-39 years, trailed by the 40-49 years arrangement (21.43%). 20-29 years of age class came third with 20%. The results showed that just
12.86% of the participants had accomplished the age of at least 50. The findings could mean that Travellers Beach Hotel is dominated by youthful employees.

The revelations are in consistent with Munyua (2012) who found that most youths (below 35 years) in Kenya dominate the work exhibits over all sectors. Age was vital to the examination as it depicts that generational diversity has a strong effect on the productivity of the hospitality sector which in turn affects international tourism business in Kenya.

Table 3: Distribution of Respondents by Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>45.71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>21.43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 and above</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12.86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1 below shows that out of the 70 respondents engaged during data collection, more than half (63%) were men while 37% were female. This goes to mean that the Hotel under investigation is dominated by male employees. The study outcomes relate to the findings of another study conducted by Barbara (2015) that sixty four percent of the employees working in the hotels were males compared to 36% of the employees who were female, however, Barbara established that front office department had the highest number of female employees compared to male employees. Gender was important in this research because different genders potentially bring diverse attributes and thinking styles which are important for in-depth exploration of the topic under research.
Results in Table 4 below exhibits the levels of education of the respondents thus indicating that the prevailing part of respondents engaged had achieved a degree (30, 43%), trailed by Masters Level (20, 28%). 18 (26%) of the respondents met were found to have accomplished an affirmation/diploma. The outcomes demonstrate that majority of the respondents were diploma graduates and above. This demonstrates most workers in the Hotel are either degree holders (43%), master’s holders (28%) or diploma (26%) holders. This also goes to mean that the Hotel recruits its employees based on education qualifications. The level of education was key to this examination in light of the fact that informed respondents have higher ability in handling information and can settle on substantive choices and along these lines education level can impact growth of the international tourism business in Kenya.
Table 4: Frequency Distribution of Respondents by Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masters Bachelor’s Degree</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>43.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>26.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>70</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The discoveries in Table 5 below uncover that most critical level of respondents (76%) had worked for Travellers Beach Hotel for a period of between 6 and 10 years when this study was being conducted. Another study was conducted on 20% of the respondents who had worked for the Hotel for a period between 3 and 5 years when this examination was being attempted. Only 4% of the individuals had worked for the Hotel for a period under 2 years within the period of data gathering. The disclosures in table 5 revealed that no respondent had worked for the Hotel for more than ten years in the midst of the period of the research. This infers that most of the individuals knew a significant measure about the Hotel industry and could thusly give dependable information about the influence of terrorists’ activities on the international tourism business in Kenya.
Table 5: Frequency Distribution of Respondents by Tenure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration (years)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4 Response on Terrorist Attacks

In addressing the first specific objective, this section sought to determine the effect of terrorist attacks on international tourism in Kenya. Participants were required to establish their degree of agreement/disagreement concerning terrorist suicide attacks on a scale of 1-5: (5- Strongly agree; 4-Agree; 3-Neutral; 2- disagree; 1- strongly disagree).

Results in Table 6 indicate that the highest number of respondents expressed that terrorist attacks have affected the way they feel about their job (mean = 3.91). What’s more discoveries uncovers that a noteworthy rate (mean = 3.87) of the respondents expressed that due to suicide attacks foreign nations issue travel advisories which have affected the hotel business. A lion’s share of the participants were of the view that terrorism activities affect the cost of operating tourist business (mean = 3.81).

What’s more, respondents stated that terrorist attacks have affected the way they felt about their job (mean = 3.70). Finally, the results also shows that Hotels are the riskiest places for foreign tourists to be attacked (mean = 3.33).

These findings goes to mean that terrorist activity at a tourism destination causes
potential tourists to drop their plans. The results are in line with another study conducted by Swarbrooke (2013) which states that travellers prefer to go to a place that has no implications of being violent in any way.

This is also supported by the findings of a study done by Crompton (2014) in Asia which found that the image people associate with a certain country plays a great role in helping them decide whether they should or should not travel there.

**Table 6: Response on Terrorist Attacks**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Due to terrorist attacks foreign nations issue travel advisories which have affected the hotel business.</td>
<td>2.86%</td>
<td>8.57%</td>
<td>4.29%</td>
<td>67.14%</td>
<td>17.14%</td>
<td>3.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels are the riskiest places for foreign tourists to be attacked</td>
<td>12.86%</td>
<td>20.00%</td>
<td>5.71%</td>
<td>44.29%</td>
<td>17.14%</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorism activities affect the cost of operating tourist business.</td>
<td>2.86%</td>
<td>12.86%</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td>54.29%</td>
<td>22.86%</td>
<td>3.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorist attacks have affected the way I feel about my job</td>
<td>8.57%</td>
<td>15.71%</td>
<td>5.71%</td>
<td>37.14%</td>
<td>32.86%</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorist attacks have affected the way I feel about my job</td>
<td>4.29%</td>
<td>15.71%</td>
<td>4.29%</td>
<td>35.71%</td>
<td>40.00%</td>
<td>3.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 below indicates that majority of the respondents stated that terrorist attacks have decreased foreign exchange (mean = 4.01). These findings therefore means that the Hotel industry will continue experiencing poor growth in the future if the trend remains constant.

More than half (mean = 4.00) of the participants stated that when security is on high alert in Mombasa, all international trips to Kenya and Mombasa are cancelled. This is also in line with another study conducted by Sindiga (2014) which revealed negative perceptions of Paris by online travellers because of terrorist events, which also affected other European destinations’ images overall.
Moreover, respondents were of the view that there is high cost in operating a tours business due to additional security cost (mean = 3.76). Further findings show that more than half (mean = 3.71) were of the view that terrorist activities normally take place on such places which are crowded and attractive for foreign tourists.

The results also show that suicide attacks generate fear to enter into international tourism business (mean = 3.70). These findings go to mean that international travellers are highly willing to substitute insecure destinations for secure ones once a situation has simmered down.

The findings are in line with a study done by Lewis (2014) which has shown that the risk-averse behaviour of tourists and their reluctance to travel to an unsafe destination. The study stated that tourists’ risk perception of a destination is significant to form a destination image. The negative tourist destination image formed due to the lack of safety in the destination may harm the development of the tourism industry. The study documented that high terrorist crime rates constitute to negative images formed by travellers and subsequently lead to the decline in tourist arrivals. This is supported by a previous study conducted by Ryan (2016) showing that the terrorist attacks has a significant negative relationship with the number of tourist arrivals.
Table 7: Response on Terrorist Attacks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Terrorist activities normally take place on such places which are crowded and attractive for foreign tourists.</td>
<td>10.00%</td>
<td>11.43%</td>
<td>5.71%</td>
<td>42.86%</td>
<td>30.00%</td>
<td>3.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorist attacks generate fear to enter into international tourism business.</td>
<td>15.71%</td>
<td>5.71%</td>
<td>4.29%</td>
<td>41.43%</td>
<td>32.86%</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When security is on high alert in Mombasa, all international trips to Kenya and Mombasa are cancelled.</td>
<td>10.00%</td>
<td>4.29%</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td>32.86%</td>
<td>45.71%</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorist attacks have decreased foreign exchange.</td>
<td>2.86%</td>
<td>8.57%</td>
<td>5.71%</td>
<td>50.00%</td>
<td>32.86%</td>
<td>4.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is high cost in operating a tours business due to additional security cost.</td>
<td>8.57%</td>
<td>14.29%</td>
<td>2.86%</td>
<td>41.43%</td>
<td>32.86%</td>
<td>3.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5 Response on Terrorist Kidnappings

In this area, the study sought to establish the effect of terrorist kidnappings on international tourism in Kenya. Respondents were requested to state their level of agreement/disagreement concerning effect of terrorist kidnappings on a scale of 1-5: (5-Strongly agree; 4-Agree; 3-Neutral; 2-disagree; 1-strongly disagree).

The findings in Table 8 below show that quite a number of the respondents demonstrated that tour operating companies in Mombasa has dropped (mean = 3.89); and that terrorists use foreign tourists to carry out financial transactions (mean = 3.89). The findings goes to mean that dissident groups have become more active and more established at the coastal region and so they use kidnappings of tourists and business people to support and fund their activities through ransom payments.

Be that as it may, quite a big number of respondents stated that terrorist kidnappings end up to Death of victim (mean = 3.83). This could imply that tourist-kidnapping incidents have decreased the number of tourist arrivals in Mombasa.
significantly. Similarly, a study done by Bowen (2014) notes that terrorism kidnapping incidents led to a dramatic decline of Chinese and Taiwanese tourist arrivals into Malaysia after a Taiwanese man was killed and his wife was kidnapped by a group of gunmen after being attacked in the resort; and a Chinese tourist and a Filipino hotel employee.

Further findings indicate that most respondents concurred that foreign tourists are exposed to dangers of tourist kidnappings than local tourists (mean = 3.80). The discoveries could mean that tourist-kidnapping incidents are the key contributing factor to the decline in international arrivals at the coastal region.

Table 8 also shows that terrorist kidnappers demand high amounts of ransom payment from foreigners which threaten international visits (mean = 3.67). This findings are in line with the earlier findings of Samuel (2014) who contends that the large sum of money spent as ransom payment could affect the state economy drastically, as it could have been used for meaningful economic development. Also, out of fear international travellers tend to stay clear from the affected regions or zones and the adverse effect is always on the economy.
Table 8: Response on Terrorist Kidnappings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tour operating companies in Mombasa has dropped.</td>
<td>2.86%</td>
<td>14.29%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>57.14%</td>
<td>25.71%</td>
<td>3.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorist Kidnappings demand high amounts of Ransom payment from foreigners which threaten international visits.</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td>15.71%</td>
<td>4.29%</td>
<td>48.57%</td>
<td>24.29%</td>
<td>3.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorist Kidnappings end up to Death of victim.</td>
<td>5.80%</td>
<td>17.39%</td>
<td>5.80%</td>
<td>30.43%</td>
<td>40.58%</td>
<td>3.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorists use foreign tourists to carry out financial transactions.</td>
<td>5.71%</td>
<td>11.43%</td>
<td>5.71%</td>
<td>42.86%</td>
<td>34.29%</td>
<td>3.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign tourists are exposed to dangers of tourist kidnappings than local tourists.</td>
<td>2.86%</td>
<td>17.14%</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td>42.86%</td>
<td>30.00%</td>
<td>3.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 below reveals that the highest number of respondents (mean = 4.00) were of the view that employment opportunity by tour operator companies in Mombasa has declined. This goes to mean that the region will suffer from loss of tourism revenues and in reduction of future stock capital or foreign direct investment if the trend continues in the future. Furthermore, majority of the respondents stated that majority of foreign victims of kidnappings or their families are economically stable (mean = 3.97). This could mean that terrorists’ kidnappers target international travellers from the first world economies for hefty ransom.

Moreover, the findings show that the respondents were of the view that there is change of foreign tourist behaviour due to risk of being kidnapped (mean = 3.83). The results are supported by a study done by Crotts (2013) which found that tourist-kidnapping incidents had decreased the number of tourist arrivals in Malaysia significantly. This was evident by tourist arrivals in 2014 which decreased by 12.8 percent, or 358,720 number of arrivals, relative to tourist arrivals in 2013.

Further results depict that it is a challenge in recovering kidnap victims’ property
lost during kidnap ordeals (mean = 3.56). This goes to mean that terrorist kidnappings affect tourism sector and household economy.

### Table 9: Response on Terrorist Kidnappings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Majority of foreign victims of kidnappings or their families are economically stable.</td>
<td>8.57%</td>
<td>4.29%</td>
<td>1.43%</td>
<td>52.86%</td>
<td>32.86%</td>
<td>3.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment opportunity by tour operator companies in Mombasa has declined.</td>
<td>4.29%</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td>1.43%</td>
<td>58.57%</td>
<td>28.57%</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is a challenge in recovering kidnap victims’ property lost during kidnap ordeals.</td>
<td>15.71%</td>
<td>8.57%</td>
<td>4.29%</td>
<td>47.14%</td>
<td>24.29%</td>
<td>3.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is change of foreign tourist behavior due to risk of being kidnapped.</td>
<td>8.57%</td>
<td>11.43%</td>
<td>4.29%</td>
<td>40.00%</td>
<td>35.71%</td>
<td>3.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 4.6 Response on Terrorist Threats

Here, the study sought to find out the effect of terrorist threats on international tourism in Kenya. Respondents were requested state their level of agreement/disagreement concerning terrorist threats on a scale of 1-5: (5 - Strongly agree; 4 - Agree; 3 - Neutral; 2 - disagree; 1 - strongly disagree).

Findings in Table 10 below indicate that the participants were of the opinion that foreign tourists are concerned about the recent terrorist attacks in Mombasa County (mean = 3.87). This could mean that the hoteliers in the region are underperforming and losing foreign exchange. This also goes to mean that tourists’ risk perception of a destination is significant to form a destination image.

Moreover, it has been found that terrorist threats issued in the last one year in Mombasa county has seen cancellation of international trips to Kenya (mean = 3.76), and that terrorist threats have affected the cost of running a hotel business. The findings mean that safety is a pre-requisite for the success of the tourism industry, and the mere threat of events can cause tourists to rethink their decision to visit a destination.
The findings show that respondents were of the view that terrorist threats have led to travel advisories that greatly reduce foreign tourist activities in the county (mean = 3.74). This is in line with a study done by Sun and Molina (2013) which noted that terrorist activity at a tourism destination causes potential tourists to drop their plans. Furthermore, the study notes that perception of tourists about a certain travel destination also gets affected when terrorists target a location having the least chance of terrorist activities.

Findings also show that a high number of the respondents were of the opinion that foreign tourists hesitate in visiting a destination that is subject to terrorist activities in future (mean = 3.67), and that Mombasa county is at great risk in regards to facing terrorism in the near future (mean = 3.67). This goes to mean that the image people associate with a certain country plays a great role in helping them decide whether they should or should not travel there.
Table 10: Response on Terrorist Threats

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Terrorist threats have affected the cost of running a hotel business.</td>
<td>8.57%</td>
<td>11.43%</td>
<td>5.71%</td>
<td>44.29%</td>
<td>30.00%</td>
<td>3.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorist threats issued in the last one year in Mombasa county has seen cancellation of international trips to Kenya.</td>
<td>8.57%</td>
<td>11.43%</td>
<td>4.29%</td>
<td>47.14%</td>
<td>28.57%</td>
<td>3.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorist threats have led to travel advisories that greatly reduce foreign tourist activities in the county.</td>
<td>5.71%</td>
<td>10.00%</td>
<td>10.00%</td>
<td>52.86%</td>
<td>21.43%</td>
<td>3.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign tourists are concerned about the recent terrorist attacks in Mombasa county.</td>
<td>11.43%</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td>4.29%</td>
<td>37.14%</td>
<td>40.00%</td>
<td>3.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign tourists hesitate in visiting a destination that is subject to terrorist activities in future.</td>
<td>12.86%</td>
<td>11.43%</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td>32.86%</td>
<td>35.71%</td>
<td>3.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign tourists believe that Mombasa county is at great risk in regards to facing terrorism in the near future.</td>
<td>8.57%</td>
<td>11.43%</td>
<td>4.29%</td>
<td>40.00%</td>
<td>35.71%</td>
<td>3.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.7 Response on Predominant Challenges in Fighting Terrorism

This area sought to determine the predominant challenges in fighting terrorism in Kenya. Respondents were requested to state their level of agreement/disagreement concerning challenges in fighting terrorism on a scale of 1-5: (5- Strongly agree; 4-Agree; 3-Neutral; 2- disagree; 1- strongly disagree).

Discoveries in Table 11 below uncovers that majority of the respondents were of the view that lack of adequate trained security personnel was a challenge in fighting terrorism in the region (mean = 3.90).

In addition, respondents stated inadequate procedures laid out all over the hotel sector on how to react in case of a terrorist attack on the hotel as a challenge in fighting terrorism (mean = 3.88). Nonetheless, some differ and others stayed undecided. This
goes to mean that more terrorist activities will be experienced in the region if the trend remains constant in the future.

Be that as it may, the findings indicate that respondents were of the supposition that there is unclear coordination with security forces such as CID and NSIS on terrorism related issues in the region (mean = 3.86). In addition, Table 11 indicates that respondents were of the supposition that the government does not conduct drills in preparation of future terroristic attacks (mean = 3.69). The findings also show that participants stated that there is lack of education to employees on terrorism related issues (mean = 3.62).

These findings are supported by earlier studies done by Kiprono (2013); and Wasawe (2014) which established under-funding of critical institutions tasked with countering terrorism and failure by the government to embrace modern technology especially in the Police service and the Immigration Department was found to be a contributing factor to this in-efficacy. Lack of proper tools and equipment for security agencies as well as in-adequate training were also pointed out by the study as another major challenge.
Table 11: Response on Predominant Challenges in Fighting Terrorism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of adequate trained security personnel.</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td>11.43%</td>
<td>1.43%</td>
<td>44.29%</td>
<td>35.71%</td>
<td>3.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is lack of education to employees on terrorism related issues.</td>
<td>14.49%</td>
<td>7.25%</td>
<td>13.04%</td>
<td>31.88%</td>
<td>33.33%</td>
<td>3.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate procedures laid out all over the hotel sector on how to react in case of a terrorist attack on the hotel.</td>
<td>7.25%</td>
<td>7.25%</td>
<td>7.25%</td>
<td>46.38%</td>
<td>31.88%</td>
<td>3.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is unclear coordination with security forces such as CID and NSIS on terrorism related issues.</td>
<td>2.90%</td>
<td>14.49%</td>
<td>7.25%</td>
<td>44.93%</td>
<td>30.43%</td>
<td>3.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The government does not conduct drills in preparation of future terroristic attacks.</td>
<td>12.86%</td>
<td>12.86%</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td>27.14%</td>
<td>40.00%</td>
<td>3.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12 below indicates that the greater part of the participants expressed poor formulation and implementation crisis and lack of contingency plans in advance as a challenge in countering terrorism (mean = 4.00). Similarly, a study by Sayre (2014) lay blame on the state for neglecting its security personnel in terms of pay, housing and general welfare thereby making them a de-motivated lot. High levels of unemployment which have made the youth an easy prey for terrorist groups also came out as a factor in the study. This is alongside radicalization and religious factors.

Table 12 uncovers that a noteworthy rate of the respondents were of the view that there are minimum efforts by various stakeholders in preventing terrorist activities from occurring in the future (mean = 3.94).

In addition, Table 12 also shows that respondents expressed that lack of clear roadmap to eliminate corruption in government agencies was a challenge in fighting terrorism (mean = 3.84). This goes to mean that Kenya will continue to face a continued threat of terrorism and will have to remain focused on this fight for some time to come. The
findings are supported by a recent study done by Waweru (2015) which noted that the best way to combat terrorism is to have well-trained and honest security forces committed to serving justice through established legal means.

Finally, respondents were of the view that there is poor enactment and ineffective implementation of anti-terrorism kidnapping laws (mean = 3.76). Finally, respondents were of the view that there is inadequate knowledge and infrastructure by security agencies to deal with terrorist kidnappings (mean =3.74).

A study done by Oseme (2014) noted that despite the effort by African States in combating terror, there are still deficiencies in the area of intelligence, for instance most of intelligence information are received from foreign intelligence about impending attack and in most cases such intelligence are generalized and thus makes it a difficult task to identify specifically the area of potential attack.
Table 12: Response on Predominant Challenges in Fighting Terrorism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There are minimum efforts by various stakeholders in preventing terrorist activities from occurring in the future.</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td>4.29%</td>
<td>47.14%</td>
<td>34.29%</td>
<td>3.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is inadequate knowledge and infrastructure by security agencies to deal with terrorist kidnappings.</td>
<td>8.57%</td>
<td>11.43%</td>
<td>1.43%</td>
<td>54.29%</td>
<td>24.29%</td>
<td>3.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is poor enactment and effective implementation of anti-terrorism kidnapping laws.</td>
<td>11.43%</td>
<td>14.29%</td>
<td>1.43%</td>
<td>32.86%</td>
<td>40.00%</td>
<td>3.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of clear roadmap to eliminate corruption in government agencies.</td>
<td>11.43%</td>
<td>7.14%</td>
<td>5.71%</td>
<td>32.86%</td>
<td>42.86%</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor formulation and implementation crisis and lack of Contingency plans in advance.</td>
<td>8.70%</td>
<td>1.45%</td>
<td>7.25%</td>
<td>46.38%</td>
<td>36.23%</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.8 Regression

Regression was used to determine which among the three independent variables: suicide attacks, kidnappings and terrorist threats are significantly related to the dependent variable which is: International tourism business. When a coefficient is equal to zero means no effect/ null hypothesis. A positive predictive value implies likeliness to have a consequence on International tourism business in Kenya, while negative predictive value implies not likely to have a consequence on International tourism business in Kenya.

Regression analysis is a statistical process for estimating the relationships among variables (Branco, 2013). This method has been developed considerably. The regression model used was as follows:

\[
\text{ITB} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{suicide attacks} + \beta_2 \text{kidnappings} + \beta_3 \text{terrorist threats} + \varepsilon
\]

Where: ITB is the International Tourism Business scores, \( \varepsilon \) is the error term.

Table 13 below is the output for the SPSS ANOVA procedure to compare the means of the four variables with International tourism business in Kenya. Results in
Table 13 shows that R-squared = 0.179 or 17.9% variations in International tourism business in Kenya is explained by: Suicide attacks, Kidnappings by terrorists, Terrorists’ threats and Challenges in fighting terrorist threats. This means that the hotel industry is being influenced by the terrorists’ activities in the region.

**Table 13: Model Summary**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Square</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.423\textsuperscript{a}</td>
<td>0.179</td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>0.632</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{a} Predictors: (Constant), Suicide attacks and international tourism business in Kenya; Kidnapping and international tourism business in Kenya; Terrorists’ threats and international tourism business in Kenya; Challenges in fighting terrorist threats and international tourism business in Kenya.

Form the results in Table 14 below, international tourism business in Kenya differed significantly among the four variables, $F (2, 73) = 3.187$, $p > 0.01$. This could mean that international tourism business in Kenya may be experiencing all the terrorism activities at different levels of business operations or in different time frames.
Table 14: ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>6.364</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.273</td>
<td>3.187</td>
<td>0.012b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>29.155</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>0.399</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35.519</td>
<td>78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: International Tourism Business in Kenya

b. Predictors: (Constant), Suicide attacks and international tourism business in Kenya; Kidnapping and international tourism business in Kenya; Terrorists’ threats and international tourism business in Kenya; Challenges in fighting terrorist threats and international tourism business in Kenya.

The results in Table 15 below shows that international tourism business in Kenya was most significant in Challenges in fighting terrorist threats (B = 0.164) and less significant in Suicide attacks; and Kidnapping terrorists (B = -0.242 and -0.079 respectively).

This is supported by earlier results that challenges to fight terrorism spawns from the varying conceptualization of radicalization, civil liberty abuses, shortfalls in terror combating expertise and as well as technicalities; and weaknesses of terror-financing and sponsorship tracking.
Table 15: Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95.0% Confidence Interval for B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>4.169</td>
<td>0.685</td>
<td>6.087</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.804</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>0.146</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>0.285</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suicide attacks and international tourism in Kenya.</td>
<td>-0.242</td>
<td>0.079</td>
<td>-0.353</td>
<td>3.065</td>
<td>-3.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kidnapping and international tourism in Kenya.</td>
<td>-0.079</td>
<td>0.122</td>
<td>-0.107</td>
<td>0.652</td>
<td>-0.652</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorists’ threats and international tourism in Kenya.</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>0.164</td>
<td>0.031</td>
<td>0.189</td>
<td>0.189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenges in fighting terrorist threats.</td>
<td>0.164</td>
<td>0.090</td>
<td>0.194</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.819</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Dependent Variable: International tourism business in Kenya*

Table 16 below shows a strong positive correlation (0.313) between suicide attacks and International tourism business in Kenya which means that suicide attacks is strongly associated with the International tourism business in Kenya. This goes to mean that the hotel industry in the region has suffered poor performance due to terrorists’ attacks in the region.

In addition, there is a moderate positive correlation between Terrorists’ Threats and International tourism business in Kenya which indicates that Terrorists’ Threats has sizeable but not overwhelming effect on the International tourism business in Kenya.
Table 16: Spearman’s Correlation Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Tenure</th>
<th>Suicide Attacks</th>
<th>Kidnappings by Terrorists</th>
<th>Terrorists’ Threats</th>
<th>Challenges in Fighting Terrorism</th>
<th>International tourism business in Kenya</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spearman’s rho</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenure</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.313**</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>-.048</td>
<td>-.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>.382</td>
<td>.698</td>
<td>.857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suicide Attacks</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>.313**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-.187</td>
<td>-.228</td>
<td>-.085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.125</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>.487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kidnappings by Terrorists</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>-.187</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.807**</td>
<td>-.095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.125</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorists’ Threats</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>-.048</td>
<td>-.228</td>
<td>.807**</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenges in Fighting Terrorism</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>-.022</td>
<td>-.085</td>
<td>-.095</td>
<td>-.015</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.487</td>
<td>.439</td>
<td>.900</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International tourism business in Kenya</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>.099</td>
<td>-.329**</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td>.231</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.775</td>
<td>.678</td>
<td>.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation coefficient is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 17 below shows Multivariate Factor Analysis used to determine presence of Multicollinearity among the study variables. Multicollinearity refers to the presence of very high inter-correlated or inter-associations among the independent variables which can wreak havoc on the analysis and thereby limit the research conclusions.

Based on the coefficients output in table 17, Collinearity Statistics obtained Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) value between 1 and 10. Which goes to mean that there is no Multicollinearity symptoms within the independent variables used in the study.

In addition, the results show the strongest relationship is between Suicide attacks
and International tourism business in Kenya (sig = 0.853), whereas there is no relationship between Terrorists’ threats and International tourism business in Kenya. This is in line with Ginkel, (2014) who contends that the closer the correlation is to 1.0, the stronger the relationship between the two variables while a correlation of 0.0 indicates the absence of a relationship.

Table 17: Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Collinearity Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tolerance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>3.402</td>
<td>.494</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suicide attacks</td>
<td>-.010</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>-.018</td>
<td></td>
<td>.853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kidnappings by terrorists.</td>
<td>-.055</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>-.075</td>
<td></td>
<td>.429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terrorists’ threats</td>
<td>.250</td>
<td>.068</td>
<td>.384</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenges in fighting terrorism</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.081</td>
<td></td>
<td>.451</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International tourism business in Kenya</td>
<td>-.010</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>-.014</td>
<td></td>
<td>.892</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| a. Dependent Variable: International tourism business in Kenya

Results in Table 18 below show an average (median) International tourism business in Kenya (ITB) score of 47.1% (45.8%) which is relatively normally distributed as shown by the Skewness and Kurtosis coefficients of 0.103 and 2.176. The Jarque-Bera statistic for ITB (not reported) was 0.902 with a significance of 0.637, providing a further confirmation that the International tourism business in Kenya variable was relatively normally distributed. According to the findings, the minimum ITB is 16.7% while the maximum ITB is 75.0% implying that the Travellers Beach Hotel has suffered poor growth due to terror attacks in the region albeit the huge range in ITB. The descriptive statistics show that the average (median) Terrorists Threats for the Hotel under investigation was 37.2% (16.1%). This means that presence or absence of Terrorists Threats would not make a difference in
the International tourism business in Kenya. Results also show that the tenure of employees in the Hotel is quite high at 6.379.

Table 18: Normality test for the full sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dependent Variable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITB</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0.471</td>
<td>0.458</td>
<td>0.152</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>0.750</td>
<td>0.103</td>
<td>2.176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent Variables</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>57.267</td>
<td>17.000</td>
<td>67.345</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>225.00</td>
<td>1.228</td>
<td>3.184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0.700</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>0.466</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-0.873</td>
<td>1.762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0.372</td>
<td>0.161</td>
<td>0.398</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>1.010</td>
<td>0.835</td>
<td>1.799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIFT</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.332</td>
<td>2.312</td>
<td>7.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6.379</td>
<td>0.125</td>
<td>14.724</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>57.920</td>
<td>2.214</td>
<td>7.253</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.385

*ITB- International Tourism Business in Kenya; TA- Terrorists Attacks; K- Kidnappings by Terror groups; TT-Terrorists Threats; CIFT- Challenges in Fighting Terrorism; T- Tenure.*

4.9 Conclusion

Chapter four has analysed the primary findings and presented the results for each specific objective in tables and charts above. The analysis shows that indeed International Tourism Business in Kenya has been influenced by terrorists’ activities such as suicide attacks in Mombasa County, terrorists’ kidnappings, terrorists’ threats and the major challenges in fighting terrorism in the region.

The following chapter (chapter five) offers the conclusion and the recommendations.
CHAPTER FIVE: GENERAL CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

This is the final chapter of the study. It summarized the findings of the primary study, draws the conclusions based on the findings of the study, provided recommendations as well as insight in the areas for further research. The following specific objectives guided the chapter: to determine the effect of terrorist attacks on international tourism in Kenya; to establish the effect of terrorist kidnappings on international tourism in Kenya; and to determine the predominant challenges in fighting terrorism in Kenya.

5.1 Summary of Findings

The study identified that most of the respondents from the Hotel were a youthful age group. The study also established that more than half of the respondents interviewed are either a degree holder or a diploma holder. According to the findings of this study, the respondents agreed unanimously that terrorism activities affect the cost of operating tourist business. More than half of the respondents indicated that terrorist attacks have affected the way they feel about their job. The study has established that a terrorist attack at a tourism destination causes potential tourists to drop their plans.

The study also established that when security is on high alert in Mombasa, all international trips to Kenya and Mombasa are cancelled. More than half of the respondents agreed unanimously that suicide attacks generate fear to enter into international tourism business.

It was also determined that dissident groups have become more active and more established at the coastal region and so they use kidnappings of tourists and business people to support and fund their activities through ransom payments. More than half of the respondents demonstrated that tour operating companies in Mombasa has
dropped. In any case, quite a big number of respondents stated that terrorist kidnappings end up to Death of victim. Further findings indicate that foreign tourists are exposed to dangers of tourist kidnappings than local tourists. The study has established that terrorist threats issued in the last one year in Mombasa County has seen cancellation of international trips to Kenya.

Respondents were of the view that lack of adequate trained security personnel was a challenge in fighting terrorism in the region. The study has noted that inadequate procedures laid out all over the hotel sector on how to react in case of a terrorist attack on the hotel as a challenge in fighting terrorism.

5.2 Discussion of the findings

The study recognized that the vast majority of the respondents from the Hotel were a young age gathering. The research likewise settled that the greater part of the respondents met are either a degree holder or a diploma holder.

5.2.1 Terrorist Attacks and International Tourism in Kenya

As per the discoveries of this examination, the respondents concurred consistently that terrorists' attacks influence the expense of working vacationer business. The greater part of the respondents demonstrated that terrorist attacks have influenced the manner in which they feel about their activities. The study has set up that fear based terrorist assaults at a travel industry destination makes potential sightseers drop their arrangements. The study likewise settled that when security is on high caution in Mombasa, every single universal outing to Kenya and Mombasa are dropped. The greater part of the respondents concurred consistently that terror suicide assaults produce dread to go into universal travel industry business.

The outcomes are in accordance with another investigation directed by Swarbrooke (2013) which expresses that voyagers want to go to a spot that has no
ramifications of being brutal in any capacity. This is likewise in accordance with another examination led by Sindiga (2014) which uncovered negative view of Paris by online voyagers in light of fear based on terrorists attacks, which additionally influenced other European goals' pictures in general.

The discoveries are in accordance with a research done by Lewis (2014) who has demonstrated that the hazard unwilling conduct of visitors and their hesitance to head out to a hazardous destination. The investigation expressed that sightseers' hazard view of a destination is critical to shape a destination picture. The negative traveller destination image shaped because of the absence of wellbeing in the destination may hurt the advancement of the travel industry. The investigation archived that high fear based terrorists wrongdoing rates establish to negative image shaped by voyagers and in this way lead to the decrease in vacationer entries.

This is upheld by a past report directed by Ryan (2016) demonstrating that the terrorists’ attacks has a huge negative association with the quantity of vacationer landings. A writing audit led by Richter (2015) fights that the degree of movement scratch- offs varies incredibly relying upon the focused on destinations. For example, following the terrorist attacks on 9/11, the US government shut air terminals and dropped a large number of flights. Notwithstanding when the air terminals re-opened, sightseers were careful about air travel, and aircrafts experienced at any rate a 30% decrease sought after during the underlying stun period.

Likewise, a cross sectional investigation done by Waugh, (2014) noticed that the inception of where vacationers originate from together with the social predispositions sightseers carry on to the plane or train with them influences how they see travel dangers.
5.2.2 Terrorist Kidnappings and International Tourism in Kenya

It was discovered that dissident groups have turned out to be increasingly dynamic at the Kenyan coast and progressively settled at the beach front district thus they use kidnappings of foreign visitors and agents to finance their exercises through ransom installments.

The greater part of the respondents exhibited that international visits in Mombasa has declined. Regardless, a serious enormous number of respondents expressed that terrorist’s kidnappings end up to Death of injured individual. Further findings; demonstrate that outside vacationers are presented to risks of traveller kidnappings than neighborhood visitors. The study has demonstrated that work opportunity by tour operator organizations in Mombasa has declined which could imply that the County will experience the ill effects of loss of the travel industry incomes and in decrease of future stock capital or remote direct venture if the pattern proceeds later on.

Furthermore, the findings demonstrates that casualties of kidnappings or their families are monetarily steady which goes to imply that terrorists criminals target worldwide explorers from the developed world economies for weighty payoff. Besides the discoveries demonstrate that there is change of international visitor conduct because of danger of being kidnapped.

The findings are upheld by an investigation done by Crotts (2013) which found that visitor kidnapping occurrences had diminished the quantity of traveller landings in Malaysia fundamentally. This was clear by visitor landings in 2014 which diminished by 12.8 percent, or 358,720 number of entries, with respect to traveller landings in 2013. So also, an investigation done by Bowen (2014) takes note of that terrorists warfare of kidnapping prompted an emotional decay of Chinese and Taiwanese traveller entries into Malaysia after a Taiwanese man was slaughtered and his better half was grabbed by a
gathering of shooters in the wake of being assaulted in the retreat; and a Chinese visitor and a Filipino lodging worker.

The findings are in accordance with the prior findings of Samuel (2014) who fights that the huge amount of cash spent as payment for ransom could influence the state economy radically, as it could have been utilized for significant financial improvement. Additionally, out of dread global voyagers will in general remain clear from the influenced areas or zones and the antagonistic impact is dependably on the economy.

The financial impacts of kidnapping incorporate immediate and backhanded expenses (Maken, 2015). At the individual level, the expenses incorporate the financial estimation of cash that might be lost to kidnappers, while the circuitous monetary expense of abducting incorporate uses on preventive measures, for example, the work of private security faculty (Lori, 2014). At the administrative level, the financial impacts of grabbing include the consumption on security and security offices (Holloway, 2013).

5.2.3 Terrorist Threats and International Tourism in Kenya

This research has set up that terrorist threats issued over the last year, 2018, in Mombasa County has seen retraction of tourist arrivals to Kenya. The findings demonstrate that remote travellers dither in visiting a destination that is liable to fear based on terrorist threats in future. Furthermore, the study takes note of that impression of vacationers about a specific travel destination additionally gets influenced when terrorist threats focus on an area having minimal possibility of fear monger exercises.

This is in accordance with a study done by Sun and Molina (2013) which noticed that fear monger movement at a travel industry destination makes potential visitors drop their arrangements.

A research done by Stafford (2015) demonstrates how terrorist threats in a
transcendently Islamic nation against residents from a particular Western nation of birthplace, not only influence the travel industry to the nation in which the risk happens, or the travel industry from the unfortunate casualties’ nation of inception. Rather, the travel industry preventing impact overflow into other Islamic destination nations and other Western beginning nations. The decrease is bigger for sightseers from the nation whose natives have been murdered or harmed, yet vacationers from other Western nations are additionally hindered (Novelli, 2013). The outcomes recommend that voyagers effectively derive that if terrorist threats assault their kindred natives in a single nation, they likewise have an impetus to assault them in other comparable destination nations. Thus, vacationers from other Western starting point nations derive that they are bound to end up misled in that and other comparative destinations. Hence, terrorist threats on one gathering of Western visitors in a single nation will decrease the quantity of other Western sightseers that take occasions in other, comparative nations (Nayaran, 2015).

5.2.4 Challenges in Fighting Terrorism in Kenya

Respondents were of the view that absence of sufficient prepared security faculty was a challenge in battling terrorists’ attacks in the region. Hence this study noticed that lacking strategies spread out everywhere throughout the inn segment on the most proficient method to respond in the event of a terrorists’ attack on the hospitality sector as a challenge in battling terrorism. The findings show that respondents were of the supposition that there is indistinct coordination with security powers, for example, CID and NSIS on terrorism related issues in the area. The study demonstrates that poor detailing and usage emergency and absence of alternate courses of action ahead of time as a challenge in countering terrorists’ attacks. Poor sanctioning and powerful execution of against terrorists’ Kidnapping laws has been built up as a challenge in the
examination. At long last, the findings demonstrate that there is insufficient information and framework by security organizations to manage terrorists’ attacks and kidnappings.

These findings are bolstered by earlier concentrates done by Kiprono (2013); and Wasawe (2014) which set up under-financing of basic organizations entrusted with countering terrorists’ Kidnappings and disappointment by the administration to grasp present day innovation particularly in the Police administration and the Immigration Department was observed to be a contributing element to this in-viability. Absence of legitimate apparatuses and gear for security organizations just as in-sufficient preparing were additionally brought up by the investigation as another real challenge.

Also, an examination by Sayre (2014) lay fault on the state for ignoring its security work force as far as pay, hospitality and general welfare along these lines making them a de- roused parcel. Elevated amounts of joblessness which have made the adolescent a simple prey for terrorists’ radicalization likewise turned out as a factor in the examination. This is nearby radicalization and religious components. Waweru (2015) noticed that the most ideal approach to battle terrorism is to have well-prepared and legitimate security powers focused on serving equity through set up lawful methods.

The study done by Oseme (2014) noticed that regardless of the exertion by African States in fighting terror, there are still lacks in the region of knowledge, for example the greater part of intelligence data are gotten from outside knowledge about looming assault and as a rule such knowledge are summed up and hence makes it a troublesome assignment to recognize explicitly the territory of potential terrorists” attacks.

A writing survey of radicalization in Kenya battles that terrorists’ radicalization is a genuine risk with the objective of gathering for the activists shifting in age. As indicated by the audit, more than 200 youngsters as youthful as 12 years said to
experience radicalization in Mombasa have been safeguarded by security operators (Country Reports on Human Rights Practices, 2014). The Country Reports on Human Rights Practices (2014), study assesses that 255 people have left to join the terrorist groups since 2013. Notwithstanding, different reports may anyway give a sign that this figure could be higher as in Isiolo County in Eastern Kenya alone, an expected 200 youngsters were accounted for missing since 2014 and accepted to have traversed to Somalia (Sinai, 2014). The target group for the selection representatives are youngsters and youth between ages of 15-30 and for the most part young men.

5.3 Conclusions

In summary, it is evident from the research analysis that terrorism is a major global threat, perhaps the most significant threat of the new millennium. As the world becomes more technologically advanced, terrorism has arisen as a major setback to the advancement of the human race. Kenya, specifically, has been hard hit by terrorist attacks during the past twenty years or so. In 1998, Kenya experienced its first major terrorist hit when the US Embassy was bombed, resulting in hundreds of deaths and injuries. The next significant attack took place in 2013 at the Westgate Mall where hundreds were likewise killed. The most recent attack occurred this year in Garissa County where over 100 people lost their lives in a University.

5.3.1 Terrorists Attacks and International Tourism in Kenya

According to the findings of this study, the respondents agreed unanimously that terrorism activities affect the cost of operating tourist business. More than half of the respondents indicated that terrorist attacks have affected the way they feel about their job. It can be concluded that international travellers are highly willing to substitute insecure destinations for secure ones once a terror situation has simmered down.
5.3.2 Terrorists Kidnappings on International Tourism in Kenya.

The study has determined that dissident groups have become more active and more established at the coastal region and so they use kidnappings of tourists and business people to support and fund their activities through ransom payments. More than half of the respondents demonstrated that tour operating companies in Mombasa has declined. In any case, quite a big number of respondents stated that terrorist kidnappings end up to Death of victim. The study concludes that tourist-kidnapping incidents are a key contributing factor to the decline in international arrivals at the coastal region.

5.3.3 Terrorists Threats and International Tourism in Kenya.

The study has established that terrorist threats issued in the last one year in Mombasa County has seen cancellation of international trips to Kenya. The findings show that foreign tourists hesitate in visiting a destination that is subject to terrorist activities in future. It can be concluded that perception of tourists about a certain travel destination also gets affected when terrorists target a location having the least chance of terrorist activities.

5.3.4 Challenges in Fighting Terrorism in Kenya

Respondents were of the view that lack of adequate trained security personnel was a challenge in fighting terrorism in the region. The study has noted that inadequate procedures laid out all over the hotel sector on how to react in case of a terrorist attack on the hotel as a challenge in fighting terrorism. The findings indicate that respondents were of the supposition that there is unclear coordination with security forces such as CID and NSIS on terrorism related issues in the region. The study concludes that poor formulation and implementation crisis and lack of contingency plans in advance is a predominant challenge in countering terrorism. Poor enactment and effective implementation of anti-terrorism kidnapping laws is as a challenge in fight against terror.
5.4 Recommendations

These acts of terrorism can tarnish a country’s image leading to tourists avoiding the place and eventually the country loses out on tourism. The study recommends that countries should effectively manage their image by collaborating with other nations on war against terror attacks so that the mention of its name can evoke a positive image in an individual’s mind.

The existing literature analysis has shown that terrorists have a strong strategic incentive to target Western tourists. The study recommends that starving terrorists of funding remains a priority and a success in the war on terrorism. Foreign nations providing financial sponsorship or allowing illegal transactions of national resources with foreign nations which help Kidnappers network to stop and assist in intelligence to counter kidnappings.

Existing literature has shown that when terrorists attack, the objective of the attacks is to instil fear by threatening basic safety and security needs; this has a negative impact upon tourism in the area (s) of attack. The study recommends that terror threats should never be allowed considerable media attention if nations are going to win the war on terror.

Terrorist radicalization in Kenya is a real threat with the target group for the militants who vary in age. Corruption is a second problem. The study recommends that the best way to combat terrorism is to have well-trained and honest security forces committed to serving justice through established legal means.

5.5 Future Research Area

The study targeted only one Hotel (Travellers Beach Hotel) which makes it impossible to generalize the findings. The study recommends a comparative analysis to determine the effect of terrorist activities on international tourism in Kenya.
Additionally, the study utilized a causal comparative research design which looked at the relationship between independent and dependent variables after the terrorist activities occurred in Kenya. The study recommends a phenomenological approach which is particularly effective at bringing to the fore the experiences and perceptions of individuals from their own perspectives. It will help the Hospitality industry to illuminate the specifics and identify phenomena through how they are perceived by the actors in a situation.

The study also recommends more mixed research method designs for impact evaluations, as qualitative data can enable a richer understanding of how and why terror activities can influence performance of international tourism business.
REFERENCES


Mehmood, (2015). Direct and indirect effects of terrorism on the Turkish


Santos, & Reynaldo, (2013). The Impacts of Mass Media on Organic Destination Image:


APPENDIX A: INTRODUCTION LETTER

TERRY N. GACAU P. O. 1092, 00517, NAIROBI,

Dear Participant

RE: REQUEST FOR PARTICIPATION IN A RESEARCH STUDY

My name is Terry N. Gacau and I am a final year Master of Arts in International Relations student at United States International University (USIU-Africa). I am currently undertaking a research on “INFLUENCE OF TERRORIST ACTIVITIES ON INTERNATIONAL TOURISM ACTIVITIES IN KENYA: A CASE STUDY OF MOMBASA COUNTY BETWEEN 2008-2018.”

I am requesting for your input on this study. All information given during this survey will be treated with utmost confidentiality and only for academic purpose.
I will appreciative on the off chance that you could save at some point from your bustling timetable and fill in the questionnaire. All the information given will be simply used for scholastic purposes and your character will be treated with most extreme classification.

Thank you. Yours faithfully, Terry N. Gacau

Tel. +254721957095

Nairobi, Kenya
APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE


This questionnaire is administered on the employees of Travellers Beach Hotel (TBH) in Mombasa County on influence of terrorism on international tourism.

The information to be given in this questionnaire will be confidential and purely for academic purposes.

The Questionnaire aims to:
- to determine the effect of terrorist suicide attacks on international tourism activities in Kenya;
- to establish the effect of terrorist kidnappings on international tourism activities in Kenya;
- to ascertain the effect of tourist threats on international tourism activities in Kenya; and
- to determine the predominant challenges in fighting terrorism in Kenya.

SECTION A: RESPONDENTS DEMOGRAPHICS

(Fill in the blank spaces and tick once in the below given choices of all questions)

1. Name (optional): ..........................................................

2. Please indicate your age.
   20-29 years [ ]
   30-39 years [ ]
   40-49 years [ ] Above 50 years [ ]

3. Gender: Male [ ]
   Female [ ]

4. Indicate your position in the hotel:
   Owner [ ] Managing Director [ ]
   Operations Manager [ ] Receptionist [ ]
   Security manager [ ]
5. How many years have you worked for the hotel?
   a.) Less than one year [ ]
   b.) 1 to 5 years [ ]
   c.) 6 to 10 years [ ]
   d.) Over 10 years [ ]

SECTION B: ATTRIBUTE ON TERRORIST SUICIDE ATTACKS

6. What is your level of agreement/disagreement concerning terrorist suicide attacks in your hotel business on a scale of 1-5: (5- Strongly agree; 4-Agree; 3-Neutral; 2-disagree; 1- strongly disagree).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Due to suicide attacks foreign nations issue travel advisories which</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have affected the hotel business.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Hotels are the riskiest places for foreign tourists to be attacked</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Terrorism activities affect the cost of operating tourist business.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) Terrorist suicide attacks have affected the way i feel about my job</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) Terrorist activities normally take place on such places which are</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crowded and attractive for foreign tourists</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) Suicide attacks generate fear to enter into international tourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>business</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) When security is on high alert in Mombasa, all international trips</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to Kenya and Mombasa are cancelled.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) Suicide attacks have decreased foreign exchange</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j) There is high cost in operating a tours business due to additional</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>security cost.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SECTION C: ATTRIBUTE ON TERRORIST KIDNAPPINGS

7. What is your level of agreement/disagreement concerning terrorist kidnappings in your business on a scale of 1-5: (5- Strongly agree; 4-Agree; 3-Neutral; 2-disagree; 1- strongly disagree).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a)</td>
<td>Tour operating companies in Mombasa has dropped</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b)</td>
<td>Terrorist Kidnappings demand high amounts of Ransom payment from foreigners which threaten international visits.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c)</td>
<td>Terrorist Kidnappings end up to Death of victim</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d)</td>
<td>Terrorists use foreign tourists to carry out financial Transactions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e)</td>
<td>Foreign tourists are exposed to dangers of tourist kidnappings than local tourists.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f)</td>
<td>Majority of foreign victims of kidnappings or their families are economically stable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g)</td>
<td>Employment opportunity by tour operator companies in Mombasa has declined</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h)</td>
<td>It is a challenge in recovering kidnap victims” property lost during kidnap ordeals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i)</td>
<td>There is change of foreign tourist behavior due to risk of being kidnapped</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SECTION D: ATTRIBUTE ON TERRORIST THREATS

8. What is your level of agreement/disagreement concerning terrorist threats in your business on a scale of 1-5: (5- Strongly agree; 4-Agree; 3-Neutral; 2- disagree; 1- strongly disagree).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a)</td>
<td>Terrorist threats have affected the cost of running a hotel business.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b)</td>
<td>Terrorist threats issued in the last one year in Mombasa county has seen cancellation of international trips to Kenya.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c)</td>
<td>Terrorist threats have led to travel advisories that greatly reduce foreign tourist activities in the county.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d)</td>
<td>Foreign tourists are concerned about the recent terrorist attacks in Mombasa county.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e)</td>
<td>Foreign tourists hesitate in visiting a destination that is subject to terrorist activities in future</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
f) Foreign tourists believe that Mombasa county is at great risk in regards to facing terrorism in the near future.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a)</td>
<td>Lack of adequate trained security personnel</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b)</td>
<td>There is lack of education to employees on terrorism related issues.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c)</td>
<td>Inadequate procedures laid out all over the hotel sector on how to react in case of a terrorist attack on the hotel.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d)</td>
<td>There is unclear coordination with security forces such as CID and NSIS on terrorism related issues.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e)</td>
<td>The government does not conduct drills in preparation of future terroristic attacks.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f)</td>
<td>There are minimum efforts by various stakeholders in preventing terrorist activities from occurring in the future.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g)</td>
<td>There is inadequate knowledge and infrastructure by security agencies to deal with terrorist kidnappings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h)</td>
<td>There is poor enactment and effective implementation of anti-terrorism kidnapping laws</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i)</td>
<td>Lack of clear roadmap to eliminate corruption in government agencies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j)</td>
<td>Poor formulation and implementation crisis and lack of Contingency plans in advance.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME
TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN.

10th JUNE, 2019

Dear Sir/Madam,

REF: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH – TERRY NYAMBURA GACHAU
STUDENT ID. NO.654717

The bearer of this letter is a student of United States International University (USIU) -Africa pursuing a Masters of Arts in International Relations Integrated Studies.

As part of the program, the student is required to undertake a dissertation on the “To Investigate the Impact of Terrorism on International Tourism in Kenya,” which requires her to collect data.

Please note that information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality and will only be used for academic purposes.

Kindly assist the student get the appropriate data and should you have any queries contact the undersigned.

Yours Sincerely,

[Signature]

Prof. Amos Njuguna,
Dean – School of Graduate Studies, Research and Extension
Tel: 730 116 442
Email: amnjuguna@usiu.ac.ke